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* Full paper was submitted and reviewed for the inclusion of presentation.
HOW SOLO DINING ENHANCES HEALTHY EATING: THE ROLE OF CONSUMPTION ORIENTATION AND NUTRITION INFORMATION

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INTRODUCTION

In today’s world, a growing number of consumers find themselves dining solo. This is in part ascribed to changing demographics which indicate a dramatic increase in the proportion of single households (Bouhlel, Mzoughi, & Chaieb, 2011). For example, one person households are now the first (27%) and the second (28%) most common type of household in South Korea and in the US, respectively (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016; Yon, 2016). Moreover, education and dual-careers as well as a trend in decreased intimate network size are also leading to intentional or circumstantial dining solo (Goodwin & Lockshin, 1992; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Brashears, 2006). As a result, consumers are eating alone in more than half of their dining occasions (McLynn, 2014), and more parties of one are found in restaurants (“OpenTable study”, 2015). In tourism, leisure and business travel account for a great proportion of the solo dining occasions (Her, 2016). The rapid increase of solo travelers is also driving the growth of solo dining (Bianchi, 2015; Laesser, Beritelli, & Bieger, 2009). Surprisingly, however, extremely limited attention has been paid to solo dining in the literature. Considering the huge potential of the solo dining population for dominating market change and increasing sales in the hospitality and tourism industry, it is important to understand solo diners. This study addresses one aspect by exploring whether consumers dining out alone follow a different process in making menu decisions compared to group diners. Specifically, we propose that solo (vs. group) diners are more likely to pursue a utilitarian (vs. hedonic) consumption orientation (Hetherington, Anderson, Norton, & Newson, 2006). In turn, a utilitarian orientation may increase the likelihood of solo diners intending to eat healthier menu items. We also propose that this difference may be fostered by the amount of nutrition information in the menu.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Dining social context and healthy menu item decisions. Self-control dilemmas indicate the conflicts between the higher order, long-term goal with a future benefit and a lower order, short-term goal which benefits oneself immediately (Kivetz & Keinan, 2006). Temporal construal theory suggests that the higher-level, abstract goal is more valued by a distal temporal construal and the lower-level, concrete goal becomes more crucial by a proximal temporal construal (Trope, & Liberman, 2010). In our context, consumers with dining partners might be expected to concentrate on joyful conversations with each other, which evokes more arousal. The elevated arousal diminishes cognitive capacity and decreases the resistance to indulgent foods (Fedorikhin & Patrick, 2010). In comparison, consumers dining by themselves may be less emotional with no affect trigger and maintain their cognitive resources. This leaves room for more self-regulatory choice decisions (Fedorikhin & Patrick, 2010). Thus, we argue that the rational solo diners with the saved cognitive capacity would be more interested in a higher order, long-term goal by having a broader distal perspective, compared to the aroused group diners who would likely pursue a lower order, short-term goal by focusing more on the immediate context with others (Gardner, Wansink, Kim, & Park, 2014). Since the consumption of a healthy (vs. less healthy, but indulgent) menu item provides benefits for long-term health and well-being (vs. the short-term benefits of taste and joy), which corresponds to the higher (vs. shorter) order goal (Gardner et al., 2014), we propose:

H1. The dining social context will affect the intention to order (a) healthy and (b) unhealthy menu items, such that solo (vs. group) diners will have higher intention to order healthy (vs. unhealthy) menu items.

The mediation by consumption orientation. In a similar vein, when consumers decide to dine
out alone, the occasions may become more functional and task-oriented (i.e., utilitarian) than consumers sharing a mealtime with others, who seek more pleasure and enjoyable experiences (i.e., hedonic; Ratner & Hamilton, 2015). Thus, lone dining would be more driven by fulfilling basic food needs, while dining with eating partners would primarily be driven by joyful conversations that actively evoke more emotions. Evidence supports that hedonic attributes (design and décor, and ambience) were prioritized in dining out occasions exclusive to a group (hanging out and dates), while utilitarian attributes (speed of service and price) were more valued in occasions which are common for solo dining (take-away, convenience and quick meals [Auty, 1992; Kivela, 1997; Ponnam & Balaji, 2014]). Since a utilitarian (vs. hedonic) orientation is associated with healthy (vs. unhealthy indulgent) foods in numerous prior studies (e.g., Werle, Wansink, & Payne, 2015), we propose:

**H2.** The dining social context will affect the consumption orientation, such that utilitarian (vs. hedonic) orientation will be more prominent for solo (vs. group) diners.

**H3.** The consumption orientation will mediate the effect of the dining social context on the intention to order (a) healthy and (b) unhealthy menu items.

The moderation of the amount of nutrition information. A body of consumer health literature has shown that disclosure of nutrition information enhances consumer awareness in nutrition level of menu items and thus a crucial determinant of healthy item choices (e.g., Kozup, Creyer, & Burton, 2003; Wei & Miao, 2013). However, the effect of increased awareness may backfire in varying contexts. In our context, as the amount of nutrition information increases, the enhanced awareness of healthiness of menu items may rather facilitate the different pursuit of healthy and unhealthy menu items between solo versus group diners stronger. The difference in menu item intentions in part rendered by divergent consumption orientations would also become more prominent because the increased awareness would help better achieve the utilitarian versus hedonic consumption goal. Hence, we propose (Figure 1):

**H4.** The increased amount of nutrition information will strengthen the direct and indirect effects of the dining social context on the intention to order (a) healthy and (b) unhealthy menu items.

![Figure 1. The Conceptual Model](image)

**METHOD**

**Study design and data collection.** The scenario-based survey was developed based on 2 (Dining social context: Solo vs. Group) × 3 (Amount of nutrition information: None vs. Calorie vs. Calorie/Fat/Sodium) between-subjects experimental design. The no nutrition information condition served as control groups. The survey was launched online using Qualtrics software which enabled randomization of scenario assignments. After pilot-testing of the realism of the scenarios, ease of use, and the overall flow, data were collected at an online crowdsourcing platform widely used in social science studies (Chandler & Shapiro, 2016). The screening criteria included that they are adults living in the US with restaurant dining experiences within the last three months. Incentives were provided, and 256 participants responded to the survey.

**Procedure and measurement.** First, the participants were instructed to imagine having an ordinary lunch at a casual dining restaurant with random assignments to eat: with a couple of others, or by oneself. The consumption orientation of the restaurant meal with others or by oneself was measured (1=completely utilitarian, 7=completely hedonic; Ratner & Hamilton, 2010).
Next, one of the three virtual restaurant menus with different amounts of nutrition information was randomly presented. Manipulation check ensured the participants were aware of the presence of nutrition information. The menu had three healthy (grilled chicken salad, classic turkey sandwich, and herb-grilled salmon) and three less healthy (double cheeseburger, country-fried steak, and Cajun shrimp pasta) menu items which were selected from the menus of popular American restaurant chains (e.g., Applebee’s, Denny’s, and Chili’s). The nutrient content for calories, fat, and sodium was obtained from the online websites of these restaurants, and a registered dietician and a nutrition expert confirmed the healthiness level of the menu items. Consideration was given to make the gap very clear between healthy and less healthy items for these nutrients. After participants selected two of their favorite menu items from each of the healthy and less healthy item lists, their intentions to order the healthy and less healthy menu items were separately measured using three items on a 7-point Likert scale (Kwon & Jang, 2011). Finally, various questions pertaining to attention checks, control variables, dining out experiences and demographics were asked. Control variables consisted of nutrition involvement measured with five items (Chandon & Wansink, 2007) and health-consciousness measured with three items (Lee, Conklin, Cranage, & Lee, 2014) on a 7-point Likert scale.

Data analysis. The data will be analyzed using IBM SPSS version 23. In order to test the mediated and moderated relationships between measure variables accordingly, analyses will include a t-test, a repeated measure analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), multiple regression, and bootstrapping (Hayes, 2013).

IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study will contribute to both research and practice by identifying how solo diners might use a different decision making process compared to group diners in terms of healthy menu item orders. In addition, the findings of the mediating role of consumption orientation and the moderating role of nutrition information will add to a better understanding of the underlying mechanism and a facilitator. In theory, the enhanced knowledge about decision making of solo versus group diners will benefit hospitality and tourism marketing researchers who will build up solo consumption and solo travel literature in the future. Since the outcome and moderating variables are related to healthy eating, researchers studying consumers’ healthy diets and the impact of nutrition information will benefit as well. As the behaviors, attitudes, perceptions, and experiences of solo dining consumers are largely undetermined in the literature, we believe this study will provide a platform for future studies. In practice, restauranteurs will be able to understand the consumption orientation and menu preferences of solo compared to group diners in their restaurants, which will help them set timely marketing strategies to attract and target this growing segment of the consumer population. Although calorie labeling will shortly be mandated across large chain restaurants in the US (U.S. Food and Drug Administration, 2016), this study will offer useful information about the prospective impact of the menu calorie labeling and the voluntary offering of additional nutrients on their menus beyond the requirement. This will imply that tailored strategies of menu development and the training of servers may be needed between solo and group consumers.

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THE ANTECEDENTS OF BRAND PRESTIGE AND THE ROLE OF THE MICHELIN GUIDE

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INTRODUCTION

In 2017, for the very first time, the Michelin restaurant guide was published for Seoul. Despite its wide acceptance and respected ranking system for fine-dining restaurants (Johnson et al., 2005), the Michelin restaurant guide receives limited attention among academic researchers. Luxury restaurants are considered to be in the top tier of the market, not only regarding price but also food and beverage quality, decoration, styles, influence, and likely a combination of all attributes (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007). The main focal point of this study is brand prestige. The following variables were found to be contributing to brand prestige; service quality (Ryu et al., 2012), satisfaction (Yi & La, ), and brand credibility (Baek et al., 2010). Moreover, the study introduces emerging constructs that have yet to be thoroughly investigated such as the meal experience scale by Hansen (2014) and brand love. Meal experience scale is newly introduced and has yet to be empirically tested and it was designed to measure service quality of restaurants (Hansen, 2014). Brand love is an immense affection for a brand that goes beyond satisfaction and indicates long-term relationship and deep emotional attachment (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Moreover, the roles of trust in the Michelin guide and interpersonal influence were included to explain the role of the guide with consumption evaluation.

The study aims to comprehensively explore and examine the formation of brand prestige among restaurant patrons in the recently released Seoul Michelin Guide 2017. In order to achieve the aim, four study objectives have been introduced; (1) to explore the service quality perception using the meal experience scale, (2) to test the predictive impact of consumer’s susceptibility to interpersonal influence in choosing the restaurant, (3) to measure trust in the Michelin guide and credibility of a brand, and (4) to investigate the antecedents and the relationships among the variables of brand prestige. Samples of the study would have to dine at any of the Michelin-starred restaurants in the previous six months. A study model along with the hypothesis development process was discussed in the literature review section. Results of the study contribute not only theoretically but also offer valuable insights to industry practitioners alike.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Michelin restaurant guide

In brief, the Michelin restaurant guide judge restaurant excellence. The Michelin “star” is awarded to dining establishments that meet its rigorous criteria. Since its inception over a hundred years ago, the Michelin restaurant guide has been synonym with fine-dining, foodservice innovation, and the pinnacle of modern gastronomy (Johnson et al., 2005; Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007).

Meal Experience

Service quality can easily be regarded as the prerequisite in examining consumer behavior in any service sectors (Ryu et al., 2012). The meal experience scale was a result of the combination, refinement, and discovering existing and new dimensions. The author has formed a pool of existing items from the SERVQUAL, DINESERV and Lee and Hing’s (1995) scales. Using the 28-item meal experience scale to measure service quality of this study provides impactful contributions. This would be the first time the scale is tested and gives a significant theoretical contribution to the scale and also in the research of service quality, especially in the luxury sphere.

Informational interpersonal influence

Informational influence refers to the extent
in which an individual would accept information from other as credible evidence of reality (Bearden et al., 1989). Hsu et al. (2006) stated consumers appear to act in a consistent manner to the social group to which they belong. Additionally, the consensus that friends, relatives or acquaintances as more credible sources of information compared to mass-media sources (Mourali & Laroche, 2005). These suggestions can be aggregated and help develop such argument, because an individual would socialize with people of the same lifestyle and preferences and because people take into account recommendations from people around them.

**Meal satisfaction**

The well-studied construct of satisfaction can still be a crucial construct within the framework of consumer behavior. Satisfaction is often used as a mediator between firm performance (i.e. service quality, physical environment) and post consumption behaviors (i.e. repeat patronage, brand loyalty, word-of-mouth intention) (Back, 2005).

**Trust in the Michelin guide**

In essence, the construct of trust in the Michelin guide is relatively straightforward, it intends to measure the level of belief that the information and recommendation provided on the guide are of high standards. In the study framework, the construct has been hypothesized to be affected by a meal satisfaction and informational interpersonal influence. The relationship between satisfaction and trust in the guide stems from the results of studies that suggests that the ability of the firm to perform generate confidence that they can deliver again in the future (Ha & Perks, 2005).

**Brand credibility**

Brand credibility is defined as the believability of the brand to produce or perform the goods and services they have promised (Erdem & Swait, 2004). A number studies linking brand credibility to future responses variables such as revisit intention, risk perception, and advocacy loyalty behaviors (Erdem & Swait, 2004). Instead of focusing on one particular service experience, brand credibility concerns itself with the longevity of the experience. The inclusion of brand credibility alongside the trust in the Michelin guide variable would potentially offer insights into how service satisfaction would influence the perception of future credibility both of the brand and also the guide.

**Brand love**

Carroll and Ahuvia (2006, p.79) described brand love as “a new marketing construct that helps explain and predict variation in desirable post-consumption behavior among satisfied consumers.” Brand love was an attempt to deepen the understanding of consumer behavior beyond satisfaction or from the like-dislike notion (Batra et al., 2012). Researchers found brand love to be related to post-consumption behaviors such as positive word-of-mouth, brand loyalty, willingness to pay a price premium, forgiveness in brand failures, among other outcomes (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). Brand love is found to play a crucial role for products that offer more hedonic benefits than utilitarian (Batra et al., 2012).

**Brand prestige**

Brand prestige refers to the status of a brand that tends to elicit high status in the market (Dubois & Paternault, 1995). When compared to non-prestige brands, customers usually are predominantly motivated by the intangible benefits in addition to the utilitarian benefits (O’Cass & Frost, 2002). Prestige brands are often associated with enhancing the social standing and self-expression. This was achieved by their relative rarity commanded by the higher price compared with products or services by non-prestige brands (O’Cass & Frost, 2002). Brand credibility of a restaurant is a result of consistently offering quality meals in the past, and as a result elicit trust among consumers that they will continue to deliver in the future. Therefore, brand credibility is hypothesized to be an antecedent of brand prestige.

**METHOD**

All the measurement items used in the study has been adopted from previous studies. Then, these items were adapted to fit the context of this present research. The meal experience scale was
developed and proposed by Hansen (2014). The scale comprises a total of 28 items in six factors. Five items used in Choi et al. (2011) were adopted to examine respondent’s “meal satisfaction” level. Then, a three-item construct of “brand prestige” were included. The same three items were used in Baek et al. (2010). Next variable is “brand credibility,” it consists of six. Baek et al. (2010) used these items to measure a variety of products with high degree of success. Carroll and Ahuvia’s (2006) study on brand love used ten items to measure the level of ‘love’ the customer has to the brand. Four statements measuring “informational interpersonal influence” were adapted from Bearden et al.’s (1989) study. Lastly, “brand prestige” variables were measured using a three-item used in Casidy and Wymer (2016). Upon the completion of the survey, it was subjected to a pre-test by graduate students in Hospitality and Tourism Management, industry experts, and senior academics. English to Korean translation was done using a professional translation company.

A total of 400 responses were collected. The process of identifying extreme outliers was done using Boxplots in SPSS. Examination on linearity and homoscedasticity showed no violations, thus, indicate the data showed evidence of multivariate normality. The final number of cases remain at 373. The gender is relatively equal, male represents 56.8%, and 43.2% were female. The mean age is 40.07. The largest group reported earning between 40 million and 54.9 million Korean Won annually with 21.4%. The majority of participants reported having earned advanced degrees. Master’s degree holders accounted for over half at 56.8%. An overwhelmingly large percentage (70%) are full-time employees. Those who reported the latest visit to be between their second to fourth time accounted for over 60%. On the other hand, only 27.1% visited the restaurant for the first time. More than half of the respondents visit Michelin-starred restaurants no more than twice a year. Family and relatives are found to the accompanying persons to their latest visit to the restaurant at 44.5%.

**RESULTS**

Before the testing, the measurement model using the CFA technique, a series of factor analyses were performed. The results of EFA on meal experience items showed a KMO score of .800 and Bartlett’s test of sphericity produced Chi-square of 853.983, degree-of-freedom of 15, and the significant at the .001 level. From the initial amount of 28 items, only six items were retained. However, the six items loaded strongly on their respective factors. As a result, the factor has retained its original name, “core product.” The second factor consists of two items, also from the same preconceived dimension. Hansen (2014) originally named the factor “company,” but the name does not truly reflect the items. Therefore, in this present study, the factor has been renamed to ‘Staff’s core and communication.” Meal satisfaction factor consists of four items. The six items belonging to brand credibility were reduced to three. Next, brand love contains five items, down from nine. Brand prestige, informational interpersonal influence, and trust in the Michelin guide all comprises of three items.

The first step in hypothesis testing is to test the measurement model. The goodness-of-fit statistics of the measurement model suggests a good model fit ($\chi^2 = 572.094$, $df = 294$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df = 1.946$, RMSEA = .050, CFI = .955, IFI = .955). The CR values of all variables ranging from .804 to .862. Therefore, the evidence of reliability exists. The AVE value is .672 as the highest and .550 as the lowest score, yet all exceed the minimum recommended amount of .50. According to our results evidence of discriminant validity generally exists.

The goodness-of-fit statistics of the structural model also show adequate fit between the data and the proposed model ($\chi^2 = 675.635$, $df = 310$, $\chi^2/df = 2.179$, RMSEA = .056, CFI = .941, IFI = .941, TLI = .933, NFI = .896, PGFI = .726). The final construct, brand prestige was explained by 76.6% of the total variance ($R^2 = .811$). All the proposed hypotheses have been supported by the data, except one. Figure 1 illustrate the SEM results.
DISCUSSIONS

There are many implications that managers and owners of restaurants can take away from this study. First, the two direct predictors of brand prestige, surprisingly the perception of prestige was cognitively driven and not emotionally influenced. For managers and owners of restaurants, this should be encouraging in that if service quality, satisfaction, and brand credibility are all contributing to the prestigious status, meaning the status can be achieved internally. In other words, if the restaurant can offer high-quality meal experience and ensure customers that they can and willing to deliver the same standards of service in the future, they can also be considered a prestigious brand by its clients. The restaurant can also augment the significance of the occasions by offering customize service. For example, complimentary desserts or snacks congratulating anniversaries, or a small birthday souvenirs.

Theoretically, the validation of the scale with this study, thus, not an in-depth exploration and validation of the scale, it was the first to put the scale into testing. At this point, the results can only be described as mixed, opening a new opportunity for future research to further explore this scale in different settings. This study also introduced relatively new paths together with some of the more established concepts. The hierarchical flow between service quality – satisfaction – brand credibility has been once again confirmed with the results of this study. Brand love and brand prestige both of which has not been receiving much attention in the scientific community have been introduced to further explore their roles within the studies of marketing and consumer behavior.

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DIFFERENCES IN CONVENIENCE FOOD LIFESTYLE AND CONVENIENCE FOOD SELECTION ATTRIBUTES BY GROUPS ON CONVENIENCE STORE FOOD CHOICE BEHAVIORS

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INTRODUCTION

Social changes have strongly influenced individual lifestyle, which in turn have affected their behaviors and choices (Glanz, Basil, Maibach, Goldberg, & Snyder, 1998; Lazer, 1963). Dramatical demographic changes have appeared since 2000, and in particular single-member households have significantly increased and they are more likely to pursue a convenient lifestyle including convenience food lifestyle (Kim, Lee, & Youn, 2015; Ryan, Cowan, McCarthy, & O’Sullivan, 2004). Some studies found that as the boundary of traditional gender role collapses in modern society, more and more women have invested and engaged in their career life and have witnessed a significant increase in economic power (Blumberg & Coleman, 1989), thereby spending more on dining out, takeout food, or pre-packed meal boxes as the pursuit of convenience (Brunner, van der Horst, & Siegrist, 2010; Buckley, Cowan, & McCarthy, 2007). With the growing interest in consumption of convenience foods, convenience food markets have rapidly grown particularly in Korea where the concept of a convenience store is extended to a showcase place to display and sell newly developed convenience foods, products, and services at a very rapid pace (Kim, 2016; Yang, 2015). Consistently, convenience store sales have had remarkable growth in the past three years (Ministry of Trade, Industry & Energy, 2016). As the evolving convenience food lifestyle and the growing rate of convenience stores are considered as one of the most important social phenomenon, this study is to have an in-depth understanding of customers who purchase foods at a convenience store. More specifically, this study is to investigate if user segments on the level of consumer engagement in purchasing convenience foods have differences in their convenience food lifestyle and convenience food selection attributes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Many studies have examined eating patterns as one of lifestyle components, but more recently some studies that conducted in Korea focus on convenience food lifestyle that is widespread in Korean society (Jeong, 2014; Kim et al., 2015). Buckley et al. (2007) studied convenience food lifestyle targeted to individuals in European countries where convenience food lifestyle emerged earlier than that in Korea. Buckley et al. (2007) developed the convenience food lifestyle scale (CFL), and this scale includes items that reflect some attitudes to avoid cooking, to have task-oriented personalities, to pursue a life of efficiency, and so on. Choi (2011) used a modified version of CFL, applied it to consumers in Korea, and found four main segments consisting of convenience food avoiders, individual efficiency pursuers, time saving pursuers, convenient consumption pursuers. Candel (2001) suggests that there may be a significant relationship between convenience food lifestyle and convenience food selection attributes. Convenience food selection attributes are more closely related to whether consumers purchase certain products (Kim, 2007). Jeong, Lee, and Yang (2007) used specific attributes items developed from the main attribute domains such as price, display, sanitation, quality, efficiency, taste, convenience, variety, freshness, familiarity, brand, product preferences, etc, and found that convenience food selection attributes have a significant correlation with consumer choice behaviors. More recently, Viana, Silva, Deliza and Trindade (2016) studied consumers who purchase prepacked frozen burgers and found that convenience food selection attributes have a significant relationship with convenience food choice behaviors.
METHOD

The respondents will be individuals who have ever purchased at a convenience store in Korea. In order to encourage a high response rate and more equally distributed demographic information, this study will collect data online through the online survey company that has the largest sample of the adult population (n=1,200,000) in South Korea. The participants that answer all questions will be paid by the online survey company, which will reduce missing or careless responses. The online survey has a fixed choice item questionnaire. The questionnaire will mainly consist of three sections: A modified Convenience Food Lifestyle(CFL) (51 items) (Buckley et al., 2007; Choi, 2011; Jeong, 2015), Convenience Food Selection Attributes (CFSA) (23 items) (Chae et al., 2008; Jeong et al., 2007; Park, 2014) and convenience store food choice behaviors (43 items) (Lee, 2009, 2015; Viana et al., 2016). For the CFL and CFSA items, the respondents will be asked to agree or disagree (on a 5 point-Likert scale). Convenience store food choice behaviors will be measured on dummy variable (1=Yes, 0=No). Respondents will be asked to answer if they had ever purchased 43 food products that three main brand convenience stores (i.e., GS, CU, Seven eleven) have in Korea, using ‘Yes/No’ dichotomous question per each food. As suggested by Zaichkowski (1985), the bottom 33% and the top 33% will be designated as cutoff percentiles. The 33rd percentile will be designated as a lower involvement group (LI); those between the 34th percentile and 66th percentile will be designated a medium involvement group (MI); and those with scores in the 67th percentile will be designated as a high involvement group(HI) to investigate differences in their convenience food lifestyles and selection attributes. The participants will range in age between 20 and older. The data will be analyzed using frequencies, factor analysis, MANOVA.

IMPLICATIONS

Changes in social and individual lifestyles have influenced the rise of the convenience food market. However, little research has been conducted in the context of convenience store consumers in Korea despite significant increases in convenience store sales. There is a need to have an in-depth understanding of how customer groups on the level of involvement in purchasing convenience foods show differences in their convenience food lifestyles and selection attributes to develop basic data for convenience store industry. In particular, it is expected that those who are highly involved in purchasing convenience store food show stronger convenience food lifestyles and convenience food choice selection attributes than those who are little involved in it. The findings will help develop more customized products and establish marketing strategies in convenience store food markets.

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HOW INBOUND TOURISM MATTERS TO REGIONAL INCOME INEQUALITY IN CHINA? USING A NEW APPROACH OF GINI–COEFFICIENTS CALCULATING

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INTRODUCTION

How tourism matters to regional economic inequality has aroused a number of studies in tourism domain. With an attempt to further this topic, this study employs a unique inequality index to analyze the impact of inbound tourism on income inequality, taking China as a case.

This paper focuses on the impact of inbound tourism on income inequality in the eastern, central and western regions of China. There are four main contributions of our study to the tourism literature. First, to our knowledge, this is the first study that attempts to calculate Gini index of the remainder of GDP stripping inbound tourism receipts, which GDP per capita is taken as the proxy variable of macro income, and the direction and degree of the impact of tourism on income inequality are expressed by the difference value. Second, a new algorithm of Gini index is proposed to decompose the impact of tourism on inequality of income. The mechanism that tourism affects inequality of income is theoretically verified, three intrinsic factors are found: (1) the difference between distributions of tourism and GDP, (2) the contribution of the balance of tourism distribution to that of GDP distribution, (3) the percentage of tourism receipts in GDP. Third, an effect index is proposed to measure how tourism affects inequality of income, it is equal to above (2) minus (3). Tourism improves inequality of income when the index is less than 0, it is equivalent to that tourism receipts are regressive about GDP. Fourth, the impact of inbound tourism on income inequality shows differentiated characteristics in different regions. Inbound tourism has positive impact of income inequality on less developed central and western regions.

METHOD

This study uses inbound tourism receipts, the number of tourist arrivals, population, per capital GDP of 31 provinces in China from 1997 to 2015 for the analysis. Considering the huge gap in economy development, we divide 31 provinces into three groups: eastern region, central region and western region.

GDP per capital is an important indicator for economic development of a province; it is the sum of the added values of three major industries (the primary industry, the secondary industry and the service industry). Because it is difficult to estimate the multiplier effect of inbound tourism and the share of its value added in GDP, the study supposes that the inbound tourism receipt (TR) is a component of GDP. Let NTR denotes the remainder of GDP stripping TR. Therefore, GDP=TR+NTR. If we can obtain the Gini indices of GDP, TR and NTR (G_{GDP}, G_{TR} and G_{NTR}) respectively, then the impact of inbound tourism will be revealed by comparing G_{NTR} and G_{GDP}.

Gini index’s income share method

In the study, we employ a new algorithm of Gini coefficient proposed by Dai (2015). Suppose that there are n spatial units, such as 31 localities, with different per capital incomes. These units are ranked by per capital incomes, from small to large, such as, y_1, y_2, ..., y_n. The populations of each unit is q_1, q_2, ..., q_n. Let us establish the following equation:

\[ F_i = \frac{q_1 + \ldots + q_i}{q_1 + \ldots + q_n}, \quad L_i = \frac{q_1 y_1 + \ldots + q_i y_i}{q_1 y_1 + \ldots + q_n y_n}, \quad F_0 = L_0 = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, n \]
As Fig. 1 shows, the polygonal line formed by points \((F_i, L_i), i=0,1,\cdots,n\), is Lorenz curve, \(G\) for Gini coefficient equals to twice of the area \(S_\lambda\) surrounded by the diagonal and Lorenz curve. After calculating the area of the trapezoid \(L_{i-1}P_{i-1}P_iL_i, (i=0,1,\cdots,n)\), and summing them in turn, then subtracting 0.5, it can give the following expression

\[
S_\lambda = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{F_i + F_{i-1}}{2} (L_i - L_{i-1}) - \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} q_i y_i (F_i + F_{i-1} - 1)
\]

\[
G = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i}{S} \omega_i, \quad S = q_1 y_1 + \cdots + q_n y_n, \quad \omega_i = F_i + F_{i-1} - 1
\]

Formula (1) is called the income share method for Gini coefficient. It is necessary to apply the relative marginal effect, group and source decompositions in Gini coefficients analysis.

Decomposing Gini index by sources of income

There are \(R\) different sources of income, let \(y=y^1+y^2+\cdots+y^R\), the Gini index can be decomposed into

\[
G = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \frac{S_r}{S} G_r + \sum_{r=1}^{R} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i^r}{S} \left( \omega_i^r - \omega_i \right)
\]

The relative marginal effect of Gini index

Assuming that the \(m\)-th income source grows at a fixed rate \(e\), let \(y'=y+ey^m\), a change in Gini index can be expressed as

\[
\Delta G = \frac{eG}{1 + eS_m/S} \left( s(m) - \frac{S_m}{S} \right) + \Delta_1, \quad \Delta_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i^m}{S} \left( \omega_i^m - \omega_i \right)
\]

where \(G\) stands for Gini index of income \(y\), \(\Delta G\) stands for increment of Gini index because of increasing income, \(s(m)\) is the contribution of \(m\)-th source of income to the Gini index of income \(y\), namely

\[
s(m) = S(m)/G, \quad G = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i^1}{S} \omega_i + \cdots + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i^R}{S} \omega_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} S(i)
\]
For discrete data, there is a small enough $e$ that will not change the ranking by ascending the per capita income after getting an income increment, thus $\Delta y = 0$ in the equation (3). That means the sign of $\Delta G$ is determined by $s(m) - S_m/S$. Stark et al. (1986) refer to the difference as the relative marginal effect (RME). It has a clear economic meaning: increasing m-th income tends to reduce Gini index when the relative marginal effect is negative, which means to improve income inequality.

**The effect decomposing of inbound tourism**

The equation (4) can be conducted by GDP=TR+NTR.

$$\Delta G = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i x_i}{S_x}(\alpha^x_i - \alpha^f_i) + \frac{S_x}{S_f}(s(f) - S_y)/G_{GDP} \tag{4}$$

where $y$, $x$ and $f$ stand for values of GDP, NTR and TR relatively. The conditions of $y=x+f$, $s(x)+s(f)=1$ and $S_x+S_f$ are satisfied. The effect of inbound tourism on income inequality can be divided into two terms based on the equation (4). The first component is called the direct effect of inbound tourism, it affects Gini index by changing orders of income per capita. It is negative because Gini index of NTR is the maximal value in the concentrate ratio of NTR, which ranks by ascending NTR per capita. The second component is called the indirect effect of inbound tourism; its sign is determined by the relative marginal effect of inbound tourism receipts. Apparently, to make the relative marginal effect negative, it needs less contribution of TR’s concentration ratio to GDP’s Gini index, or more income share of TR in GDP. So there are three intrinsic factors that theoretically affect the income inequality.

**The effect index of inbound tourism on inequality of income**

The relative marginal effect of inbound tourism decides the sign of second component of equation (4). The inbound tourism improves inequality of income when the relative marginal effect is negative. So the effect index of inbound tourism on inequality of income can be defined by the relative marginal effect of inbound tourism, which is denoted by $M$. The $M$ index can be expressed as:

$$M = s(f) - \frac{S_f}{S_y} = \frac{S_f}{S_y G_{GDP}}(C_f - G_{GDP}) = \frac{S_f}{S_y G_{GDP}} K_f \tag{5}$$

where $C_f$ denotes the concentration index of inbound tourism, $K_f$ denotes the Kakwani’s index, which is applied to measure tax progressive (Kakwani, 1977). When the tourism receipts are regressive, the tourism improves inequality of income ($M<0$), which means that the share of tourism decreases as the share of GDP increases. Therefore, the $M$ index can measure degree of the improvement.

**FINDINGS**

According to the calculating results in Gini coefficients of inbound tourism receipts and their decomposition based on eastern, central and western regions, this study finds that, although inbound tourism receipts have apparently scattered as a whole, the situation becomes different for three groups: eastern, central and western regions. A concentrated trend emerges in central region, and a trembling trend emerges in western region while an evenly-distributed trend emerges in eastern region. According to the Gini coefficient decomposition, the contribution of the concentrated trend within regions is significantly greater than one of the concentrated trend between regions.

Table 1 indicates the Gini coefficients of NTR and GDP in eastern, central and western regions. It can be found that $G_{NTR}$ is less than $G_{GDP}$ in eastern region, indicating that the inbound tourism receipts have deteriorated the income inequality in eastern region. The relationship between $G_{NTR}$ and $G_{GDP}$ in western region is
almost opposite to that in eastern region (16/19), in central region, \( G_{\text{NTR}} \) is greater than \( G_{\text{GDP}} \) since 2009, indicating that inbound tourism receipts can improve income inequality in central and western regions. In addition, the positive relative marginal effect (RME) of Gini coefficient indicates that increasing inbound tourism receipts have a marginal tendency of deteriorating income inequality for 31 provinces, but it is lucky that the values of RME have a decreasing tendency as a whole.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>NTR in eastern region</th>
<th>GDP in eastern region</th>
<th>NTR in central region</th>
<th>GDP in central region</th>
<th>NTR in western region</th>
<th>GDP in western region</th>
<th>RME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>0.1578</td>
<td>0.1653+</td>
<td>0.0916</td>
<td>0.0920+</td>
<td>0.1042</td>
<td>0.1042+</td>
<td>0.0169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>0.1636</td>
<td>0.1705+</td>
<td>0.0901</td>
<td>0.0903+</td>
<td>0.1034</td>
<td>0.1032+</td>
<td>0.0159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>0.2357</td>
<td>0.2422+</td>
<td>0.2060</td>
<td>0.2076+</td>
<td>0.2669</td>
<td>0.2707+</td>
<td>0.0155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>0.1569</td>
<td>0.1629+</td>
<td>0.0836</td>
<td>0.0839+</td>
<td>0.0975</td>
<td>0.0968+</td>
<td>0.0157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>0.1728</td>
<td>0.1794+</td>
<td>0.0867</td>
<td>0.0872+</td>
<td>0.1130</td>
<td>0.1129+</td>
<td>0.0151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>0.1656</td>
<td>0.1716+</td>
<td>0.0863</td>
<td>0.0867+</td>
<td>0.1223</td>
<td>0.1220+</td>
<td>0.0154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>0.1711</td>
<td>0.1751+</td>
<td>0.0893</td>
<td>0.0898+</td>
<td>0.1333</td>
<td>0.1333+</td>
<td>0.0115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>0.1660</td>
<td>0.1707+</td>
<td>0.0848</td>
<td>0.0850+</td>
<td>0.1373</td>
<td>0.1373+</td>
<td>0.0129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>0.1561</td>
<td>0.1604+</td>
<td>0.0816</td>
<td>0.0817+</td>
<td>0.1393</td>
<td>0.1392+</td>
<td>0.0128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>0.1527</td>
<td>0.1561+</td>
<td>0.0809</td>
<td>0.0811+</td>
<td>0.1454</td>
<td>0.1452+</td>
<td>0.0116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>0.1471</td>
<td>0.1502+</td>
<td>0.0795</td>
<td>0.0796+</td>
<td>0.1460</td>
<td>0.1457+</td>
<td>0.0111</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0.1356</td>
<td>0.1382+</td>
<td>0.0805</td>
<td>0.0807+</td>
<td>0.1537</td>
<td>0.1534+</td>
<td>0.0100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>0.1370</td>
<td>0.1391+</td>
<td>0.0693</td>
<td>0.0692-</td>
<td>0.1756</td>
<td>0.1752+</td>
<td>0.0087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>0.1330</td>
<td>0.1354+</td>
<td>0.0640</td>
<td>0.0640-</td>
<td>0.1754</td>
<td>0.1749-</td>
<td>0.0098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>0.1282</td>
<td>0.1298+</td>
<td>0.0647</td>
<td>0.0647-</td>
<td>0.1765</td>
<td>0.1761-</td>
<td>0.0086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>0.1263</td>
<td>0.1278+</td>
<td>0.0663</td>
<td>0.0663-</td>
<td>0.1707</td>
<td>0.1706-</td>
<td>0.0085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>0.1273</td>
<td>0.1282+</td>
<td>0.0647</td>
<td>0.0646-</td>
<td>0.1690</td>
<td>0.1698+</td>
<td>0.0064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>0.1301</td>
<td>0.1310+</td>
<td>0.0671</td>
<td>0.0668-</td>
<td>0.1560</td>
<td>0.1559-</td>
<td>0.0062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>0.1359</td>
<td>0.1372+</td>
<td>0.0705</td>
<td>0.0704-</td>
<td>0.1491</td>
<td>0.1487-</td>
<td>0.0063</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: + (-) in the table denotes that inbound tourism receipts exacerbate (improve) region’s income inequality (the fourth decimal numbers are rounded).

**CONCLUSION**

Employing a unique method of calculating Gini-coefficients, this study has the following conclusion:

1) For eastern regions, inbound tourism has exacerbated income inequality from 1997 to 2015; for central regions, it has alleviated income inequality from 2009 to 2015, but exacerbated it from 1997 to 2008; for western region, it has alleviated income inequality in most years except 1997, 1999 and 2004. It means that inbound tourism has positive influence in China’s less developed regions.

2) Taking 31 localities as a whole, inbound tourism have exacerbated income inequality from 1997 to 2015, but the degree of deterioration shows a weakening trend. As for the number of tourist arrivals, it has showed a trend of even distribution.

The implication of this study is clear. As the inbound tourism can effectively improve the income inequality in the central and western regions, local governments in the central and western regions should actively promote the development of tourism.

**REFERENCES**


MEASURING CROSS–BORDER ETHNOCENTRIC TENDENCIES TOWARDS THE CONSUMPTION OF TOURISM EXPERIENCES

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INTRODUCTION

Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) represents “the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing foreign-made products” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987:280). Over the past three decades, researchers from various fields have been able to successfully measure consumer ethnocentric tendencies by using an instrument known as the Consumer Ethnocentric Tendency Scale (CETSCALE), introduced by Shimp and Sharma in 1987. Today, CE is quite a well investigated phenomenon in the area of consumer behavior. It has been studied in different parts of the world including developed and developing countries, and within diverse categories of products and services. The emergence of the experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1998), and the subsequent conceptualizations of tourism as an experience (Oh, Fiore, & Jeong, 2007; Volvo, 2009), have helped to draw a distinction between tourism and other types of economic offerings. This distinction raises an important enquiry about a possible influence of ethnocentric tendencies on tourist destination choices.

Problem statement

The primary function of CE is to explain attitudes towards two items: domestic versus imported products. In tourism literature however, the application of CE to explain behavioural attitudes towards tourist experiences has received little, if any, attention from researchers. Additionally, failure to apply CE into tourism is also characterised by the absence of a tourism specific scale, intended to capture ethnocentric tendencies towards the consumption of tourism experiences (Lindquist, Vida, Plank, & Fairhurst, 2001). Consequently, this gap in tourist behaviour literature presents a research opportunity to be addressed by the proposed investigation.

Research justification

Globalization is a complex multidimensional phenomenon involving economic, political, and cultural processes. Under globalization, the international flow of products (commodities, goods, and services) from one cultural setting to another, has led to various studies in the area of international consumer behavior, such as consumer ethnocentrism (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Similarly, tourism, which is a phenomenon involving human mobility across geographical and cultural settings, for a defined duration and purpose, has rapidly gained momentum since the 1950s. It is viewed both as an outcome and as a contributing factor of globalization (Hannam & Knox, 2010:6), with international arrivals rising to 1.2 billion in 2015, as compared to 806 million in 2005, and 25 million in 1950 (UNWTO, 2016a; 2016b:3).

Numerous studies have incorporated tourism elements into CE investigations. These studies however, appear not to have responded to calls for CE investigations within different product categories, in order to advance the understanding of the phenomenon from tourism experiences perspective (Evanschitzky, v. Wangenheim, Woisetschläger, & Blut, 2008). Instead, these studies have consistently assigned the tourism experience as a socio-psychological antecedent (independent variable), rather than an outcome variable which would have been influenced by CE. Alternatively stated, these investigations have addressed how worldmindedness influences one’s CE and attitude towards imported products or services, rather than how does [animosity or patriotism for instance] influence one’s CE and attitude towards foreign tourism experiences?

In line with the above-mentioned background, it is evidenced that consumer ethnocentric tendencies are good predictors of import purchase behavior, and even better predictors than demographic or marketing mix variables (Herche, 1992). Thus, considering the fundamental cross-cultural nature of tourism, it can certainly be established that applying CE into the field of tourist behavior can not only provide a fresh perspective in understanding tourist
destination choices along with the conventional approaches such as push and pull factors theories but can also enable stakeholders to have an overall understanding of the effects of CE on different types of economic offerings (commodities, goods, services, and experiences).

**Purpose of the study**

The proposed study applies CE in tourist destination choices. Its purpose is to explore CE in contemporary tourism consumption behavior and describe its relationship with socio-psychological factors.

The above stated research purpose is translated into the following objectives:

- Conceptualise and justify the presence of ethnocentrism in tourism consumption.
- Analytical literature review assessing the applicability of the CETSCALE in measuring consumer ethnocentrism in tourism, in order to justifying the scale adaptation over adoption.
- Develop an adapted version of the scale, which will reflect tourism truths from its initial domain specification stage.

Validate the construct and analyse the relationships between tourist ethnocentrism, attitude towards foreign destinations, patriotism, animosity, and demographic variables.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Ethnocentrism is considered a nearly universal socio-psychological tendency, whose strength may vary among social groups (LeVine & Campbell, 1972). In general, ethnocentrism means that people tend to view their cultural grouping as the center of the universe, to interpret other social units from the perspective of their own group, and to reject persons who are culturally dissimilar while blindly accepting those who are culturally like themselves (Booth, 1979; Worchel & Cooper, 1979). Researchers have expanded the concept of ethnocentrism to various fields, including consumer behavior. Consumer ethnocentrism (CE) refers to the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of purchasing products of foreign origin. From the perspective of ethnocentric consumers, purchasing imported products is wrong because, in their opinion, it causes loss of jobs, hurts the domestic economy, and is plainly unpatriotic (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Nielsen & Spence, 1997; Klein, Etttenson, & Morris, 1998; Nadiri & Tümer, 2010). Many studies have found that CE tend to vary across product categories (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004; Chryssochoidis, Krystallis, & Perreas, 2007; Evanschitzky et al., 2008). This rationale has encouraged CE research across various types of economic offerings. Some of these studies include goods such as cars, electronic equipment, food, clothing, shoes, and services such as life insurance, education, airline, and banking (Pinkaeo & Speece, 2000; Chang & Cheng, 2011; Maina, 2016). Tourism elements have also been addressed into CE investigations. These include interest in foreign travel (Nijssen, Douglas, & Nobel, 1999; Litvin, Crotts, & Hefner, 2004), exposure to other cultures, and impact of international travel experiences (Rawwas, Rajendran, & Wuehrer, 1996; Nijssen & Douglas, 2008; 2011), and even CE analyses from the perspective of international tourists (Chang & Cheng, 2011; Kuncharin & Mohamed, 2014).

An extensive review of the factors which affect CE and attitude towards foreign products, has been produced by Shankarmahesh (2006). These factors include socio-psychological, economic, political, and demographic antecedents. Regarding this review, socio-psychological antecedents, patriotism and consumer animosity (CA) are of relevance to the proposed study. Patriotism implies strong feelings of attachment and loyalty to one's own country without subsequent hostility towards other nations (Balabanis, Diamantopoulos, Mueller, Dentiste, & Melewar, 2001:160), and CA refers to the remaining feelings of aversion related to previous or ongoing military, political, or economic events (Klein et al., 1998). Balabanis et al. (2001) highlight that patriotism has no consistent influence on CE. They suggest that the effect is country-specific. Klein and Etttenson (1999), and Klein (2002) provide evidence that CA affects consumers’ willingness to buy foreign products, while Vida and Reardon (2008) also account for the same effects from patriotism.

**Conceptualization and hypotheses**

This study proposes the term Tourist Ethnocentrism (TE), as an adaptation of Consumer Ethnocentrism (CE) in tourism. TE is operationally
defined as: The beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, and morality of spending money away from their usual environment for the purpose of escapism, aesthetic, entertainment, or educational experiences for more than 24 hours, while being forbidden to exercise any remunerated activities at the destination (conceptualized from Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Pine & Gilmore, 1999; UNWTO, 1991).

Along with the reviewed literature, the primary hypothesis of this study is stated as follow:

$H_1$: highly ethnocentric tourists are expected to be more likely to have a positive evaluation and attitude towards travelling domestically.

![Conceptual research framework](image)

**Figure 1.1: Conceptual research framework**

**PROPOSED METHODOLOGY**

The proposed research consists of in 2 main parts. The first part of the will focus on the tourism adaptation of the 17-items CETSCALE of Shimp and Sharma (1987). This part will require English-speaking participants, to prevent problems which may arise from language barrier. The entire process will follow a variation of Churchill’s (1979) paradigm. Selecting the 17-items version among other adaptations with fewer items, is based on the dimensional richness of the construct (Saffu & Walker, 2005; Chryssochoidis et al., 2007). Based on findings that the CETSCALE is a complex second-order instrument, the domains of TE will be adopted from the first-order factors which are used to observe CE, namely economic rationality, economic animosity, and morality (Marcoux et al., 1997; Mavondo & Tan, 1999). In order to capture tourism realities within TE, additional dimensions will be obtained from a qualitative enquiry related to traveling domestically and abroad. A deductive approach will be used to generate items form the identified domains of TE. This approach is judged suitable, in view of the well-established theory in the field of consumer ethnocentrism, and tourist behavior. Moreover, this particular approach will help ensure the content adequacy between the items and construct’s domains. A sample of $n=30$ respondents will be required for a quantitative pre-test aimed at assessing content adequacy. Participants will be required to rate on a 5-point Likert Scale, the extent to which the generated items are consistent with the conceptualization of TE. The obtained results will then be statistically analyzed for variance (ANOVA), in order to identify whether an item was statistically significantly higher on the proposed definition of TE at $p < .05$. The retained items will be administered to a sample of $n > 150$ (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988), on a 7-point Likert Scale. The obtained results will be checked for inter-item correlation with a rule of deleting any item that correlates at less than .4 with all other items, as suggested by Kim and Mueller (1978). It will allow the identification of variables that are not drawn from the appropriate domains, which can produce error and unreliability (Churchill, 1979). The remaining items will be submitted to an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) in order to reduce the set of items, then submitted to a
Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to test the statistical significance of the new scale. An internal consistency assessment will be conducted using Cronbach’s Alpha value $\alpha > .7$ as recommended by Nunnally (1978).

Study 2 consists of construct validation and hypotheses testing. A quantitative approach will be used together with a proximity-based sample selection of $n=900$ respondents. Data will be collected from 3 study areas based on ease of accessibility: Japan, South Africa, and possibly New Zealand. Participants will consist of university students. The data collection tool will be a coded self-administered structured survey consisting of 4 main sections: Demographics variables, Tourist Ethnocentrism (scale from Study 1), Patriotism (to be adapted from 7-item Patriotism Scale of Kosterman & Feshbach, 1989), and Animosity (to be adapted from 8-item Animosity Scale of Klein et al., 1998). Questions will be randomized, and pilot study tests will be conducted to refine the survey.

THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study introduces a novel approach to the study of the behavior of contemporary tourists and their destination choices. It provides researchers with an industry-specific measurement tool, which can help quantify and monitor changes in travel behavior among cultural groups from an ethnocentrism perspective, thus also expanding the understanding of how tourism can act as a tool for reconciliation. Moreover, the instrument developed in this study can help measure the strength of relationship between cultural identity, economic rationality, and the attraction to the unknown. Hence predicting the extent to which international tourism can sustain itself in a culturally intolerant society. Finally, the approach introduced in this study can assist marketers in predicting consumers’ responses to tourism promotion, and can also help identify new factors which can further explain destination choices.

REFERENCES


A FRAMEWORK OF DELIVERING CULTURAL COMPETENCE IN MEDICAL TOURISM: A CASE OF SOUTH KOREA

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Sam Hun Park, Konkuk University
Turgay Avci, Eastern Mediterranean University

INTRODUCTION

According to the new trends of medical tourism, nowadays, proving a culturally-congruent-service to the patient-costumers with a different cultural background is of great importance. Medical tourism (MT) has emerged as a new type of ‘healthcare mobility’ (Connell, 2013; Ormond, 2014) which raises many deficiencies and barriers beyond the cultural relationship. The required regulations and strategies in MT seems to be neither similar to healthcare service context nor tourism service context, but a mixture of both. Healthcare practitioners are the main responsible individuals to deliver a ‘culturally appropriate care’ (Ormond, 2011; Alizadeh & Chavan, 2015).

Because of the novelty and complexity of MT, the contributing factors to implement and deliver a service, which is culturally competent, is a matter of dispute now. Wide variations of components have been applied, so far, to defining and evaluating ‘cultural competence’ (CC) in healthcare, the variation is due to specialty (Saha et al., 2013; Balcazar et al., 2009) or the geographic location (Chae & Kang, 2013; Olt et al. 2010). In general, the best definition of CC, based on our knowledge, implies on the information and ‘knowledge’ about demand side transformed into ‘skills, service approaches, policies and marketing’ (Davis, 1998).

Such integration between patient and health providers contributes to positive outcomes and boosted quality (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2015; Campinha-Bacote, 2002), also potentially could be in association with external factors (O’connell et al., 2007; Lin, 2016; Miguel & Luquis, 2013).

AIM AND OBJECTIVES

Acknowledging that MT is a special type of service, highly affected by cultural factors (Kangas, 2010), also the targeted customers are mostly in ‘their most physically and emotionally vulnerable situation’ (Ormond, 2012), therefore MT demands for a unique approach and view to the contributors of cultural competence.

So far, mere studies mentioned to a ‘culturally-appropriate care’ in MT and the required contributors. Accordingly, we aimed to investigate the dimensions and factors of delivering CC in the scope of medical tourism. By addressing this gap, the present thesis will develop a framework of CC delivery in medical tourism.

METHODOLOGY

Since quantitative methods are not trustworthy enough in the CC study (Deardorff, 2006) and it is even more significant when it comes to the healthcare sector (Alizadeh & Chavan, 2015), an exploratory approach with the mixed methodology of qualitative and quantitative has been applied to examine this research. The research were conducted in three main phases as follows.

Phase 1: Systematic and extensive literature review and on-place observations were followed by a period of semi-structured interviews with nine participants involved in MT both academically and practically. The study was grounded on two theories of “Social cognitive theory” and “intercultural competence, Reflection theory”. Sampling was purposive which enabled the authors to select the participants with the more appropriate knowledge and experience (Altinay et al., 2015). Next, through the process of a systematic content analysis, based on the Altinay et al., (2015) procedures, the contributor dimensions and factors were revealed and categorized in a table. Finally, through the amalgamation of the archived items, a framework of CC delivery was developed.

Phase 2: This phase aimed to provide a scientific confirmation on the information and
framework developed in phase 1. The key points – a brief description, developed framework and developed items- were sent to experts involved academically in MT (Social science and Healthcare). They were requested to confirm or comment on the clarity and relevance of information; if the items adhere to the attributed subcategory and its theme.

**Phase 3:** Final phase will evaluate whether the developed framework contributes to delivering CC in medical tourism or not. A sample of healthcare practitioners involved in medical tourism will participate in this phase, which is responding to a questionnaire designed based on the items achieved and modified in previous phases. Quantitative approach- Path analysis- will be adopted to analyze the data and the relationships among the variables of the questionnaire in SPSS (Chicago, IL, USA).

**RESULT**

Delivering CC in medical tourism has been classified in three main themes of internal, external and surefire factors. A new dimension of commitment and hardworking was emerged based on the MT’s requirement, besides knowledge, attitude, motivation and desire. Although the skills and experience of individual is substantial, external factors including training system and organizational support were introduced as key factors in delivering an appropriate CC (Fig.1).

![Figure 1. A framework of delivering cultural competence in medical tourism service](image)

Afterward, in Phase two, according to the arguments developed by the experts, the requested/suggested revisions were accomplished. The comments were mostly regarding the “additional components of cultural competency in MT” and more clear comparison with the existing academic literature was requested. Moreover, some notes and comments on the themes and items were developed.

Currently, the final phase of this thesis is “in progress”. By accomplishing this phase we will understand if the developed framework –its items and subcategories- contributes to delivering cultural competence or not.

**DISCUSSION**

This study aimed to investigate a framework on CC in medical tourism. In the interviews, almost all of the respondents asserted to the novelty of MT and the fact that the internal abilities of health practitioners are not the only significant determiner, but the role of external support is of high importance and in spite of that individuals cannot lead to a successful skill.

The recognized classification in this study is mostly similar to the categories presented before (Echeverri et al., 2010), also dimensions of internals factors have been repeated in other research (Campinha-Bacote, 2002; Balcazar et al., 2009; Deardorff, 2006; Doorenbos & Schim, 2004), except commitment and hardworking. It has been asserted that ‘lens of culture’ (Helman, 2007) is a significant factor to differentiate the definitions and MT are far from a ‘uniform’ developmental model around the world (Ormond,
Accordingly, not an appropriate CC can be achieved, except by being committed and hardworking continuously in the line with the goals of organizations or countries. Furthermore, similar to our result, CC has been considered as an ‘ongoing process’ in previous studies (Kim-Godwin et al., 2001) which take time and effort (Balcazar et al., 2009). Similarly, the importance of external factors in the context of CC has been practically conducted (Lin, 2016) and organizational support and cultural-diversity training were introduced as one of the main dimensions of CC (Balcazar et al., 2009) and as an effective factor in CC behavior score (Doorenbos & Schim, 2004), respectively. These factors might positively influence the skills (Beach et al., 2005) among the health care providers. According to the interviewees’ opinion, a successful delivery system of CC in MT could not be guaranteed without a skillful and experienced team of providers. The term of ‘surefire’ has been selected for this theme since it provides and reveals the effectiveness of previous themes.

**IMPLICATIONS**

‘Cultural factors’ are worthy enough to be propounded and being invested in the scope of MT through a systematic planning, those factors might potentially function as an asset for both organizations and individuals involved in MT. But due to the novelty of MT, the cultural competency would be achieved neither individually nor by external factors solely. However, a system with entire introduced factors is required to deliver an appropriate and effective cultural competence.

Theoretically, this study will contribute to a new classification of cultural competency dimensions and will introduce ‘commitment and hardworking’ as a required dimension in the scope of MT besides other previously familiar categories, but with unique items for MT. Moreover, the importance of external factors in achieving and enhancing the CC, especially in the scope of MT as a novel arena with wide ambiguities, leads to consider training and organizational support as the key factors in delivering CC appropriately. Finally, this study will contribute to the literature by introducing a model of delivering CC in the scope of medical tourism.

Practical implications mostly will contribute to the current situation of MT industry in South Korea; nevertheless, it is assumed that the results will enable the authors to generalize the implications to a wider aspect and other countries as well. The authorities involved in MT are called to focus on the adequate strategies regarding CC training and support since it would assist the health practitioners to enhance their CC and might positively influence on their performance.

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CROSS-NATIONAL VISITOR MOTIVATION IN PILGRIMAGE SITES —KUMANO KODO’S NAKAHECHI ROUTE AS CASE STUDY—

Ricardo Nicolas Progano, Wakayama University

INTRODUCTION

1. Problem statement

Religion and spirituality has become a major tourism market (Timothy & Conover, 2006; Attix, 2015), with pilgrimage being one of its main areas. Pilgrimage sites became important tourism destinations, attracting international visitors as well as visitors not motivated by traditional faith (Okamoto, 2015; Mori, 2005). Nowadays, general tourism research on pilgrimage shifted from ‘external’ elements of pilgrimages to the visitor’s individual subjective elements (Collins-Kreiner, 2010).

2. Research justification

Research in English about pilgrimage tourism largely focuses on Western sites and tourists (VuKonic, 1996; Sepp, 2014; Blom et al, 2015; Lois-Gonzalez et al, 2015; Bideci & Albayrak, 2016), with little research on non-Western sites and tourists. Most research has centered on four subjects: distinction of pilgrims from tourists; characteristics and travel patterns of religious tourists; economics; and negative impacts of tourism (Olsen & Timothy, 2006), showing a lack of phenomenological approaches.

On the other hand, Japanese literature on pilgrimage tourism mostly deals with the Shikoku Henro (Sato, 2004; Mori, 2005), a Buddhist pilgrimage site that consists of 88 temples located in the Shikoku island. Research on pilgrimage sites’ portraits in media is also prevalent (Suga, 2010; Matsui, 2013). Although there has been studies on tourist demographics, motivation and general travel patterns in pilgrimage sites (Sato, 2004), there is a lack of rigorous empirical research on tourist motivation, particularly of international visitors’. Therefore, there is a lack of research regarding tourist motivation in non-Western pilgrimage site, particularly on its local and international visitors.

3. Purposes of study

This paper’s main objective is to produce an exploratory research on qualitative analysis of travel motivations of visitors from three nationalities who travel a non-Western pilgrimage route, and analyze its similarities and differences. By doing so, it aims to fill the research gap mentioned above. As a secondary objective, this research aims to obtain valuable statistical data that can be utilized by local DMOs for marketing strategies aimed at international tourist segments.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Theoretical background

In contemporary society, sacred sites’ traditional narratives have lost their monopoly as individuals have given new narratives and meanings to sacred sites, which coexist with the traditional one. In other words, Okamoto argues that in sacred sites ‘place’ and ‘tradition’ have been separated (Okamoto, 2015). As a result, motivation to travel to pilgrimage sites has been noted to be increasingly diversified, and not necessarily connect to the traditional narratives sanctioned by religious institutions (Sepp, 2014; Blom et al, 2015; Okamoto, 2015). At the same time, pilgrimage sites have become important tourism destinations, international visitors have started to flock in increasing numbers. As it was previously stated, previous research has demonstrated that tourists show differences in many areas, including motivation, according to their nationality.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that visitors to pilgrimage sites may display diverse motivations for traveling and selecting their destination across nationalities.

2. Conceptual development

Previous cross-cultural research have showed differences among market segments in areas such as consumer behavior (Rosenbaum & Spears, 2005), travel information acquisition (Chen, 2000), spatial behavior (Dejbakhsh et al, 2011), tourist-host interaction (Reisinger & Turner,
and promotional image impact (MacKay & Fesenmaier; 2016).

3. Research model

Research on cross-cultural consumer behavior has been noted to be mainly carried out through statistical techniques (Salcuviuviene et al., 2005). However, the validity and reliability of survey-based methodological tools for motivation and values research in cross-cultural context has been questioned by researchers (Watkins, 2010). Instead, qualitative methodological approaches have been suggested for cross-cultural studies (Watkins, 2010; Watkins & Gnoth, 2011). Among said approaches, means-end has been utilized by researchers in cross-cultural contexts (Mattila, 1999; Watkins & Gnoth, 2011). This qualitative research method was developed by Gutman (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988), and theorizes that consumers make choices because the specific attributes of their chosen option can will help them achieve desired values through the consequences of those choices. Therefore, the researcher aims to determine the links between attributes, consequences and values (A-C-V) to build means-end chains (MEC) (Gutman, 1997). To carry out means-end approaches, laddering, a qualitative interview technique to uncover higher meanings, is employed.

METHOD

Kumano Kodo’s Nakahhechi route located in Tanabe city (Wakayama prefecture, Japan) was selected as case study because it is a pilgrimage site that receives an increasing number of international visitors, particularly from Western countries. Therefore, it was assumed that the selected case study would provide a good venue to sample visitors from different nationalities. Structured personal interviews were conducted on key stakeholders to gather background information on local development, marketing segmentation and strategies aimed at international visitors. Interviewed stakeholders included Tanabe city’s tourism organizations such as Tanabe Kumano Tourism Bureau, Hongu Tourism Association and the Wakayama Prefectural Tourism Agency. The Kumano Hongu Taisha shrine was also interviewed to understand the local religious institution’s participation and observations.

Data collection will be carried out through semi-structured interviews aimed at tourists who travel the Nakahechi route segment located in Tanabe city. Visitors from Japan, America and France were selected as they represented three of the main tourism markets. Laddering interviews will be carried out in English and Japanese to elicit visitors A-C-V. The interviews will be tape recorded and written notes will also be taken. Demographic data, including age, marital status, education level, current occupation, travel length and travel party composition will be collected as well in order to contextualize data. Interviews are expected to be conducted in the months of April and August 2017 in lodging facilities located at two nodal points in the pilgrimage route: Nakahechi town and Hongu town (both of them part of Tanabe city). Lodging facilities were considered adequate venues as they provide comfortable places to conduct interviews and facilitate recording.

Recorded interviews will be transcribed into digital files and analyzed in three stages as suggested by Reynolds & Gutman (1988). In the first stage, data analysis will be carried out to identify visitors’ A-C-V obtained from the laddering interviews CAQDAS will be utilized for assistance in the content analysis process. In the second stage, utilizing the results from the interviews’ analysis, an implication matrix will be generated for each national group analyzed. In the third stage, the matrix’s data will be utilized to create a Hierarchical Value Map (HVM) for each sampled nationality. When constructing the HVMs, an alternative format will be utilized to improve their graphic presentation (Gengler et al., 1995).

IMPLICATIONS

Research’s conclusions are expected to contribute to existing bibliography in two research fields: pilgrimage tourism and cross-national tourist motivation. In particular, it will contribute to the small number of cross-cultural studies done with qualitative approaches. Additionally, it will provide data on contemporary tourism development in non-Western pilgrimage sites, an
area which lacks sufficient information (UNWTO, 2011). Finally, results are expected to have practical implications for local DMOs in international marketing and branding, especially those that manage spiritual tourism-related destinations.

REFERENCES


STAKEHOLDER SOCIAL EXCHANGE, COLLABORATION AND NETWORKING IN TRADITIONAL FESTIVALS

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INTRODUCTION

Problem statement

Destinations desirous of capitalizing on local festivals “need to understand and leverage the patterns of relationships that facilitate collaboration” (Zaikas & Costa, 2010, p. 133). However, research has not focused on the stakeholder relationships in local festivals. Firstly, studies often focus on a single stakeholder such as visitors (Thrane, 2002; Buch et al., 2011), sponsors (Pyo, 1995; Dees, Bennett & Tsuji, 2006), volunteers (Elstad, 2003; Barron & Rihova, 2011), supply-side stakeholders (Alonso & Bressen, 2013) or local residents (Song, Xing & Chathoth, 2015). While some have examined the relationship between stakeholders in festivals, the models of dyadic relationships often describe the relationships between organizers and other stakeholders (e.g. Kim et al., 2002; Getz & Andersson, 2010; Stokes; 2006). Secondly, despite extensive application of stakeholder, social exchange, collaboration, and social network theories in other studies, there is limited application of these theories in the festival context. Festivals are naturally assumed to involve a large number of stakeholders and considerable interaction and exchanges between them. Thirdly, the African perspective on festival stakeholder relationships is significantly missing in the event literature. Most studies have focused on western contexts. Festivals abound on the continent of Africa and are a significant aspect of life and culture.

Research justification

This study advances the theories mentioned by examining them in the local festivals setting to ascertain the veracity of their tenets by comparing the views of various stakeholders. This is relevant to festival management in devising appropriate strategies for each stakeholder (Reid & Acordia, 2002). “The identification of all stakeholders and the review of their agendas will assist event managers in balancing the competing needs, tensions, and expectations of all stakeholders” Presenza & Iocca, (2012, p. 26). This research is also relevant to National Tourism Authorities (NTA’s) in with stakeholders to develop and market local festivals.

Purpose of the study

In line with the research problems identified, the objectives of this study are:

1. To establish the differences between festival stakeholders in terms of their responses to the tenets of stakeholder theory (power, urgency and legitimacy) in the planning and execution of traditional festivals.
2. To compare the views of stakeholders in traditional festivals on the social exchanges between them based on trust, reciprocity, altruism, control and dependence.
3. To determine the differences in responses of festival stakeholders on the degree of collaboration between and among them.
4. To assess the degree of social networking among festival stakeholders.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theories have been formulated to explain social interaction between individuals and groups and have been widely applied in many disciplines. Four of these theories, Stakeholder Theory (ST), Social Exchange Theory (SET), Collaboration Theory (CT) and Social Network Theory (SNT) provide useful ways of examining the relationships between festival stakeholders.

Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) is premised on the notion that an organization’s internal and external stakeholders are crucial to its success and should be treated as important and managed effectively. The key concepts in stakeholder theory are power, urgency and legitimacy (Mitchell et al., 1997). Power deals
with how a stakeholder exerts control and influence over other(s) in a relationship. Urgency is the degree to which what a stakeholder demands are dealt with swiftly. Legitimacy entails how desirable or socially acceptable the actions of a party are to an organization or society at large. In the context of festivals, the urgency with which stakeholder demands are dealt with and which stakeholders have more legitimacy are vital considerations. Other aspects of stakeholder theory useful include the power dynamics (Mitchell et al., 1997) which is valuable in examining how powerful stakeholders consider themselves and other stakeholders Anderson and Getz (2008).

The second theory, social exchange theory (SET) (Homans 1958, 1961; Thibaut & Kelly, 1959; Blau, 1964) is premised on the notion that social interaction is essentially an exchange of rewards and costs between individuals and groups with exchanges weighed based on benefits obtained and costs incurred. The key components of SET include power, trust, reciprocity, altruism, control, and dependence. Power is regarded as both relational, that is, produced as relationships continue (Foucault, 1978) but considered by others (Stein & Harper, 2003) as vested. Trust is also essential to reducing social conflicts since most social interactions are entered into voluntarily (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Social exchanges are also considered reciprocal (Shiau & Luo, 2012). Although SET is premised on the weighing of benefits and costs, social interactions can also be altruistic (Emerson, 1976; Sahlins, 1965). Control and dependence are also important in relations. Control could be reflective (complete control by one party), fate control (control over the outcome of the other party’s future) or behavior control where one party controls the actions of the other (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959). Festivals clearly imply social exchanges between stakeholders. “The act of producing a festival is clearly a social phenomenon” (Quinn, 2013, p. 47). Some studies (e.g., Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Getz 2012) have examined local residents support for events especially mega events using SET. However, these studies fall short of examining the social exchanges between and among all stakeholders involved.

Collaboration theory suggests that collaboration is essential to virtually any human relationship and can be at the individual, group or organizational level to which festivals are no exception. Gray (1989) popularized Collaboration Theory by looking at it as a means by which stakeholder’s come together to solve a “problem”. Collaboration entails negotiation, consensus building, and in some cases mediation by a third party (Strauss, 1978). Collaboration is often seen as involving and requiring communication, trust and respect, incentives and value, and knowledge sharing among stakeholders (Harley & Blistmas, 2010). Collaboration among festival stakeholders is essentially a must, due to the multiplicity of stakeholders and the interwoven nature of the relationships among them (Quinn, 2013). Getz (2007) recognizes that festival stakeholders differ in their interests, power and degree of influence and this is expected to influence how they collaborate with other stakeholders. How stakeholders negotiate on the aims, goals, outcomes and resources in a festival, and resolve disagreements, are important considerations in festivals.

The fourth theory, Social Network Theory, offers a way of examining social interaction by looking at the linkages and patterns that form when actors interact. A pattern of direct and indirect linkages are formed when a number of actors are involved (Cobb, 1988). The pattern of relationships created is essential to establishing the density of the network which in turn tells on the strength of the relationships between actors (Borgatti & Halgin, 2011). Whether a social network has a high centrality, where one actor serves as a key link to other stakeholders or a low centrality, where the actors relate without a central actor so to speak, will likely result in different outcomes for decision-making and resource distribution (Wasserman & Faust, 1994). The density of the network also reveals the strength of the network. This research, however, does not undertake a social network analysis of a festival but employs aspects of SNA relevant to establishing, for example, the centrality, and type of network in a festival.

Conceptualization

The literature has established eight key stakeholders in festivals (e.g. Getz, Andersson, & Larson, 2007; Reid & Arcodia, 2002; Bowdin et
al., 2006; Robinson, Wale, & Dickson, 2010). From a stakeholder theory perspective, stakeholders differ in terms of the power they possess (Robinson et al., 2010). How stakeholders view the legitimacy of others is also likely to differ owing to different backgrounds and interests (Mitchell et al., 1997). Similarly, the urgency with which stakeholders respond to requests of other stakeholders will also differ within a festival. It is also expected that stakeholders will have different levels of altruism (Sahlins, 1965). Furthermore, not all stakeholders will enjoy the same level of trust from other stakeholders (Emerson, 1962). Similarly, stakeholders differ in terms the level of control over and as well as their dependency on other stakeholder (Thibault & Kelly, 1959). In networking with others, some stakeholders may serve as a central link to other stakeholders, while others may not (Wasserman & Faust, 1994; Scott, 2000). Furthermore, stakeholders differ because of the varying degrees of importance and involvement in negotiation and consensus building (Strauss, 1978).

This research adopts a quantitative approach, and justifiably so because festivals and are a mass phenomenon. A questionnaire will be developed. The measurement items will first be elicited and modified from previous studies. In order to ensure validity, the instrument will be pretested using 16 faculty and doctoral students. A pilot test will further be conducted at one festival in the research area. The research setting is Ghana, West Africa. The festivals will be selected based on the size, time period, and geo-ethnic location. Respondents in each festival will be gotten by contacting the Ghana Tourism Authority in the respective regions where the festivals are held. Officials will aid in gaining access to the organizers of each festival. The organizers will then help contact volunteers, sponsors, media and some local government authorities. However, a convenience sampling approach will be used to sample visitors, vendors, and local residents, since they were only available at the festival during its celebration. 1000 questionnaires are anticipated. Data will be analyzed using SPSS. One-way ANOVA tests will be carried out to explain the mean differences in the self-evaluation responses of the eight stakeholder groups. The second aspect of the analysis will employ the General Linear Model (GLM) with repeated measures since each stakeholder will be measured several times a series of dependent variables on how they assess other stakeholders.

![Diagram of stakeholder model](Diagram.png)

**Figure 1: The conceptualised Stakeholder model**
IMPLICATIONS

This research will advance stakeholder, social exchange, social network, and collaboration theories by applying them in the festival setting. It will also add to our understanding of who the powerful, urgent, legitimate, trusted, altruistic, dependent and risky stakeholders in festivals are. This understanding will help to ensure that each festival stakeholder is adequately responded to. It will also be useful to festival organizers in negotiating for resources from stakeholders such as sponsors and government authorities, and how to effectively get stakeholders to work together. The uniqueness of the relationships within the African festival context will also be appreciated and compared to western contexts to draw useful management lessons.

REFERENCES


IS THE MICE INDUSTRY A DRIVER OR THE OUTCOME OF THE REGIONAL TOURISM CLUSTER? A CAUSAL ANALYSIS OF INTER–RELATED SPATIAL EXTERNALITIES

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of clusters has been closely linked to the explanation of varying performances among geographic regions (Perles-Ribes, et al., 2015). Since the concept of agglomeration externalities (Marshall, 1964), to the concept of clusters creating competitive advantages (Porter, 1990), scholars have been considerably invested in investigating the dynamics of relative dominance appearing amongst distinctive spatial units (Erkuş-Öztürk, 2009). In available literature, the clusters, a locational concentration of interconnected and interrelated industries and stakeholders (suppliers, supporting industries, professionals, government, etc.), is known to internally reinforce productivity and lead innovation, while externally stimulating demand and further attracting resources including qualified human resources to the area (Weidenfeld, et al., 2011). The regional tourism sector has often been explained in the framework of clusters (Erkuş-Öztürk, 2009), as it is rather intuitive to think that travel agents, foodservice operations, guest accommodation providers, and various recreational/entertainment options interact and create synergy and innovation so that the competitiveness of the destination is enhanced (Porter, 1990).

Meanwhile, the MICE (meeting, incentives, conventions, and exhibitions) has been gaining attention as one of the fastest growing industry segments (Mistilis & Dwyer, 1999; Oppermann, 1996), has been credited for improvement destination image (McCartney, 2008), as well as generating significant economic benefits for the region (Bernini, 2009; Campiranon & Arcodia, 2008). Participants of MICE become potential tourists in the region (Jin et al., 2012), and naturally, agglomeration externalities and cluster effects are expected for the tourism sector and the suppliers of the MICE industry, even after excluding the obvious common players such as transportation, hotels and foodservice operations.

An interesting question in this regard is the causal relationship between the MICE industry and the general tourism sector. While scholars have been advocating intervention of the governments in the MICE industry to promote and support the tourism sector (in which the causal relationship from MICE to general tourism is assumed: Bauer et al., 2001), others yet maintain that a competitive MICE industry is an outcome of a successful tourism development at a more general level (Lim & Cooper, 2009).

Accordingly, we identify a theoretical gap. Although the relationship between the MICE industries and the regional tourism sector seem to be inter-related and endogenous (Hui, 2010), without a precise understanding on the causal relationship between the two, policy planning and implementation may be misleading. (For example, building of a convention center using government tax bills from hotel occupancy taxes, when the tourism sector needs further developmental support, would be a policy contradicting the purpose when general tourism development leads to a successful MICE industry). Therefore, this study purports to investigate the causal relationship between the MICE industry and the regional tourism sector. Findings of the study will be useful to the relevant policy decision making and planning.

REFERENCES


SUPPLIER PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIAL MEDIA POWER IN TOURISM, HOSPITALITY & EVENT SETTING

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INTRODUCTION

The social media (SM) phenomenon is increasingly gaining an utmost importance shaping our day to day life (Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014). The impacts of SM on consumers and marketers have been acknowledged both by researchers and industry practitioners (Leung, Law, van Hoof, & Buhalas, 2013). Zeng and Gerritsen (2014) summarized definitions and characteristics of SM in three broad categories. First, SM depend on information technology as they include online tools, applications, platforms and media. Second, they are communication channels and assist users to co-create and exchange information. And finally, they affect people’s behavior and life as they bond users to form virtual communities.

The rise of SM has transformed power relations in the digital age, decreasing the power of practitioners in favor of consumers (Akehurst, 2009). Time magazine declared that the person of the year in 2006 is “you”, referring to the importance of SM (Romano, Gerber, & Andrews, 2010). The editor mentioned that “It’s about the many wrestling power from the few and helping one another for nothing and how that will not only change the world, but also change the way the world changes.” (Grossman, 2006). Arguably, SM are not only a “trendy” research topic of today but also the new “stakeholder” that will remain in research and industry whose power is worthy of attention.

As Bertrand Russell (1938, p. 12) stated, “the fundamental concept in social science is power, in the same sense in which energy is the fundamental concept in physics”. Interestingly, although the power of SM to influence and shape various aspects of tourism industry has already been acknowledged by previous studies, none has conceptualized the Social Media Power phenomenon and examined it empirically. Thus, it is critical to bring the power concept to Social Media research and discuss its influence on various stakeholders. This study will focus exclusively on tourism industry professional (TIP) perspectives and will provide groundwork for future studies to address other stakeholder perceptions.

The main purpose of the study is to develop a model of social media power (SMP) and to provide a TIP perspectives. Secondly, by categorizing SM platforms, the study will examine the strength of SMP constructs within each category and show how SMP varies across different platforms. Additionally, the study aims to test the factors that affect the strength of SMP constructs. SMP will be discussed from two perspectives. First, it will show how TIPs use SMP to influence others, and secondly how TIPs are influenced by SMP. Finally, the study will adopt a broad definition of tourism industry professionals extending to travel agents, hotel managers and event organizers and will test whether various sectors have different perceptions of SMP.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptualizing Social Media Power

Kaplan and Haenlein (2010, p. 61) defined social media as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content”. When it comes to the concept of power, its definition varies from discipline to discipline. A rather straightforward definition of power in social science would be “the ability of A to make B do something, which they may not otherwise have done” (Buchanan & Badham, 2008, p. 7). In other words, power is the force exerted by groups or individuals to influence others’ behavior. Hence, Social Media Power can be defined as a force exerted by Social Media to influence individuals’ behavior. Although, it is not the SM themselves that exert power but are used as
medium by consumers, the study argues that, the aggregated posts altogether make SM a “powerful” stakeholder.

To date researchers have shown that SM have the power to exert influence over the tourism industry. Kim and Stepchenkova (2015) for example, show that, user-generated photos of a destination through various mediators influence customer perceptions about the destination and their behavioral intentions. Research also shows that SM has power to influence destination image (Camprubi, Guia, & Comas, 2013; Oliveira & Panyik, 2015). Consumer decision making is also found to be influenced by SM (Hernandez-Mendez, Munoz-Leiva, & Sanchez-Fernandez, 2015). The influence of SM on attitudes and behavioral intentions seems to be one of the most important research topics. Whilst existing research has mentioned that SM has power to influence, it has so far overlooked the concept of power itself. As mentioned previously, power is the fundamental concept that stands behind such influence.

Social Power Theory

Social Power theory will be used as a theoretical background for the study. The theory explains how individuals and/or social groups influence others’ attitudes and behaviors (French, Raven, & Cartwright, 1959). It proposes five types of power that social groups and individuals use for influential purposes, namely, reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, referent power and expert power.

This section briefly explains five types of power that are proposed by social power theory (French et al., 1959). Reward power is the perception of the influenced that the influencer may financially or by other means reward him if he changes his attitude and behaviors according to how the influencer wants him to behave, whilst coercive power refers to the perception that the influencer may punish him if he doesn’t behave according to the influencer’s will. Manager/subordinate relations could be a good example for reward and coercive powers where subordinates behave in the way to act that is desired by managers, thereby hoping to be rewarded or afraid that they could be punished. Legitimate power can be understood as established cultural or organizational norms and standards. Parent/child relations are a good example in this context. Children believe that their parents have the right to tell them what to do. In some cultures the elderly/youth relationship is also an established norm where elderly are acting “legitimately” when dictating younger generation how to behave. Referent power is often referred as an attraction power and can be explained as the desire of the influenced to identify himself with the influencer or influencing group. When marketers use celebrities in their advertisement to target their fans they use referent power as fans want to be like their popular star and try to purchase what they use. And finally, expert power refers to the knowledge and expertise of the influencer on certain issues. An example could be the dentists’ recommendation of a toothpaste. Those who perceive the expertise of the influencer in the area, will be influenced by his recommendation without paying much attention to the message he gives as they trust the expert.

Proposed Model.

Whilst the strength of power is rather objective in the natural sciences, in the case of the social sciences it largely depends on the perception of the influenced individual (French et al., 1959). Thus, for operational purposes in this thesis, the degree of power will be self-assessed by survey respondents. This study argues that all five constructs of social power should appear present a model of SMP (figure 1). The behavioral intentions of TIPs will be defined as their intention to respond positively to SM messages and posts. In this section, each construct of the SMP will be explained briefly. Taking account of potential customers using SM, TIP perceptions of SM reward power should consider the purchasers of their products. Secondly, SM users may refuse to buy tourism products and may even post negative public comments, taggng company names and raising the prospect of boycott campaigns. Attaching a low product rating in a review website will also be a punishment that TIMs will try to avoid. Thus, it is proposed that TIPs also have perceptions of coercive power. Legitimate power refers to accepted cultural or organizational norms where one has power over another. Officially it is not legitimate for SM to dictate and influence
TIMs. However, it is different in its guise as an accepted norm. The widely used motto within in service industries - “customer is always right” - prioritizes customer opinions over practitioner opinions and thus, arguably gives SM legitimate power to influence TIM behaviors. Referent power is even more subjective and varies from one individual to another in terms of self-identification with social groups - in this context, social media platforms and online communities. Those who identify themselves with the previously mentioned platforms and communities will have perceptions of SM referent power and may be influenced by member postings on this specific platform. Finally, when it comes to expert power, certain platforms such as TripAdvisor are considered to be full of reviews of those who already experienced the product and hence have expertise. And in many other platforms more and more “influencers” are being followed by others and are considered to be trustworthy people. Their posts and comments should be reliable not only for consumers but also for TIMs.

Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) categorized SM platforms with respect to two main factors - the degree of social presence and the possibility of self-disclosure. According to the social presence theory “[t]he higher the social presence, the larger the social influence that the communication partners have on each other’s behavior” (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 61). Thus, social presence was added to the model as the first moderator that affects the relationship between SMP constructs and behavioral intention. Self-presentation theory explains that individuals use self-disclosure to influence others’ opinions and thereby create a proper image about themselves (Goffman, 1959). “Self-disclosure is a critical step in the development of close relationships (e.g., during dating) but can also occur between complete strangers” (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 62). It is a two-way process that strengthens the relationship between individuals. Hence, self-disclosure was added to the model as a second moderator that affects the strength of SMP influence.

METHOD

Hong Kong is one of top 10 destinations for their international tourism receipts (UNWTO, 2016) and has a very developed tourism infrastructure including event and hospitality sectors. This makes Hong Kong, a good destination to focus on professionals of all three sectors. It also has the highest percentage (96%)
of daily internet usage in Asia with around 64% of its population using Social Media (Go-Globe, 2015). This justifies Hong Kong further as a good research setting to assess the influential power of social media. Hence, TIMs in Hong Kong will be considered as the population of the study.

The study will use qualitative and quantitative methods. During the initial phase, in-depth interviews and focus group interviews will provide a solid knowledge to understand SMP and how TIMs use it to influence customers. The interview results will also be used to develop a measurement scale for SMP constructs.

Quantitative techniques will be used after developing measurement scale items. The members of tourism agent, hotel and event associations will be invited to participate in an e-mail based survey. Specifically, the researcher proposes to contact members of the Hong Kong Association of Travel Agents (HATA), Hong Kong Hotels Association (HKHA) and International Live Events Association (ILEA) due to their reputation and high number of professional members. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) techniques will be used to test the proposed model.

IMPLICATIONS

The study has several theoretical and empirical contributions. Firstly social power theory will be extended to social media research within the tourism context. Secondly, it will conceptualize social media power and will establish the groundwork for future research. Thirdly the study will examine social media power with respect to different social media platforms and explore differences between platforms in the context of the various SMP constructs. Finally, it will compare and contrast the different perceptions of tourism, hospitality and event professionals. By introducing the fundamental concept of SMP, the study will inaugurate a new research stream and issue a call for more studies that consider a power perspective. Future studies can devote more attention to the development of consumer perceptions of SMP. From a managerial perspective, industry practitioners will also acquire valuable knowledge. Firstly, it will be helpful for marketers to determine the strength of power constructs relative to one another with respect to each SM platform. Secondly, differences across tourism sectors will also complement the information and help in the development of marketing strategies for each sector. Finally, companies that provide services to TIPs may also use the results of the study to market their services to TIPs.

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HOW AIRBNB REGULATION AFFECTS US HOTEL MARKETS: A DIFFERENCE-IN-DIFFERENCES EMPIRICAL APPROACH

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INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, the emergence of the sharing economy has impacted many industries. Frenken et al. (2015) define the sharing economy as ‘consumers granting each other temporary access to underutilized physical assets, possibly for money’. The sharing economy is an emerging economic-technological phenomenon that is fueled by developments in information and communications technology (ICT), growing consumer awareness, proliferation of collaborative web communities, as well as social commerce/sharing (Botsman & Rogers, 2010; Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010; Wang & Zhang, 2012). The development of information technologies, alongside the growth of web 2.0 has enabled the development of online platforms that promote user-generated content, sharing, and collaboration (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). Technology innovations have streamlined the process of market entry for suppliers, have facilitated searchable listings for consumers, and kept transaction overhead low (Zervas, David, and John W, 2013). Additionally, the rise of the sharing economy has created new competition in several industries, one of the most poignant of which has occurred in the hotel industry, through arrival of Airbnb. The rise of the sharing economy in the hotel industry has been complicated by some advocacy groups speaking out against Airbnb. Two affordable housing advocacy groups, Housing Conservation Coordinators and MFY Legal services, identified more than 55-percent of rooms or apartments listed on Airbnb in New York are illegal and short-term rentals, resulting in housing stock citywide decreased by 10-percent. Since Airbnb facilities create a black market for illegal and unsafe commercial rental properties, it has hardly been an issue for the hotel and hospitality industry in New York.

Unlike previous start-up booms, sharing firms have seldom been in conflict with large technology firms or federal regulators (Rauch and David, 2015). Instead, their biggest obstacles have come in the form of city and state politics, where locally-regulated real economy competitors and other groups have aggressively fought the sharing economy (Rauch et al 2015). On October 21, 2016, New York governor Andrew Cuomo signed into law a crackdown on the advertisements of illegal Airbnb listings. Since 2010, New York passed multiple laws prohibiting short-term rentals, but under the so called “Multiple Dwelling Law” (A10008B, 2009), hosts cannot rent their facilities for less than 30 days in a multi-unit building if the tenant is not present. In addition to this, the new legislation will strengthen New York’s existing law on short-term rentals by making the act of listing an advertisement for such a situation illegal. According to a study conducted by the finance design company Value Penguin, more than half of Airbnb listings in New York violate the state’s new law banning ads for short-term rental

In our research, we focus on how the new legislation regarding short-term rentals has influenced on the incumbent hotels in New York’s hotel markets based on performances data from Smith Travel Research (STR). Since Airbnb was founded in 2008, there have been a total of 550,000 listings made in the United States, including 94,976 from New York2). It suggests that Airbnb might have replaced the demand for hotels to some extent. In order to see the significant impact of the regulations, we choose Washington D.C as a comparison state, not only because it is an adjacent city and has a high number of Airbnb listings, but also it is not affected by the same regulations. To test the

1) See https://www.valuepenguin.com/which-new-york-neighborhood-s-stand-be-fined-most-new-airbnb-law
2) See http://blog.airdna.co/2015-in-review-airbnb-data-for-the-usa/
regulation impact, this study uses a Difference in
Differences (DD) model that has been widely used
in social science research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Difference in differences model

Difference-in-differences estimation is one
of the most important identification strategies in
applied economics (Angrist and Kruegar 1999;
Athey and Imbens 2006). Difference-in-differences
models constitute a common identification strategy
in empirical economics and are often implemented
using an interaction term between time and group
indicators whose coefficient describes the
difference over time in the outcome variable
between the differences between the two groups
the employment effects of a minimum wage
increase in New Jersey by using a neighboring
state, Pennsylvania, which is one of the most
famous DD studies. This study also uses a
difference-in-differences (DD) model to analyze
the impact of regulation on Airbnb’s competitors
in the hotel industry. The model in this study
compares two cities in a multiple time series
before versus after the legislation passed and
analyzes the difference in hotel market
performances.

Regulations in New York

The New York State Multiple Dwelling Law
(MDL) establishes the standards for all buildings
containing three or more dwelling units. As the
New York State Senate decreed in its report
accompanying the MDL, it prohibits un-hosted
rentals of less than 30 days in “Class A” multiple
dwellings, which building occupied by three or
more families living independently.3) The new law
in October of 2016 makes it illegal to advertise a
short-term rental prohibited by the MDL. Under
this law, it is prohibited to listing such
accommodations and other short-term rental
platforms through Airbnb website. Violation fee is
ranged up to $7,500 depending on number of
violations.

METHOD

Data

To measure the impact of both regulations on
Airbnb listings, we use consumer-facing
information from Airbnb.com on the set of users
who listed their properties in New York and
Washington D.C. for rental. Each listing at
Airbnb.com displays attributes including
geo-market, rent price, and other basic
information, and etc. Our dataset contains a
number of distinct listings depending on two
different time periods (a period from May.2010 to
May 2012 and a period from June 2016 to
February 2017). The main dependent variable we
use in our study is the monthly hotel room revenue
in New York and Washington D.C. To measure
the impact of both regulations on the hotel
industry, we use hotel room revenue data provided
by Smith Travel Research (STR).

Measures

Our difference in differences model takes the
following form:

\[
\log_{\text{Hotel Revenue}}_{kt} = \beta \log_{\text{Airbnb listings}}_{kt} + X_{kt} \gamma + h_i + \tau_t + \epsilon_{kt}
\]

In order to identify the significant regulation
impact on Airbnb listings and hotels’ performance
and reduce inter-correlation, we use a DD model
based on the fixed effect model. By adding the
hotel fixed effects \( h_i \) and the time fixed effects \( \tau_t \),
we can identify the casual effect by transforming
the variables into deviation from the mean of each
incumbent hotel. \( X_{kt} \) is a control in order not
to be biased if there is a factor that influences
Airbnb. For example, if there exists an unobserved
factor such as the population differentiated across
cities, it would influence the Airbnb listings. In
addition, an increase in the unemployment rate
could simultaneously drive Airbnb adoption and
independently cause demand for hotels to soften
(Zervas et al. 2013). To address this potential bias,
our study incorporates unemployment rate and
population as a controls in \( X_{kt} \). \( \epsilon_{kt} \), which stands
for an individual error in the basic DD model, is
unobserved, city-specific time varying factors that
potentially correlate with hotels revenues. (Zervas
et al. 2013) identifies that this unobserved error

3) See
http://www.nolo.com/legal-encyclopedia/overview-airbnb-law-
new-york-city.html
can be minimized with repeated regression with city-specific time varying observables, and figures that the inclusion of these factors does not increase the explanatory power of the regression.

**IMPLICATIONS**

Rapid growth of sharing economy has been recognized as an alternative accommodation sector that appeals to the customer’s needs by using a peer-to-peer platform. Thus, it is important to regulate illegal listings from Airbnb that influence on hotel industry. Traditionally, government or state regulations restrict competition in markets. In an industry where competition is heavily regulated, firms will be less concerned with the market place and more pre-occupied with dealing with regulators (Porter, 1990). In contrast to the negative effect of regulation on competition, however, it might have some positive effects in terms of market orientation. Portor (1990) argued that regulations may initially be disruptive, but will ultimately encourage and push firms to raise their aspirations and become more responsive to the market place. It means that regulations can produce better products and lead companies to higher customer satisfaction.

The expected study result will show how the regulations have influenced hotel industry between different geographical locations, and throughout the years since the regulations were introduced. Moreover, this study will give some ideas for other state legislators on how to regulate the peer-to-peer accommodation platforms represented by Airbnb.

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CONNECTED TOURISTS: PERFORMING TRAVEL ON-SITE AND ONLINE

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INTRODUCTION

This thesis responds to a call for research exploring the personal processes through which ICTs are utilized by travellers (Germann Molz, 2012; Munar, Gyimóthy & Cai, 2013). While there are many reasons for travellers to use ICTs during a journey such as information search, entertainment, communication, and service transactions (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2013), this study intends to focus specifically on how travellers use ICTs to share travel stories with friends, family, and the wider Internet through social media. Travellers commonly share online narratives across a variety of social media platforms as they move resulting in a need for connectivity, and, the practice of ‘virtual mooring’ i.e. ongoing communication with social contacts (Germann Molz, 2012; Germain Molz & Paris, 2015). Yet while scholarly literature has paid attention to online narratives as a source of data on traveller opinion, “very few researchers have treated the online narratives as an experience, a place for meaning and identity creation” (Banyai & Havitz, 2013, p.232-233). This thesis seeks to answer the Research Question: To what extent does the use of ICTs for communication influence travel behavior? Conceptualising online travel narratives as sites of self-presentation, this thesis employs Goffman’s theory of the “presentation of self” (1959) in order to analyze ICT use and associated travel behaviors through the frame of performativity. This aim will be achieved by addressing the following Research Objectives:

1) Investigate how Internet connectivity creates new routines, obligations and opportunities as the traveler participates in distributed networks.

2) Identify and describe the specific practices through which travel experiences are shared online.

3) Analyze the factors which shape online self-presentation in the context of travel.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourists use of ICTs is an emergent research area with tourism (See Banyai and Havitz, 2013 for a review of literature). In regards to the use of social media for communication, despite the popularity of Goffmanian theory as a method for explaining online interactions within the field of Internet Studies (Hogan, 2010; Marwick, 2015; Marwick & boyd, 2011), so far the theory and/or conceptual models produced here have only been applied to a limited degree in regards to tourists’ online communication practices (Azariah, 2016; Dinhopl & Gretzel, 2016; Kim & Tussyadiah, 2013). Thus, further attention to the online self-presentation of tourists can assist researchers in understanding ICT-mediated tourist experience (Munar, Gyimóthy & Cai, 2013)

METHOD

As this thesis represents an exploratory study, the researcher proposes a mixed-method autoethnographic methodology as most suitable for mapping the research subject. Autoethnography is an emic research position which advocates participation in a social group or practice in combination with critical reflection on personal experience (Ellis, Adams & Bochner, 2011; Spry, 2011). This project’s research method involves the author undertaking extended multi-country fieldwork whilst critically reflecting on his experiences using ICTs in order to develop a portrait of this practice, and, its practitioners, connected tourists. During this time, the data collection process will occur through three avenues, 1) ethnographic fieldwork and the observation of Internet services (i.e. connectivity) 2) the creation of a critical ‘meta-blog’ which reflects on the interplay between the author’s communication of events for the online audience and his experience of travel [www.destinationunknowntravel.wordpress.com], and 3) a daily log of ICT usage which records the
hours spent communicating travel online, the practices through which this occurs (such as preparation, capturing, publishing and editing) and the primary type of Internet connection encountered. Finally, the data shall be analyzed using Goffman’s ‘presentation of self’ as it has been appropriated to explicate the performance of online actors (Hogan, 2010; Marwick & boyd, 2011) and deployed within theoretical models like the ‘microcelebrity’ (Senft, 2008; Marwick, 2015).

**IMPLICATIONS**

So far, studies have focused primarily on singular aspects of the process through which travel events are shared online such as the implications of connectivity on travel practice (Germann Molz & Paris, 2015), the process through which travel events are recorded (Lo & McKercher, 2015), and the implications of online self-performance for travel experience (Dinhopl & Gretzel, 2016). The findings produced by extant studies highlight the need for a detailed portrait of the nexus between travel connectivity, self-performance, and tourist behavior. As an example, Kemp (2016, p.72) notes the “pressure” put upon travelers by the competitive environment of online platforms in which users strive to, “again and again present the self as extraordinary and different” (Dinhopl & Gretzel, 2016, p.133). This ‘pressure’ is exacerbated through the marketing of tourist sites as gateways to social media success. Here, Rettberg (2015) highlights promotion which constructs the Norwegian cliff outcrop Trolltunga as a social media showpiece capable of garnering “an avalanche of likes”, and considers the role of such promotion in contributing to a photography-related fatality at the site last year. By producing a fuller portrait of the implications of social media communication upon tourist experience, the needs of tourists and tourist sites may be better reconciled toward the aim of sustainable management. As its outcomes, this project shall propose theoretical models to assist the understanding and analysis of emergent tourist behaviors. From a sociological perspective, insight into the needs and imperatives of connected tourists can help enrich visitor/host relationships as touristic values change. From a business perspective, an improved understanding of online travel narratives will allow more nuanced analysis of the opinion data present within.

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A EMPIRICAL MODEL OF PERCEIVED TRAVELER’ S VALUE IN UBER TRANSPORTATION: A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION

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INTRODUCTION

Beyond the sharing economy that changes the concept of consuming from possession to sharing, Uber and Airbnb have been eminent enterprises that create the value based on community connectivity. Connectivity is a splendid characteristic in global society under the 4th industrial revolution (Kotler et al., 2016). Thus, Uber and Airbnb keep raising in next decades with developed technology and connectivity. At first, the rapidly growth of sharing economy could be possible because of three circumstance’s reasons; (1) the development of information communication technology (ICT), (2) the values that environmental conservation to community via reducing produce additional goods, and (3) economic profit to individuals via savings surplus resources (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Belk, 2010). It has also provoked problems, such as the absent of policies and regulations, and the reaction to impair the traditional industry (i.e. taxi and hotel) (Guttentag, 2015).

However consumers of ride-sharing economy’s firm, such as Uber or Lyft, have benefit that fare costs are much less than the rental car or taxi, business travelers seem to prefer these ridesharing firms than traditional ones. Rental car has dropped 15 percentage points, and taxis have fallen 23 percentage points in two years 2014 to the first quarter of 2016 as reported by Bloomberg (Zaleski, 2016). Nevertheless most of study regarding sharing economy, especially, belong to tourism sector, are focused on impacts or characteristics of Airbnb (Ert et al., 2016; Guttentag, 2015; Tussyadish & Pesonen, 2016). Though recently business travelers are gratified when they use accommodations via not Airbnb, but hotels, due to compliances of safety and inconvenience like as impossible 24 hours check-in (Cornell, 2016). Further, business travelers still prefer Uber or Lyft than taxi, while predilection about accommodation has been changed to hotels (Cornell, 2016). Thus, we investigate the impacts of Uber in traveling circumstance reflect recent trend and further future’s prospect of tourism.

In order to consider there is a little study about Uber in tourism, we apply value-based adopt model (VAM) to explore how valuable of Uber in traveling situations via pros and cons of it. For example, a customer who perceives uncertainty whose drives the car when he/she attempts to contact Uber may use it because he/she recognize much less cost than taxi (i.e. benefit of economic savings), even though there is still the perceived uncertainty. When the customer evaluates the perceived value of Uber via perceived benefits and sacrifices, if the benefits are immense than sacrifices, the consumer assess the worthy value of it, on the other hand, the perceived sacrifices are soaring than benefits, the opposite happens.

From these perceived value via benefits and sacrifices may cause more activity during traveling. User who perceived accessibility as value of consuming Uber is hefty may have much intention of exploring in new spots around the destination. Thus, in this research, we attempt to investigate how the users perceived the benefits and sacrifices when they consume Uber to travel, and how to influence to the perceived accessibility as value from each these constructs, and, finally, how to effects to the intention of exploring extra places though the perceived value’s Uber.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPERTHESIS

I. Value-based Adoption Model (VAM)

According to Kim et al. (2007), value-based
adoption model (VAM) is constructed with cost and benefit paradigm from the decision-making study that is based on comparisons of the gains versus loose when individuals make decision among alternatives. Consumer values are combinations of the gain value and loose value such as acquisition and transaction of product from the utilitarian view, however, most of time customer discern multi-dimensionality of decision making though besides of just utilitarian prospect as well as emotional value (Kim et al., 2007). In circumstance using Uber, perceived value may be considered as assessment of the utility of object (i.e. vehicle, driver, and services) based on what is obtained attributes (i.e. savings cost) and given attributes (i.e. perceived physical risk that could happen between users and driver) (Lin et al., 2012; Zeithaml, 1988).

VAM is adequate research frame to explain whether to decide or not adoption of new information communication technology (ICT) (Kim et al., 2007; Chung & Koo, 2015), due to Uber also has been stood on ICT, VAM is suitable to investigate the effects of Uber in tourism.

1.1. Benefits

Sharing economy has been soaring with developed technologies (i.e mobile devices and social network platforms), and economic causes (i.e. economic collapse) (Owang, 2013), the main reason of sharing economy’s consumer seek to economic saving and social connectivity (Bardhi & Eckhardt 2012; Guttentag 2015). Economic saving means when travelers use sharing economy’s platform they could reduce expense than traditional consuming ways.

Numerous studies applied to explain and understand why consumers adopt the new technology via Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) in tourism industry (Ham et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2008; Morosan, 2012). According Davis (1986), individuals accept when the new technologies are ease of use and usefulness. Perceived Ease of Use (PEOU) is defined as “the degree to which people believes that using a particular system would be free of effort” (Davis, 1989, p. 320). Thus, from prior studies, we assign two constructs, that is, not social connectivity and perceived usefulness, but economic savings and perceive ease of use as the benefits in this research. Due to these two constructs are the main reasons why individuals use sharing economy and why consumers accept new IT. In the Uber circumstance, travelers seek to economic frugality compare to use taxi, and they favor Uber app because of it is easy to use compare to rental car.

1.2 Sacrifices

When traveler attempt to use sharing economy, consumers are not sure what will happen and what negative outputs follow it, due to it offers the unfamiliar environment to split with totally stranger. Especially, users are confined to the vehicles with that strange driver when they have experienced with Uber’s ride-sharing. It is that consumers do not know what will be happened means perceived uncertainty, and concerning about negative results signifies that perceived risk. Perceived uncertainty is depicted as “no probability attached to it. It is a situation in which anything can happen and one has no idea what” (Hofsted, 2001, p. 148). Perceived risk describes as “a state in which the number of possible events exceeds the number of events that will actually occur” (Stone & Gronhau, 1993, p. 40). From these conceptual definitions, prior research suggests that the relationship between perceived uncertainty and perceived risk are distinction (Quintal et al., 2010), while there is a view that risk is described as a subjective feeling of uncertainty, that is, uncertain is a sort of reason that causes the perceived risk (Cho & Lee, 2006; Park et al, 2005).

Since going travel should meet unusual environment, besides that sharing economy extend these unaccustomed capacities, travelers who have met Uber’s ride-sharing experiences could encounter uncertain or risky situations and worry about these. Thus, we assign the perceived uncertainty and perceived risk as the sacrifices in this research.

1.3. Perceived Accessibility

Accessibility is described as how easy with which a destination may be reached from an origin, consequently, it is affected by distance, traffic conditions, and weather (Cheng & Chen, 2015). In tourism, regarding to accessibility, it is one of the ‘six A’s’ that is the analysis frame of destination (i.e. Attraction, Accessibility,
Amenities, Available packages, Activities, Ancillary services) (Buhalis, 2000). According to Buhalis (2000), accessibility is depicted as “entire transportation system comprising of routes, terminals and vehicles” (p. 98). Prior researches investigate the effect of these destination attributes to satisfaction or behaviour intentions (Dabholkar et al., 2000; Hui et al., 2007). Further, Hui et al. (2007) found the significant effects of these attributes depend on whether perceptions only. Thus, in this research, we assign the perceived accessibility as one of main the perceived value based on value-based theory when traveler use Uber, because it is one of the vital destination attribute and its concept related with transfer, such as ride-sharing. Hence, we posit:

H1-1: Economic savings for using Uber positively effect to perceived accessibility
H1-2: Perceived ease of use for using Uber positively effects to perceived accessibility.
H2-1: Perceived uncertainty for using Uber negatively effects to perceived accessibility.
H2-2: Perceived risk for using Uber negatively effects to perceived accessibility.

2. Intention to Explore
We designate intention to explore to the dependent variables as behavior intention to travel.

This is for prediction how to change the behavior of travelers according to how to they assess the value of using Uber during tour via benefits and sacrifices.

Intention to explore functions as an appropriate means to evaluate the individual’s postadoptive behaviours (Thatcher et al., 2011). This concept has been researched in engaging to IT industry, and it has two points, the first aspect is that an individual’s plan to consider using various features of IT (Thatcher et al., 2011). Thus, adapt to tourism with IT, travelers has plan to consider inspecting several spots in the destination with developed technology. The second facet is that the desire to engross in active thinking about the ways how to combine IT into individual’s work (Maruping & Magni, 2012). Again, adapt to travelers, they have the desire to engage in active contemplating how to absorb traveling into the destination. Therefore, intention to explore in tourism describes as traveler attempt to seek for new places or scrutinize the destination while they already have been traveled in this research. Hence, we posits hypothesis 3 and develops the research model as shown figure 1:

H3: Perceived accessibility positively effects to exploration intention

![Figure 1. Research Model](image)

**PROPOSED METHODOLOGY**

For this study we will gather data from who have experienced more than once within two years via ride-sharing, such as Uber and Lyft, when they go abroad to travel, because there are illegal in Korea. The respondents will be asked to answer a questionnaire about their experiences when they
use the ride-sharing app, vehicles, and services. To ensure the measurements’ reliability and validity, the questionnaire in each of variables are made from prior studies, and some of items are adapted for this research situation.

**THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

This research will investigate how benefits and sacrifices effect to exploration intention in the context of traveling via ride-sharing experiences. Users who connect to Uber may gain economic savings than taxi or rental car, and they perceive ease of use the Uber app. These two benefits bring out value of Uber. In the same time, travelers do not know what happen when they consume Uber, such as they may not meet driver even though driver follow the map in smart phone, or they also concern about whether the driver roughly drive and they could have carsickness even though they already check the reviews that prior user wrote about driver offered nice service.

The results will suggest which attributes effects to perceived accessibility as value of ride-sharing experiences whether it could be positively or negatively. Further, we also may check traveler attempt to explore other spots in destination due to they use ride-sharing experience with perceive accessibility. Base on this conclusion, we will offer what about regulations could be legally permitted Uber in Korea.

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FORECASTING CHINESE TOURISM DEMAND IN TAIWAN BASED ON THE GM(1,1) MODEL

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Xin-Ni Xiao, Ming Chuan University

INTRODUCTION

As tourism involves intangible experiences, the products and services associated with tourism are largely perishable in nature. For instance, airline seats, rental cars, hotel rooms, and other rented spaces cannot be inventoried or accumulated for later use. Consequently, it is crucial for government bodies, private sectors, and investors to have an accurate tourism forecast when planning tourism development efforts and investments (Blake et al., 2006; Chu, 2008; Chu, 2009; Xiankai et al., 2017; Xin et al, 2017; Jaume & Andreu, 2017). Accurate forecasts are necessary in instances such as operational decisions (i.e. scheduling, staffing), tactical decisions (i.e. promotion), and strategic decisions (i.e. investments). Similarly, governmental tourism authorities need accurate data in order to plan and develop tourism infrastructures, superstructures, accommodations, and attractions. Researchers, practitioners and government officials have long recognized the importance of accurate forecasts. The tourist arrivals variable is the most popular measure of tourism forecasting.

In recognition of the importance of accurate short- and long-term forecasts to the tourism industry, forecasting techniques have been widely adopted in international tourism flows, as reported in published empirical studies, along with the empirical findings (Song et al., 2003; Min, 2008a). Despite the consensus on the need for accurate forecasting, there appears to be no standard source of tourism forecasts.

In the year 2010, Chinese arrivals to the island reached a peak of 1.63 million, an increase of 67.8% over 2009, and China became the largest international tourism source market, surpassing the number of Japanese tourists, which had long been dominant in Taiwan’s inbound market. In the year 2015, Chinese arrivals to the island reached 4.19 million, which represents 36% of the total inbound tourists for Taiwan. This high growth is likely to be in response to government strategies, policies, and messages.

However, cross-strait interactions have changed somewhat since the inauguration of the new president, Tasi, Ing-Wen of the pro-independence Democratic Progressive Party, in May of 2016. The number of mainland tourists to Taiwan has fallen more than 20 percent just three months in to President Tasi’s first term as the island’s leader. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to use the grey prediction model to obtain more accurate forecasts of Chinese tourists. The results of this study can provide useful insights to tourism professionals and serve as a foundation for further research in model building for estimation under the circumstances of market uncertainty and limited information.

METHOD

3.1. Data Collection

Grey system theory was first proposed by Professor Deng in the 1980s. To supplement the inherent defects of conventional statistical methods, grey system theory only requires a limited amount of data to estimate or measure data collected from an uncertain system and obtain a good performance (Hsu, 2003; Wang & Lim, 2005; Min, 2008b), it is thus suitable for the data set characters of Chinese travelers, which is characterized by a limited amount of data as well as information uncertainty.

In this study, yearly movements for the period from 2010 to 2016 are used to show Chinese tourist demand for Taiwan (see Figure 1). This set of data is received from the Monthly Report on Tourism published by the Tourism Bureau of Taiwan (Tourism Bureau, 2017).
3.2. Grey GM(1,1) Model

Grey system theory is adopted mainly to research uncertainty model systems, resolve inter-system relations, establish models and forecast trends for decision making. Deng developed the grey-forecasting model (GM), which forms the core of the grey system theory and facilitates accurate predictions (Deng, 1982). However, the GM(1,1) model is one of the most important parts of grey system theory pioneered by Professor Deng Julong (2002), and it is widely employed in different fields. The formula of GM(1, 1) model is presented below:

Step 1: Assuming \(x^{(0)}\) as the original data sequence, means: \(x^{(0)} = (x^{(0)}(1), x^{(0)}(2), ..., x^{(0)}(n))\).
Step 2: Obtain 1-AGO (one – time accumulating generation operation) sequence \(X^{(1)}\), which is monotonically increasing and expressed as, \(x^{(1)} = (x^{(1)}(1), x^{(1)}(2), ..., x^{(1)}(n))\), \(k=1,2,3,\cdots,n\).
where \(x^{(1)}(k)=k=1,2,3,\cdots,n\).
Step 3: =MEAN, Generate \(\hat{a}\), by calculation
\[\hat{a}=0.5(k=1,2,3,\cdots,n).\]
Step 4: Estimation of developing coefficient a and b
Establish GM(1,1) model as as \(x^{(0)}(k)+a\cdot z^{(1)}(k)=b\), \(k=2,3,\cdots,n\). The whitening differential equation of GM(1,1) is Let \(T\), by the least squares method, we have, \((B^TB)^{-1}B^TY_N\), Where \(B^T\), and \(Y_N\).
Step 5: White response equation of GM(1,1), \((k+1)=(x^{(0)}(1) - \cdot)\dot{\cdot}\), \((1)\rightarrow x^{(0)}(1)\)
Step 6: recuperation value, ,
and \((1)\rightarrow x^{(1)}(1)=x^{(0)}(1)\)
Step 7: Precision rate,
\[e(k) = \left| \frac{x^{(0)}(k) - \hat{x}(k+1)}{x^{(0)}(k)} \right| \times 100, k = 1,2,\cdots,n\]
Precision rate= 1-e(k)
Step 8: Mean Absolute Percentage Error(MAPE),
\[MAPE = \frac{1}{k-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} \left| \frac{x^{(0)}(k) - \hat{x}(0)}{x^{(0)}(k)} \right|, k = 1,2,\cdots,n\]

FINDINGS

The minimal amount of data needed to perform series grey prediction, establish on the GM (1,1) procedure, should be more than four observations without jumping points. The data of Chinese tourism population collection took place between 2013 and 2016 year by the Tourism Bureau in Taiwan. Procedures adopted to get the predicted output for Chinese tourists are listed in Table 1. The comparison of the real value data and grey predicting result is as displayed in Figure 2.
4.1 Grey GM(1,1) model

1. Assume \( x(0) \) to be the last four sets, indicates: \( x^{(0)} = (2874702, 3987152, 4184102, 3511734) \)
2. AGO, \( x^{(1)} = (2874702, 6861854, 11045956, 14557690) \)
3. \( \text{=MEAN, } = (4868278, 8953905, 12801823) \)
4. the least squares method, we have
5. Obtain recuperation value = (1-)
6. Relative error test and MAPE (see Table 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The real number</td>
<td>2874702</td>
<td>3987152</td>
<td>4184102</td>
<td>3511734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prediction value</td>
<td>2874702</td>
<td>4124723</td>
<td>3889131</td>
<td>3666996</td>
<td>3457548</td>
<td>3260063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision rate</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAPE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( n=4, \text{ the } =0.4, \text{ hence, the interval } \) a needed for the developing coefficient \( a \) of effective GM(1,1) model (Deng, 2002) is the interval (-0.4, 0.4), obviously we get 0.058813(-04, 0.4). From Table 1 it derives that each MAPE is under 10% (Lewis, 1982). Therefore, the GM(1,1) model is applicable.

![Figure 2. Chinese tourist demand from 2013 to 2016 and predicated result in Taiwan](image)

CONCLUSION

This study used a GM(1,1) interval prediction model to increase the predicted accuracy on forecasting Chinese tourism demand in Taiwan. The method of grey system theory differs from the present forecasting practice in the tourism demand literature. According to the results, there is a trend of decreasing Chinese tourists to Taiwan. This indicates the Chinese policies of the new Taiwan government affected Chinese inbound tourism. The government and practitioners therefore need to devise more effective marketing strategies to attract tourists from other countries or markets such as South Asia to respond to the declining Chinese inbound tourism. Moreover, the research findings can act as a reference for tourism authorities, practitioners, and policymakers to devise the adequate strategies under similar circumstances.

The current study has certain limitations which should be used as a guideline for further prediction studies. First, the study, while limited to a univariate approach, took into consideration only Chinese inbound tourist and did not attempt to include travelers’ motivations for traveling as a determinant factor. Further research on tourism can investigate possible factors that might affect Chinese inbound travel demand. In addition, forecasting of travel demands is valued for its potentiality in assisting tourism authorities, key stakeholders and policy makers to reach operational, tactical and strategic decision. Thus, comparative studies are needed to determine
whether grey prediction yields better predicted outputs of Chinese tourist movements than other forecast techniques often adopted in tourism demand literature. Such analysis can be achieved when more observations are obtained. Model testing is an everlasting task for those seeking the precisions of predicted values for the purpose of planning ahead for the future.

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INTERACTION BETWEEN SPATIAL PRICE STRATEGIES ON CONDITIONAL PROXIMITY IN LODGING MARKET

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INTRODUCTION

The short-term price competition has occurred among the hotel firms due to the characteristic of dynamic pricing, and profit caused by the competition has a favorable effect on the revenue management in hotel business, thus the price strategy considering the price competition can prepare the source of the market competitive advantage and also takes the crucial role to decide the customer mix of hotels (Abrate, Fraquelli, & Viglia, 2012). In other words, not only a pricing strategy is considered a key point to manage revenue (Kimes & Chase, 1998), but also implies occupying oligopolistic competition through potential cooperation or friendship among hotels in the market to competitive pricing (Enz, Canina. & Lomano, 2009; Kalnins, 2006). Recent studies on hotel pricing examine that short-term price strategy was implemented to promote sales such as special rate and best available rate, as the online market share of the online travel agencies (OTAs) is constantly expanding (Noone & Mattila, 2009). These phenomena have significantly increased customer exposure to revenue management pricing practices, and competition among hotels may cause a shift towards complete price transparency (Palamar & Edwards, 2009).

While these studies have mutually given meaningful implications, less attention has been paid to the strategic decision through prices regarding competition in the lodging market (Lee & Jang, 2013). The pricing strategy of hotels, in general, represent based on the price adjustment by the demand-generating in terms of competition (Varian, 2010), which by exposing the standard price which is at face value and the discount price which is the actual sell price at the same time, the range of difference between the two prices acts as an economic incentive among competing hotels, resulting in a ripple effect (Noone & Mattila, 2009). Collectively, it can be assumed that the range of price discount, that is, the difference between standard price and sell price acts as the price strategy itself, this is because it affects the revenue management and customers’ decision making (willing to pay) based on the competition among hotels.

Furthermore, a stream of literature related to competition has often utilized fixed geographic proximities when defining competitive sets (Bull, 1994). In such traditional view, geographic distance from demand-generating points governs a hotel’s expected demand and price strategy (Lee & Jang, 2015). It implies competition based on travelers’ recognition that the closer geographical distance among hotels is, the higher the substitutability among products. According to a recent study by Lee (2015), however, when travelers are willing to substitute location and quality, the spatial extent of competition can depend on the hotels’ similar quality. In the spatial competition literature, it is established that similar quality attributes lead to higher substitutability, ceteris paribus. In such case, increased geographic differentiation may be necessary to mitigate competition compared to that among hotels of dissimilar quality (Lee, 2015). Consequently, competition in the lodging market can be approach from two aspects based on geographic or quality proximities.

Therefore, the current study purports to empirically examine the interaction between price strategies in competition among hotels conditional proximities (distance or quality) in a market, using empirical data on lodging establishments in the Seoul.

METHOD

Sample and Data

This study conducted to collect the Agoda.com, one of the representative Online Travel Agencies (OTA), through the web crawler
during 94 days from July 1st until October 2nd for the first week in October. This database consists of 1106 hotels includes daily room price, rating score, information (i.e. facilities, services, characteristics) and sources such as distances to essentials, facilities, and services based on hotels in Seoul, while the hotels with missing rating score or sold rooms observations were excluded from the sample group. After the procedure, the total number of hotels in the sample was 458, and the total number of observation was 43,052 (458 hotels × 94 days observation). Figure 1 illustrates the spatial distribution of hotels in the Seoul lodging market.

![Figure 1. Spatial distribution of hotels in the Seoul lodging market](image)

**Model and variables**

This study empirically examines the interaction between spatial price strategies of hotels with in two conditional proximity dimensions: geographic distance and quality (Lee, 2015). The daily room price (standard price, discount price) was used the weekly average price of the lowest selling price of the day. Room rate has been used measure competition it jointly takes into account both standard prices and discount prices (Noone & Mattila, 2009; Lee & Jang, 2013), because a hotel’s pricing strategy, generally, can be affected by gap between the standard price and discount price with respect to its neighbor’s decisions in a market of differentiated products (Pinkse, Slade, & Brett, 2002; Pennerstorfer, 2009).

In this framework, price strategy can be assumed that difference between the standard price, which corresponds to the face value of hotels and discount price, which sets by price adjustment practices for revenue management of hotels. The price strategy (dependent) variables that can be estimated from the difference between standard price and discount price, that is, the range of price discount was, therefore, calculated as equation (1):

\[
\text{(1)}
\]

We specified measured interaction effect of the price strategy on the conditional neighbor by using spatial panel lag model (SPLM) (2):

\[
\text{(2)}
\]

where \(\text{Ln}()\) is \(n\)-by-1 vector of the natural logarithm of the difference between standard price and discount price used as the dependent variable. \(W\) is the \(n\)-by-\(n\) spatial weights matrix that contains conditional spatial dependence between neighbor hotels (Anselin & Hudak, 1992). Specifically, the element weights of the \(W\) matrix, , is constructed information on the distance-based relationships created by contiguous neighbors. According to the review of hedonic pricing literature, a 10-mile threshold is often used as a reasonable distance for proximity effects (Corgel

\[
\text{(3)}
\]
Therefore, spatial weights matrix, a 10-mile radius connectivity among hotels by approaching k-nearest neighbor (k-NN) was defined. For instance, if hotel $i$ and $j$ are neighbors (connectivity) by $k=10$ (k-NN) then off-diagonal elements have a non-zero value ($\lambda$), and only if hotels $i$ and $j$ are not neighbors (distance between the two hotels is greater than 10 miles) then all diagonal elements have a zero value ($\lambda$). When the weights are non-zero, the range of decrease in competition rapidly increase as the distance between the hotels far, so that the value is defined as the squared inverse of distance between $i$ and $j$, equation (3):

$$ W_{di} = \frac{1}{d^2} $$

In this formula (2), pre-multiplying the $W_{di}$ matrix, created spatial weights matrix where the $x$-axis is the longitude and the $y$-axis is the latitude, into the dependent variable, $\text{Ln(GUIE}_{\text{strategy}})$, yields the distance-weighted average of neighboring hotels (Anselin, 1988). Thus, is that distance-weighted average of the price strategy variables based on geographical proximity neighboring hotels, and the $\rho$, it can be interpreted as the strength of interaction of price strategy. Furthermore, in order to define the $W_{qual}$ matrix, we applied multiple correspondence analysis for creating similar quality coordinate among neighboring hotels. Multiple correspondence analysis can make a generalization of principal component analysis when the variables to be analyzed are categorical instead of quantitative (Abdi & Valentin, 2007). Therefore, MCA is used to analyze observations described by a set of nominal variables which comprise of several levels and each of these levels were coded as binary variables. Using the 59 categorical variables, hotels’ characteristic information such as facilities, services that collected through the web crawler conducted multiple correspondence analysis. As a result of MCA, two dimensions are extracted and then geo-coded the respective factor score to create the x-axis and y-axis that construct the quality coordinates. Thus, is that distance-weighted average of the price strategy variables based on quality proximity neighboring hotels, and the $\lambda$ can be interpreted as the strength of price strategy’s interaction. Figure 2 illustrates the neighborhood scheme used, created based on the $W$ matrix, connectivity among hotels as expressed by lines among the hotels.

Figure 2. Conditional (quality vs. distance) neighborhood scheme of hotels (k=10)

The model also contains k-by-n X matrix making up explanatory or other control factors that affect price strategy. The explanatory variables are that the ten-point ratings assessed by customers (VALUE FOR MONEY, LOCATION, SERVICE, CLEANLINESS, ROOM COMFORT & QUALITY, FOOD & DINING, FACILITIES). Four dummy variables for hotel room types (SINGLE, DOUBLE, TRIPLE, QUAD) were included in the model as control variables. The proximity to transportation hubs was controlled by the distance from respective hotels measured in miles to distance from international airport (INTERAIR), distance from domestic airport (DOMEAIR). Other proximity to infrastructure factors were controlled by distance measured in miles to nearest subway station (SUBWAY), nearest airport shuttle bus stop (BUS), hospitals and clinics (HOSPITAL), and pharmacies (PHARMACY). The size of each hotel is controlled by the number of rooms (NROOM; Canina, Enz, & Harrison, 2005), restaurants (NRESTAUR), and bars & lounges (NBAR). Table I shows the descriptive statistics of independent variables used.
**Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Variables (N = 43,052)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LIST PRICE</td>
<td>114.26</td>
<td>85.29</td>
<td>1000.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELL PRICE</td>
<td>61.63</td>
<td>48.32</td>
<td>114.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRICE DIFF</td>
<td>52.62</td>
<td>52.84</td>
<td>742.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLEANLINESS</td>
<td>7.97</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCATION</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVICE</td>
<td>8.12</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FACILITIES</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMFOT&amp;QUALITY</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VALUEFORMONEY</td>
<td>7.95</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD&amp;DINING</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SINGLE</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOUBLE</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRIPLE</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QUAD</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTERAIR</td>
<td>30.29</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>36.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOMEAIR</td>
<td>10.33</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>13.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SUBWAY</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUS</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOSPITAL</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>6.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHARMACY</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NROOM</td>
<td>76.83</td>
<td>110.69</td>
<td>680.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NRESTAUR</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>11.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMAR</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abbreviations denote: -mean; -std.deviation.; LIST PRICE- standard price; SELL PRICE-discount price; PRICE DIFF- price strategy

**IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION**

Because of hotel’s products can be perceived as highly substitutability within reasonable geographic and quality boundaries, price strategy is crucial variable in terms of price competition in the short run (Lee & Jang, 2013). Recent studies on hotel pricing emphasize that increased substitutability among hotels of similar quality (Lee, 2015), as the online market share of the OTAs is constantly expanding.

Therefore, the current study will be meaningful in that the empirical study is conducted by using the difference between standard price and sell price as a price strategy variable. Moreover, our spatial econometric model is straightforward, but this is significant in that the price competition is highlighted in a more strategic frame.

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science and urban economics, 22(3), 509-536.
THE IMPACT OF BRAND DIVERSIFICATION ON COST-SAVING EFFECT AND FIRM PERFORMANCE: U.S. RESTAURANT INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

For decades, utilizing corporate diversification to grow firm value has been an important topic in academic business (Jose, Nichols & Stevens, 1986; Lang & Stulz, 1994; Rumelt, 1986). As a restaurant firm grows, it has the choice to remain a single brand or diversify into multiple brands (Choi, Kang, Lee & Lee, 2011). To be competitive and gain market share, some firms choose to grow by increasing the number of properties within the same brand, allowing the firm to share its costs among properties and achieve economies of scale. For example, McDonald’s and Starbucks corporations have run their businesses by adopting the single-brand strategy. In contrast, some restaurant firms choose to diversify by developing or acquiring various brands as part of their growth strategy to reduce portfolio risks in business. Through this, the firms can mainly achieve economies of scope which are the formalized benefits of related diversification in terms of cost advantage (Helfat & Eisenhardt, 2004). If a firm owns many brands, it can achieve economies of scope, as is the case of Yum! Brands and Darden Restaurants, Inc. Operating several brands enables firms to share internal resources and achieve synergies through specialized management capabilities.

Both of the abovementioned business strategies are popular for restaurant firms in the United States (Kang & Lee, 2015); however, a comprehensive review of the literature provides inconclusive evidence that the single-brand strategy performs better than a multiple-brand strategy, and vice versa. Moreover, previous studies on brand diversification asserts that operating a diversified brand enables a firm to gain economies of scale and economies of scope, they do not provide any empirical result on cost-savings effect (Choi et al., 2011; Kang & Lee, 2015).

Rather than simply compare the effects of different diversification strategy on firm performance, in this study we will identify which strategy, either single brand or multiple brand, brings higher performance to a firm by reducing the firm’s cost related to cost of goods sold (COGS), labor cost, advertising expense, and administrative expense.

Thus, the purpose of this study is twofold: (a) to examine the impact of business strategy, single versus multiple brand, on a restaurant firm’s performance, and (b) to ascertain the relationship of costs related to economies of scale and economies of scope and brand diversification. This study is unique because it examines the effect of brand diversification from the cost perspective. It provides insight into decisions regarding whether U.S. restaurant firms should expand their brand or focus on a single brand.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The brand diversification strategy in the restaurant industry can be analyzed through a theoretical background of corporate diversification in strategic management and firm performance (Choi et al., 2011). In addition, the cost-saving effect of the brand diversification strategy can be viewed in relation to the production function theory of economics, which includes both economies of scale and economies of scope (Helfat & Eisenhardt, 2004).

Corporate Level Strategy: Concentration Versus Diversification

In the hierarchy of strategy, there are corporate and business level strategies. The top management team (TMT) of a corporation is faced with the long-term decision regarding the domains that it should be operated in. TMT has to decide whether the firm will pursue the growth by concentrated in a single business or diversified into other related or unrelated domain. Corporate
Diversification has been widely applied in the business field. As issues in corporate diversification have increased, researchers have studied the impact of diversification on firm performance. The findings are inconclusive: on one hand, there is the positive impact of corporate diversification on firm performance (Carter, 1977; Jose et al., 1986; Rhoades, 1973). Jose et al. (1986) found corporate diversification had a positive effect on firm value, as measured by Tobin’s q. On the other hand, there is the discount effect from corporate diversification (Berger & Ofek, 1995; Lang & Stulz, 1994; Wernerfelt & Montgomery, 1988). Lang and Stultz (1994) proved that diversified firms displayed lower performance, measured by Tobin’s q, than undiversified firms. Finally, there is the nonlinear relationship between corporate diversification and firm performance (Palich, Cardinal, & Miller, 2000; Rumelt, 1986). Rumelt (1986) found that firm performance increased from an undiversified firm with a single product, peaked with moderate diversification with related products, and decreased thereafter with unrelated products.

Business Level Strategy: Single Brand Versus Multiple Brand

Once a firm decides its domain, it then determines which business level strategy to compete with its competitors. One of the critical options is to grow by brand diversification strategy. Nonetheless, limited empirical research studies have been done on the effect of brand diversification. One study conducted by Morgan and Rego (2009) with 72 samples of large firms during 1994–2003 found a positive effect of brand diversification on firm value. Whereas, in the restaurant industry, when Choi et al. (2011) looked at a sample of 46 firms from 2003–2007, they found a negative effect of brand diversification on firm value. Kang and Lee (2015)’s study was further noted a negative effect of brand diversification on performance and a negative moderating effect of brand diversification on the geographical diversification on firm performance relationship of the sampled 132 restaurant firms during 1993 - 2010. Likewise, considering within restaurant industry context, our study suggests following hypotheses regarding brand diversification:

Hypothesis 1: Restaurant firms focusing on a single-brand strategy will achieve different performance levels compared to those that adopt a multiple-brand strategy.

Hypothesis 2: There is non-linear relationship between brand diversification and firm performance.

Diversification Strategy for Cost-Savings

Diversification, meanwhile, is coupled with economies of scale and economies of scope. Economies of scope are efficiencies formed by variety, not volume, whereas economies of scale for a firm involve reductions in the average costs arising from increasing the scale of production for a single product or single brand type (Mankiw, 2014). A manager of a restaurant firm, through a brand-diversification strategy, can achieve scale efficiency, cost reduction, and synergy effects (Carter, 1977). The cost-saving effect of brand diversification, which is related to effect of within-industry diversification and achieve economies of scale and economies of scope, considerably varies by the characteristic of the costs (Helfat & Eisenhardt, 2004). The main concern of brand diversification in this study is to discover whether brand-diversified restaurant firms exhibit economies of scope and economies of scale simultaneously, as well as whether undiversified restaurant firms exhibit economies of scale. To identify the effect of the brand diversification on cost-savings, this study will examine fixed cost and variable cost characteristics or scale free cost and non-scale free cost. Thus, we establish the following hypothesis through literature reviews:

Hypothesis 3: According to the brand diversification strategy of restaurant firms, their cost-saving effect will vary.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Sample and Data Collection

The study sample comprises publicly traded US restaurant firm, based on Standard Industrial Classification code: 5812 (drinking and eating places). Data for brand diversification are collected from each restaurant firm’s 10-K, an annual report required by the US Securities and Exchange Commission. The data for 263 samples large of firms during 1990-2010 are used. The data were collected through the use of the Restaurant Industry Analyst database.

Multivariate Analysis

The Multivariate Analysis is conducted through the use of a Multiple Regression Analysis. The dependent variable is the variable of interest, which is the restaurant firm’s performance. The independent variables are the firm’s characteristics, such as size, age, and other firm-level characteristics. The independent variables are measured at the firm level and include measures of restaurant firm characteristics such as size, age, and other firm-level characteristics. The dependent variable is the restaurant firm’s performance, which is measured as the firm’s profitability.

Regression Analysis

The Regression Analysis is conducted through the use of a Multiple Linear Regression Analysis. The dependent variable is the variable of interest, which is the restaurant firm’s performance. The independent variables are the firm’s characteristics, such as size, age, and other firm-level characteristics. The independent variables are measured at the firm level and include measures of restaurant firm characteristics such as size, age, and other firm-level characteristics. The dependent variable is the restaurant firm’s performance, which is measured as the firm’s profitability.
Commission. Other financial data that are needed for a firm performance variable and control variables were collected from the COMPUSTAT database. The period of study is from 2010 to 2016. There are 66 restaurant firms in the sample.

Constructs of the Study
Diversification measures
The study adopts three measurements to comprehensively examine the effect of the degree of diversification across each firm’s brand. Following Choi at al. (2011)’s study, three measurements for degree of diversification are 1) Herfindahl index, 2) the number of brands, 3) a dummy variable for brand. The Herfindahl index has been frequently adopted to measure the degree of diversification (Lang and Stulz, 1994) and provides information of the degree of diversification and concentration; higher (lower) score of the index indicates a less (more) diversified portfolio. The dummy variable for brand takes the value 1 if a firm operates a single brand, and 0 otherwise.

Firm performance measure
Firm performance is measured by market value and accounting returns. Tobin’s q was first developed by Tobin (1969) to estimate the firm’s intangible assets and is often used to measure firm’s intangible asset. Tobin’s q represents the ratio of its market value to the current replacement costs of its assets (Tobin, 1969). In this study, we use the approximate Tobin’s q, suggested by Chung and Pruitt (1994), to facilitate using variables in the COMPUSTAT database and computational simplicity. In addition, Tobin’s q has been considered as a more-relevant measure of firm performance than accounting-based measure or stock returns (Chung & Pruitt, 1994). The approximate Tobin’s q is: Approximate Tobin’s q = (MVE + PS + DEBT)/TA, where MVE = (stock price) * (number of common stock outstanding); PS=liquidating value of outstanding preferred stock; DEBT=short-term liabilities net of short-term assets + book value of long-term debt, and TA=book value of total assets.

Relationship between Brand Diversification, Cost-savings, and Firm Performance
In this paper, we primarily focus attention on cost-savings on firms’ main costs related to brand diversification strategy. We simultaneously examine that firm’s brand diversification strategy generates economies of scale and scope by reducing firms’ each main cost, thereby brand diversification strategy can achieve firm performance. Figure 1 shows the relationship between brand diversification strategy, cost-savings and firm performance.

![Figure 1. Research framework](image)

Statistical Analysis
To analyze impact of brand diversification on firm performance, we employed regression model with time effects. We need to control size, financial status, growth opportunity, the degree of franchising, and the degree of internationalization. Thus, five control variables are asset, debt-equity ratio, sales growth rate, franchise ratio, and internationalization ratio, respectively. The model is defined as follows:

(1) where BD = the degree of brand diversification
SIZE = total asset
LEV = debt-equity ratio
SGR = sales growth rate
FR = franchise ratio
ID = the degree of internationalization
YEAR = time dummies

To analyze impact of brand diversification on cost, we employed regression model with
square term and interaction term of brand diversification. Sales are most directly related to the total costs of the firm and has a non-linear relationship with it. In order to capture this relationship, we employed square term of sales as independent variable. To find pure effect of each cost-saving generated by brand diversification, we need to control size, the degree of franchising and the degree of internationalization. Thus, three control variables are sales, franchise ratio and internationalization ratio, respectively. Lastly, we measure interaction effect between sales and brand diversification on total cost. The model is defined as follows:

(2) where \( TC = \) total cost
\( SALES = \) sales revenue
\( BD = \) the degree of brand diversification
\( FR = \) franchise ratio
\( ID = \) the degree of internationalization
\( YEAR = \) time dummies

**EXPECTED FINDINGS**

We expect that brand diversification will have a discount effect on restaurant firm performance, as noted in the results of Choi et al. (2011) and Kang and Lee (2015). This implies that brand extension of restaurant firms has lower cost-savings than employing a single-brand strategy. In other words, single-brand strategies related to economies of scale have higher performance than multiple-brand strategies related to economies of scope and economies of scale simultaneously.

Furthermore, because we examine the cost-savings of the brand-diversification strategy, depending on the effect of economies of scale and the synergy effect, we expect the main costs to be affected differently. This study will additionally provide a foundation to examine the strategic choice for whether U.S. restaurant firms should focus on a single brand or expand their brands to effect cost reduction.

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FILM – INDUCED TOURISM IN THAILAND: AN INFLUENCE OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS’ INTENTION TO VISIT FILM SHOOTING LOCATION

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INTRODUCTION

Thailand is a marvelous country at the center of the Indochina peninsula in Southeast Asia which is the 50th largest country in the world. The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) ranked Thailand as one of the top ten countries as the most visited in terms of the number of international travelers in 2013 (UNWTO, 2013). The number of international travelers who visited Thailand during 2012 was 22.4 million, and by 2013 the number was up to 26.5 million with an increase of 4.1 million from 2012 to 2013 (UNWTO, 2013). Especially, in 2014 the majority of tourists who visit Thailand are from China. Chinese tourist numbers have grown from 4.6 million in 2014 to 7.9 million in 2015 (Department of Tourism Thailand, 2015). Among the reasons of an increase number of Chinese tourists was accounted by the Chinese film called Lost in Thailand that was filmed mainly part in Chiangmai. Apart from Chinese film, many Hollywood films were used Thailand as a film shooting location such as The Man with the Golden Gun (1974), Kickboxer (1989), The Beach (2000), The Medallion (2003), and Alexander (2004) (Film Statistics, 2016). Because of Thailand has an ability to offer a variety of landscapes such as coastlines, reefs, rivers, lakes, and rocky mountains.

THE BEACH

The movie called “The Beach” was film in Thailand in 2000 and used Phuket and Phi Phi Islands as a film shooting location. Phuket is the largest island in Thailand and also known as a tourist attraction, located in the South of Thailand. Phuket has 33 islands and is regarded as the tourism hub of the Andaman Coast. Major beaches include Patong beach, Kata, Karon, and Naihan beaches well-known because of white sand and crystal blue seas. Hence, local and international tourists have visited these places in large number. The high demand of tourists to visit these places result in large number of local-own and international brand-name-hotels, hostels, and guest houses, different types of restaurants and street hawkers as well as nightlife entertainment along the two sides of the road accompanying the beaches. Kontogeorgopoulos (2003) found on his research during 1996, 1997, 1999, and 2001, that while Phuket enjoys international fame as a tourist destination, Phangnga and Krabi remain relative unknown regions.

In addition, Law, Bunnell, and Ong (2007) describe that Maya Beach in Krabi Province used as the Twentieth Century Fox’s movie, the Beach, provide viewers with image of tropical paradise motivating Di Caprio fans to visit the place. Hence, it is not surprising that both inbound and domestic tourists want to visit the world-renowned Thai beaches such as Phuket and Phi Phi Islands. However, after Phi Phi Island had been used as a film shooting location for the movie “The Beach” in 2000, it has been recognized as a paradise on earth among international tourists. Because of the film, there has been a rapid increase in tourism to the islands.

LOST IN THAILAND

“Lost in Thailand” a Chinese comedy movie was film in Thailand in 2012 which used Bangkok and Chiang Mai as a film shooting location. The film is about three Chinese men traveling to Thailand which two competing scientists searching for their boss performed by Xu Zhang, and Huang Bo, and a tourist who visit Thailand for fulfill his dream performed by Wang Baoqiang. This movie displayed Thai martial arts or Muay Thai to be well known. Moreover, the film shooting location such as Tha Phae Gate, The Elephant Training...
Center Chiang Dao, Night Bazaar has become one of the popular destination for outbound tourists.

Tourism is a key economic factor for Thailand. Thus film tourism can be one of the effective marketing tools to attract tourists in visiting Thailand. The purpose of this study is 1) describe the motivation of travelers to visit Thailand as a film shooting destination by applying the concept of tourists’ motivation on repeat visits to Thailand proposed by Rittichainuwat, Qu, and Mongkhonvanit (2008), 2) describe the travel motivations of first time tourists and repeat tourists to visit film shooting location in Thailand by using a multiple group analysis, 3) identify the image of Thailand as a travel destination on film – induced tourism, and 4) assess whether film can motivate people to become a specific film tourists. This study used “The Beach”, and “Lost in Thailand” movie which was film in Thailand as a case study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Destination Image

Destination image is frequently used by several researchers. It can be defined as the sum of beliefs, ideas impressions that people have and expectations about a destination (Crompton, 1979). Rittichainuwat et al., (2001) conducted a survey to examine the 31 attributes on image of Thailand as an international travel destination and found that beautiful architecture and buildings, interesting customs and culture image, numerous cultural and historical attractions, a trip to Thailand is worth value for money, friendly people, and easy access are the positive images on international tourist’s perspectives. Likewise, Warnick, Rodney, Bojanic, David, and Siriangkul (2005) studied on the movie effects on the image of Thailand among Foreign student travelers and found that positive impacts are more obvious among female respondents as the movie helps accentuate positive image of Thailand. In addition, Kim and Yoon (2003) studied about the components of Tourism Destination Image and found that exotic atmosphere, relaxation, scenic beauty, good climate and recommendations are the primary components of developing destination image. In summary, in order to promote the destination, it can be use the screening of a film to be another way to attract tourists to visit a destination (Hudson and Ritchie, 2006).

Film - induced Tourism

Film Tourism is a growing phenomenon worldwide and can continue to draw visitors year after year (Hudson & Ritchie, 2006). Film Tourism can be defined as a visitation to sites where movies and TV programmes have been filmed as well as to tours, to production studios, including film – related theme parks (Beeton, 2005), whereas Hudson and Ritchie (2006) imposed film tourism is a result of destination’s being featured on television, video or the cinema screen which can attract tourists to visit the destination. Previous studies have used different terminologies in terms of film tourism such as film tourism (Horrigan, 2009; Hudson and Ritchie, 2006; Law, Bunnell, and Ong, 2007; Beeton, 2010; Connell, 2012), movie-induced tourism (Beeton, 2005; Beeton, 2006; Hudson and Ritchie, 2006), film induced-tourism (Beeton, 2005; Beeton, 2006; Hudson and Ritchie, 2006; Macionis and Spark, 2009; Busby, Huang, and Jarman, 2013), film-motivated tourism (Karpovich, 2010), media-related tourism (Busby and Klug, 2001)

Films are not only a big screen to show beautiful and natural landscapes but also the ability to increase the number of tourists in visiting in the destinations (Horrigan, 2009). Film also create destination awareness and place identity as The Beach was film in Thailand in 2000 and used Phuket and Phi Phi Islands as a film shooting location, after the movie released in 2000 the number of tourists increased of 22 % in the youth market. In addition, the Chinese movie called “Lost in Thailand” has used Chiangmai as a main shooting location. The effects of this movie expressed on Thai culture such as Thai boxing and a very friendly of Thai people and also show the positive image such as scenic natural beauty, beautiful countryside, and nice temple. After this movie released in 2012, the number of Chinese tourists increased 60 % from 2012 to 2013 (Department of Tourism Thailand, 2016). Thus film tourism can be one of the effective marketing tools to attract tourists in visiting Thailand.

Travel Motivation

Travel motivation has been on the central stage of tourism research for several decades and
has long been an important topic in tourism research (Crompton, 1979; Huang, 2010). The importance of research has been confirmed by the findings on tourist motivation which indicate that there are differences in travel motivations between tourists travelling from different origin countries and to different destinations or those who have different background even when they choose to visit the same destinations (Hua and Yoo, 2011; Rittichainuwat, 2008). Thus tangible destination resources no longer have the same motivational pull to destinations as they once had. Instead, visitors are increasingly focused on customer experience, operant, intangible resources (Crouch, 2011). The theory of push and pull motivations is one of the basic theories used to describe and examine tourists motivation (Crompton, 1979; Sangpikul, 2008). According to Crompton (1979), novelty motivates people to travel to satisfy their need for education. Not surprisingly, lack of novelty deters tourists from revisiting a place (Rittichainuwat, Qu, and Mongkhonvanit, 2007a). Likewise, culture is a major motivator among Asian and western tourists who visit Thailand (Rittichainuwat, Qu, and Brown, 2001; Rittichainuwat, Qu, and Mongkhonvanit, 2007b). However, culture may not motivate residents of neighboring areas who are familiar with their own culture due to the lack of novelty. In addition, due to cultural difference, western and Asian tourists have different motivations. For example, Rittichainuwat, Chakraborty and Rattanaphinanchai (2014) found that a short holiday has become a pull travel motivator in modern societies, not only for tourists in western countries but also for Asian tourists.

**METHODOLOGY**

The instrument of this study is a self-administered survey questionnaire used to determine travel motivations and destination image of International tourists who visit Thailand. Questionnaire items were derived from the studies by Rittichainuwat (2008), and Rittichainuwat and Rattanaphinanchai (2015). The questionnaire was written in English and Chinese Mandarin so that tourists who can understand English or Chinese Mandarin can participate in the questionnaire survey. The target population of this study was international tourists who waiting for departure flights at Suvarnabhumi International Airport, Donmuang International Airport, and international tourists who visit major travel attraction such as Temple of Reclining Buddha (Wat Pho).

The instrument consisted of three parts. The first part includes questions about purpose of tourists that visit Thailand. The second part comprises questions about the negative and positive image of Thailand by seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). The last part includes the travel motivations and demographic profile. As for data analysis, SPSS was used to analyze the questionnaire data which includes frequency distribution, Descriptive statistic. First, frequency distribution was used to describe demographic profile of tourists and travel characteristic. Second, descriptive statistics was used to identify the travel motivation and destination image of Thailand. Third, independent sampling mean t-test were run to compare between Male and Female in visiting a film shooting location while ANOVA were run to identify any significant difference on travel motivation. Forth, factor analysis was used to analyze the relationship of travel motivation to film shooting location between male and female. Forth, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the goodness of fit of the relationship of the respondents derived from the factor analysis.

**RESULTS**

Out of 800 potential respondents who received the questionnaire, 729 usable responses were obtained, yielding a response rate 91%. The findings of this study are that slightly more than half of the tourists visiting Thailand (57.9%) were female, followed by male (42.1%).

The respondents’ purpose of travel, the majority were on vacation (82.2%) followed by vacation and business (6.9%), and the rest of 10.9% were business, convention, shopping, Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR), and Transit. As for the number of visit in Thailand, most tourists (56.4%) were visiting Thailand for the first time, followed by (22.8%) who were on their second or third visit, followed by 13.6% were visiting Thailand more than 5 times and (7.3%) were tourists who visit Thailand around 4–5 times.
As shown in table 4: there were significant differences respondents who watched “Lost in Thailand” and “The Beach” meaning that after the tourists watched movies, the movies and location that shown in the scenes have high motivation to visit a film shooting location.

The results of the CFA showed (χ² = 1774.1566 with 424 df, p-value = 0.00, NFI = 0.764, TLI = 0.7915, CFI = 0.8086, RMSEA =0.066). All of the factor loadings were statistically significant (p-values less than 0.01). Thus, overall the CFA results clearly indicate a good measurement model. The results show that the top four factors that represents positive image of Thailand as a travel destination were scenic natural beauty, rich culture, good value for money, and good shopping. While female tourists were more motivated to visit film shooting location than male tourists in terms of your favourite Thai film, the shooting location of your favourite film, the actor/actresses of your favourite film, and romantic atmosphere. In contrast, male tourists were more motivated to visit film shooting location than female tourists in terms of re-live experience you had watched.

CONCLUSION

The findings of this study show that movie can induce tourists to visit the shooting location especially “The Beach” movie can attract tourists to visit Phi Phi islands. One of the respondents had positive image after watched the movie and would like to visit the destination. The reasons were that because of its white sandy beaches, crystal clear water, and beauty of nature. While “Lost in Thailand” can promote Thai culture such as Thai martial art called Muay Thai. Moreover, the shooting location such as Chiang Mai becomes more popular destination among Chinese tourists.

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GLASS CEILING: THE WOMEN OF PHILIPPINE HOTEL INDUSTRY

Rachelle A Soriano, Master in Hotel, Restaurant and Related Institution

INTRODUCTION

Women all over the world have experienced challenges when aiming for leadership positions. The ratio of women is still disproportionate to their male counterparts. This disparities continue to persist due to the traditional gender stereotypes. Stereotyping of the managerial position fosters bias against women in selection, placement, promotion and training decisions. In an ILO (2001) report on women taking senior leadership position has shown a small increased despite the continued participation of women in the workforce. Marginalization of women to power and leadership exist worldwide and the higher the organizational echelon, the more glaring the gender gap (Schein, 2007). In the US they have predicted that it will take 73 years for women to reach full equality in the boardrooms while 65 years for women in the UK (Smith, Capter & Crittenden, 2012b). An obvious reason for the underrepresentation of women is a phenomenon popularly termed as “Glass ceiling”. Glass ceiling, the unseen yet unbreakable barrier keeps women from rising the top corporate ladder (Cotter, Hermens, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2001) Thus, it is important to study women’s position and the effects and implications of glass ceiling to broaden the contribution women can bring into the organization. The implication of marginalizing women to senior leadership position is restricting the organization to attract and retain more potential human capital thus limiting the effectiveness of the organization (Burke and Collins, 2001). Women advancement into positions of power and influence in organizations is essential if women are to achieve equality of opportunity globally (Schein, 2007).

In the Philippines, women have always enjoyed greater equality in the society than in other parts of Southeast Asia (US Library of Congress, 1993). It is not unusual in the Philippines that women hold important positions. Filipinas have been senators, cabinet officers, administrators and heads of major business enterprises. It is only in the annals of the country whereby women became presidents and vice presidents, former presidents Corazon C. Aquino and Gloria Macapagal – Arroyo and vice presidents Gloria Macapagal Arroyo and Leni Robredo. Other women personalities include Senator Miriam Defensor Santiago, former justice secretary Attorney Leila De Lima and the first woman to be named chief executive officer of the largest media conglomerate in the country, Ms. Charo Santos – Concio to name a few. The Philippines is one of the leading countries in the world to promote gender equality. Filipino women were given rights to education, politics, business and religion equal to men, they are respected and empowered (Anonuevo, 2000). Likewise, it is also in a developing country like in the Philippines that women holding managerial positions are more significant compare to other industrialized countries this is because Filipino women have better access to childcare and household assistance because of the extended family systems (ILO, 2001).

Moreover, Philippines was one of the first republics in Asia to grant women’s suffrage and ratified international agreements including Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Violence against Women or CEDAW (ILO, 2015). However, women still are the minorities in the higher echelons of power and influence, this only means that while the principle of gender equality is prevalent in the country, discrimination on women still persist as discriminatory practices is deeply embedded in culture. The lack of opportunity to move up to the top of the hierarchy thus depriving women to earn a salary equal to their position is a form of inequality.

On the other hand, much of the work done in hotels are stereotypically ascribed to women’s work as workforce is dominated by women. In fact the International Labor Office (ILO, 2009) stated that over 200 million people are employed in the hospitality and tourism industry, majority of which are women who comprised the 55.5% of the workforce. Despite of this number in the
workforce, only few women are found in higher managerial positions (Baum, 2013 as cited by Marinakou, 2014). In the Philippine hotel sector, only 3 women namely: Vanessa L. Suatengco of Diamond hotel, Esther Mercaida of Shangrila Boracay and Elvie S. Quaison of Vivere Hotel were able to break the glass ceiling and assumed the roles of general manager - the highest managerial position in a hotel property.

The role of women in the workplace has been globally expanding, because of this every nation has aimed toward the promotion of women to power and influence in managerial ranks. Women’s participation varies due to differences in national culture (Powell, 2012). Today, one of the emerging issues is the aging workforce. Women as a global leader is one of the potential source of talent (Sahoo & Lenka, 2016). Women have been consistently positioned in the lower ranks of management levels and hold positions with less power and authority than men. This situation of women is essentially a reflection of social and economic gender inequality (ILO,2001).

There are many theories which have been used to explain glass ceiling (Kiaye and Singh, 2013). This study will use two theories to explain the situation of women: Marxist feminism is a theory of power and power distribution. It provides account of how social arrangements of disparity can be rational yet unequal (Mckennon, 1982). Cultural variability theory identifies the mental programs developed both in the culture of an individual and as a group. These mental programs contain components of national culture (Hofstede, 2001).

It is therefore important to explore the position of women in the Philippines particularly in the hotel sector not only to prove whether if this glass ceiling still do exist but also to acknowledge the importance of what women can contribute to the betterment of the family, organization and society as a whole.

This study shall look into the underrepresentation of women in leadership, power and influence in selected deluxe hotels in the Philippines particularly in metro manila area; the situation of women in the highest organizational echelon of power, the factors that influence women’s advancement to senior leadership roles, the effects of promoting more women in senior leadership position as well as the implications if more women are promoted to advance to senior leadership position in the hospitality sector in the Philippines.

The study aims to look into the underrepresentation of women in leadership, power and influence in the Philippines.

**REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

According to Lockwood (2004), “Glass ceiling” is a term coined by Hymnowitz and Schellhardt in 1986 Wall Street journal report on women working in an organization. It is a phenomenon that impedes the upward mobility of women to senior managerial positions in corporations, government, education and non-profit organization thus limiting women from earning a salary level proportionate to their positions (Cotter, Hermens, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2001). The term glass ceiling is also use to refer to the artificial barriers that keep minorities from rising to the upper echelon of an organization, women are considered as minorities in top leadership position whether in politics or private enterprise (Boone, Houran & Veller, 2013). Women’s upward mobility in upper leadership is hindered not because they lack qualification but because they are women (Brown, 2010). Evidence that glass ceiling exist in workplace include discrepancies in salary, lack of networking and mentoring and challenges in the work-life balance (Lockwood, 2004).Gender stereotyping is one of the reasons of this phenomenon, since majority of managerial position is often held by men therefore it is typically associated as a masculine position (van Vianen & Fischer, 2002 as cited by Brown, 2010). Patel and Buiting (2013) contended that women are unfit for managerial positions because women respond through their feelings. In fact, women traits such as being emotional and compassionate are considered to be women’s weaknesses thus making them less qualified to managerial positions (Boyce & Herd, 2003 as cited by Brown, 2010). Another reason of glass ceiling is traditional social roles (Brown, 2010) men are ascribed to be the breadwinner and women as homemaker (Underdahl & Woehr, 2014; Sahoo & Lenka, 2016; Ansari, 2016). Brown (2010) argued that even though women are working they are still
expected to be responsible on household duties more than men, this pose as a challenge to the professional responsibility of women a syndrome known as double burden. Women who are confronted by double burden find it difficult to balance between work and household responsibilities (Ho, 2013) that is why many of women according to International Labor Organization (2001) are obliged to work part time to manage their duties at home. Moreover, this double syndrome according to Eviota (1994) can cause physical and mental exhaustion to women thus prevent them from reaching their full potential for contributing to the development of the family hence of the society.

Powell and Butterfield (2015) analyzed the situation of women in management twenty years after they first made an empirical study in 1994 about glass ceiling and found out that the growth of women in senior management positions continues to be very small. ILO (2001) reported similar results as women’s labor participation only increased by 3% from the year 1970 to 2010.

The current gender situation of women in the Philippines proves the gender equality of women in politics, legislation, academic and business. It is only in the annals of the country whereby two women became presidents and vice presidents, former presidents Corazon C. Aquino and Gloria Macapagal – Arroyo and vice presidents Gloria Macapagal Arroyo and Leni Robredo. Other women personalities include Senator Miriam Defensor Santiago, former justice secretary Attorney Leila De Lima and Ms. Charo Santos – Concio the first woman to be named chief executive officer of the largest media conglomerate in the country to name a few. These effective leadership of Filipino women include diplomacy, tact, grace, charm, humility and integrity. Filipina leaders value endurance, understanding and patience, flexibility and collaborative leadership and at the same time firm and task oriented (Roffey, 2002). Zapata (2016) concluded that “women rule in the Philippines and the Philippines rules when it comes to women empowerment”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>59.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>53.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Saint Lucia</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>52.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>47.6</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>2012</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>2009</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Latvia</td>
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<td>Bahamas</td>
<td>2009</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Moldova</td>
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On the other hand, despite government support to enhance and improve women’s employment, the Philippines according to ADB (2013) is still challenged by the issue of unpaid domestic and care burden, lack of education and training programs, government services and limited access to resources. Baum and Chung (2015) claimed that women are underrepresented in top level management positions. Women made up nearly 70% of the workforce in hospitality and tourism sectors but only forty percent 40% hold management positions and less than twenty percent 20% of general management roles. On the otherhand, Women have more advantage in leadership as they adopt a more collaborative and empowering style unlike men who are more aggressive, controlling and competitive (Underdahl & Woehr, 2014). Men and women behave according to societal expectations about their gender roles, women being involve in managing the households and taking care of the children are expected to be more caring and relationship oriented type of leaders (Pounder & Coleman, 2002).
**Theoretical Framework**

The theoretical framework of this study will be based on two theories: the theory of cultural variability by Geert Hofstede and Marxist Feminism by Karl Marx. Marxism will help the researcher to view the reasons for gender inequality and Cultural Variability theory to explain the influences of culture and socialization.

**Marxist feminism.**

Sexuality is to feminism, what work is to Marxism. Work is the social process of shaping and transforming the material and social worlds, creating people as social beings as the create value (Mackinnon, 1982). Marxism originates from the work of Karl Marx, it examines forms of systematic inequalities that lead to the experiences of oppression for marginalized individuals Holmstrom, 2003). Hartmann (1981) argued that marxism is a theory of the development of a classless society. In a system of production in a capitalist society, dominant class exploit the labor power of the oppressed class by paying them less than the value of what they produce.

**Cultural Variability theory**

According to Hofstede (2011) culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others. It is “a system of collectively held values” (Hofstede, 1980, p.24). The term culture is commonly used in anthropology, political science, sociology, and management. Culture can also be applied to genders, generation, and social classes (Hofstede, 2011). Societal cultures is in values while organizational cultures is the way people perceive what goes on in their organizational environment hence, it reside in practices (Hofstede, 2011). Cultural variability theory has six dimensions, three of which will be used in this study namely: Power Distance, Masculinity, and Individualism versus Collectivism.

**METHOD**

The researcher aspires to explore the situation of women in the Philippines particularly in the context of hotel industry using explanatory sequential design. This mixed method design of research involves a two phase project, the first phase will be the collection of quantitative data using survey questionnaire and on the second phase the researcher will collect qualitative data using semi structured interview as methods of gathering data (Creswell, 2014). The researcher will also employ focus group discussion to triangulate the data. The study is explanatory because the initial quantitative data will further explained with qualitative data and also sequential because the initial phase is followed by qualitative phase (Creswell, 2014). Respondents will be randomly selected from level 2 (i.e. Director of Rooms Division, Director of F&B, Director of Sales and Marketing etc.) to level 3 (Front Office Manager, F&B Manager, Human resource manager etc.) managerial position of both men and women. For interview and focus group discussion, respondents will be purposively selected of female hotel managers and those who are no longer working in the industry. Survey questionnaires will be distributed to deluxe hotels which belong to the categories of business, resort and casino hotels. Randomly selected managers will be called to set an appointment. The survey questionnaire is intended to collect the demographic profile of the respondents (e.g. age, marital status, education, family income, current position and years of experience in managerial position) and will be designed to capture the relevant information concerning the cultural dimensions and the factors that impede or promote women advancement. The questionnaire will include an open ended questions concerning the major challenges facing women managers in the Philippines. A semi structured interview and focus group discussion will also be employed to triangulate the result of the questionnaire. The study will be conducted in areas in Metro Manila, Boracay Island and in Cebu specifically in major cities of these areas where there is a high concentration of tourists and business travelers. In Metro Manila these areas are Ayala in Makati City, Ortigas in Pasig City, Roxas Boulevard in Pasay and Alabang in Muntinlupa City. In the island of the famous beach Boracay, there are three stations: station 1, station 2 and station 3. Station 1 is considered to be one of the places of the study because this is where the deluxe hotels are located. Another popular tourist destination in the Philippines is the island of Cebu.
and the researcher chose the municipality of Mactan as one of the areas of study as it is one of the major tourist destination in Cebu.

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INFLUENTIAL FACTORS ON FILIPINO TOURISM EMPLOYEES’ ATTITUDES TOWARD TOURISTS WITH DISABILITIES

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Seohee Chang, Sookmyung Women’s University

INTRODUCTION

Tourism activities are considered important to maintain quality of life (Uysal, Perdue, & Sirgy, 2012). However, tourists with disabilities (TWDs) have been hindered from traveling because of intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints (Kastenholz, Eusebio, & Figueiredo, 2015; Burns, Paterson, & Watson, 2009; Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Loi, & Kong (2015) suggest that one of the biggest constraints that TWDs have is tourism service providers’ attitudes toward TWDs. Interpersonal constraints such as biased attitudes towards TWDs are more serious than structural constraints such as physical access to a destination and its facilities (Grady & Ohlin, 2009). Approximately 15% of the world’s population has sort of disabilities. Despite the increasing number of TWDs, TWDs still experience interpersonal constraints (Kastenholz, Eusebio, & Figueiredo, 2015). It is, therefore, important for tourism service employees to get a better understanding of TWDs in order to reduce interpersonal constraints and increase TWDs’ accessibility. The Philippines is also one of the countries where disabled individuals have been increasing. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) Disability Report (2016) indicated that the number of disabled persons has increased from 942,098 in 2012 to 1,442,586 in 2015 in the Philippines. As one of the country signatories in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), the Philippines must uphold and protect the rights and dignity of persons with disabilities, as well as guarantee that they are able to fully partake in all facets of life. As one of the measures being taken to ensure the rights of non-abled individuals, the Philippines has been promoting accessible tourism which aims for the full integration of TWDs in the tourism and hospitality industries (Department of Tourism, 2011). However, little research regarding employee attitudes toward TWDs has been conducted in the Philippines. Therefore, this study is to investigate influential factors on Filipino tourism employees’ attitudes toward TWDs as interpersonal constraints to reduce interpersonal constraints.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In his 2016 World Tourism Day official remarks, UNWTO Secretary-General has emphasized that all of the world’s citizens have the right to experience and explore the world. Serving both abled and non-abled individuals both fulfills societal responsibility as well as contributes to the tourism industry's economic development. The UN Development Group (2011) reported that 80% of persons with disabilities live in developing countries. From the tourism industry’s point of view, the market potential of the PWD group is clearly promising. However, TWDs still experience some kind of barrier, may it be physical, social and/or attitudinal when participating in leisure activities. It can be added that from the point of view of a tourist who has a disability, attitudes of tourism service providers are deemed to be more significant compared to the accessibility of destination. (Department of Tourism, 2011; Grady & Ohlin, 2009; McKercher et al., 2003; Smith, 1987) Attitudes reflect a tendency to behave stereotypically and predicatively toward a certain group of individuals (Hunt & Hunt, 2000). Addressing unfavorable or negative attitudes toward tourists with disabilities in the industry will significantly contribute to transform the inequalities of the past. Previous related studies show that demographic factors such as age (Mamboleo, 2009; Findler, Vilchinsky, & Werner, 2007), and gender (Hunt & Hunt, 2000; Martin et al., 2005; Findler, Vilchinsky, & Werner, 2007; Hergenrather & Rhodes, 2007; Getachew, 2011) are significantly
correlated with attitudes toward disabilities. Moreover, socio-economic factor such as employment affiliation (Mamboleo, 2009; Hernandez, Keys & Belalcazar, 2000) affects attitudes toward disabilities. Knowledge factors such as trainings (Daruwalla & Darcy, 2005), knowledge on disability law (Hernandez, 2004), and prior contact with disability (Thomas, Doyle & Vaughn, 2003; Choi & Lam, 2001) influence attitude toward disabilities. Results from previous studies clearly show that factors such as age, gender, affiliation, knowledge, training and prior contact are correlated with attitudes toward disability. This study is to further examine whether age, gender, tourism sector affiliation, and years of working experience (moderating variables) would possibly stimulate the relationship between knowledge, training, prior contact (independent variables) and attitudes toward tourists with disabilities (dependent variable).

**METHOD**

The study sample is employees who currently work in different tourism sectors in the Philippines. Convenience sampling will be utilized to collect information from a sample of 385 Filipino tourism employees working in Manila, Philippines. Data such as age, gender, tourism sector affiliation, years of experience (moderating variables), knowledge, training and prior contact (independent variables) will be collected. The research instrument to use for measuring attitude toward disability is the Multidimensional Attitudes Scale (MAS) developed by Findler, Vilchinsky, & Werner (2007). The MAS scale construction is self-completed, with 3 subscales, 34 total items, 5-point Likert scale response (1: Not at all, 3: Neutral, 5: Very much) (Palad et al., 2016). Unfavorable or negative attitudes are represented by higher scores on the MAS. On the other hand, favorable or positive attitudes are represented by lower scores on the MAS. The first part of the questionnaire show is the MAS and the second part is for the demographic and socio-economic profile of the target respondents. Answering the survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes. Data gathered and the relationship of different variables will then be analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

**IMPLICATIONS**

The findings of this research is to contribute to the literature on the study of attitudes towards disability in the tourism industry. Furthermore, this study is to provide insights into the general attitude of Filipino tourism employees and the factors influencing their attitudes towards TWDs. This study is expected to raise the awareness and understanding of attitudes towards TWDs through the data gathered and research results. In addition, the results are to serve as vital information in order to further improve tourism services through appropriate training and effective policies towards TWDs. Finally, this study is to also be used as a reference for further research of influencing factors and attitudes towards TWDs in tourism.

**SELECTED REFERENCES**


REFERENCE PRICE AND ITS ASYMMETRIC EFFECTS ON PRICE EVALUATIONS: THE MODERATING ROLE OF AN INDIVIDUAL’S PSYCHOLOGICAL STATE

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ABSTRACT

Empirical research shows that tourists form price evaluations by comparing the actual price of service to a reference price. The relative use of an internal reference price (IRP) versus an external reference price (ERP) becomes an important issue in the travel and lodging contexts as the increased promotional activity by destinations and hotels is likely to be based on price-comparison advertisements. To that end, the current research examines the effect of an individual’s psychological state, namely one’s sense of power, on the use of IRP and ERP in price evaluations.

INTRODUCTION

For several decades, the issue of how individuals evaluate and perceive prices has received greater attention by tourism and hospitality researchers due to the popularity of dynamic pricing in the travel and lodging industry (Viglia et al., 2016). A reference price plays an important role in price evaluations and buying intentions (Mazumdar & Papatla, 2000). The reference price can be conceptualized as the standard price against which one judges the actual price (Monroe, 1973). In general, there is a consensus that there are two different types of reference prices: an internal reference price (IRP) and an external reference price (ERP) (Briesch et al., 1997). An IRP refers to one’s stored memory of the price information based on past purchase occasions, while an ERP refers to the competing brands’ price information encountered at the time of purchase (Chen, 2009).

Based on this reference price categorization, previous research investigates the relative use of IRP and ERP in various product categories. In addition, past research suggests that consumer characteristics influence the relative use of IRP and ERP (Mazumdar & Papatla, 2000). This indicates that the relative use of IRP or ERP might depend on personality traits and the psychological states of consumers (Lee, 2013). In the travel and lodging context, however, the impact of one’s psychological states on the relationship between reference prices and customer evaluations has received scant attention.

In an attempt to address this gap, the current research examines the effect of an individual’s psychological state, namely one’s sense of power, on customers’ evaluations of two types of reference prices. Past research suggests that external cues and information (even if such information is salient) are less likely to affect an individual with a high sense of power who is more sensitive to his/her own subjective experience and knowledge (Galinsky et al., 2008). Although recalling previously encountered prices is difficult due to the dynamic pricing practice, the state of powerfullness has been shown to increase one’s ability to recall and recognize desired information from one’s memory (Guinote, 2015). On the other hand, an individual with a low sense of power is likely to depend on others during the decision-making process (Rucker et al., 2011). Galinsky et al. (2008) show that powerless individuals tend to express their thoughts, which are influenced by external information and cues. In sum, the current study hypothesizes that powerful consumers are more likely to use IRP than ERP while powerless consumers are more likely to use ERP than IRP.

Hypothesis 1: The effect of IRP (vs. ERP) on consumers’ price evaluations is greater for individuals with a high sense of power.

Hypothesis 2: The effect of ERP (vs. IRP) on consumers’ price evaluations is greater for individuals with a low sense of power.
METHOD

To test H1 and H2, we employed a 2 (power: high vs. low) \times 2 (reference price: IRP vs. ERP) \times 2 (price level: high vs. low) between-subjects experimental design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the eight conditions. The target population was individuals who had booked and stayed hotels in the past. A total of 252 adult consumers were recruited from an online panel. In terms of demographics, 46.4% of participants were men; 41.3% were 20 to 29 years old, 35.3% were 30 to 39 years old, 7.9% were 40 to 49 years old, and 13.5% were older than 50 years. Caucasians dominated the ethnicity of the sample (79%).

Participants were first asked to complete an episodic recall task designed to manipulate their sense of power. Adopted from Galinsky, Gruendfeld and Magee (2003), we manipulated power by asking participants to recall a situation in which they either possessed power over someone else (high-power condition), or in which someone else possessed power over them (low-power condition). After these power manipulation tasks, participants were asked to read a hotel-booking scenario.

Compared to the frequently purchased goods, lodging services tend to have fluctuating prices (i.e., price instability) and the longer inter-purchase time (Mazumdar & Papatla, 2000). To reflect the nature of price instability, we manipulated IRP by showing participants past prices of the target hotel. Specifically, they saw three different room rates in a random sequence. Next, participants were exposed to a ten-minute filler task reflecting the longer inter-purchase time of lodging services. Finally, the current rate of $250 was provided in accordance with actual market prices (Choi & Mattila, 2014). For an ERP manipulation, adopted from past reference price research (Chen, 2009), participants were simultaneously exposed to three different competitors’ rates and the current rate of the target hotel ($250).

Adopted from prior studies (Haws & Bearden, 2006), two reference price levels were manipulated: a 20% higher and a 20% lower than the current rate of $250. For the 20% higher condition, price levels were manipulated as a decrement and an increment of 6% (Niedrich et al., 2001) from $300, resulting three rates of $282, $300, and $318 (mean = $300). Likewise, the 20% lower condition was manipulated as $188, $200, and $212 (mean = $200). Our dependent variable, price judgment, was measured. Adopted from Ofir et al. (2008), participants were asked to rate the current rate of the target hotel (i.e., $250) with two items on seven-point, bipolar scale anchored by “very high – very low” and “expensive – cheap” (r = .96, p < .01).

FINDINGS

For participants with a high-power state, the results revealed a significant interaction effect of reference price and price level on price judgment (F = 4.81, p < .05). A simple effects test further showed that IRP significantly influenced price judgments (MLow = 4.43 vs. MHigh = 1.73; F = 49.65, p < .01; see Figure 1). In addition, the results revealed that ERP (i.e., competing brands’ prices) also influenced the price judgment (MLow = 3.44 vs. MHigh = 1.87; F = 19.99, p < .01; see Figure 1). These results show a greater difference between the higher and lower price conditions in price judgment when the reference price was IRP (F = 49.65, p < .01) rather than ERP (F = 19.99, p < .01). Although both IRP and ERP influenced individuals with a high sense of power, they were more affected by IRP than ERP. Taken together, these results support H1.

For participants with a low-power state, the interaction effect of reference price and price level on price judgment was significant (F = 15.80, p < .01). A simple effects test further showed that for those in ERP condition, price judgment was significantly higher in the lower price level condition compared the higher price level condition (MLow = 4.26 vs. MHigh = 1.78; F = 40.74, p < .01). However, no significant differences in price judgment were detected among participants in the IRP condition (MLow = 2.98 vs. MHigh = 2.51; F = 1.58, p > .05). These results indicate that compared to the effect of IRP, that of ERP is greater for individuals with a low sense of power. Taken together, H2 was supported (see Figure 1).
IMPLICATIONS

By examining customers’ asymmetric responses to reference prices, the current research delivers an important message to hospitality and tourism practitioners. When aiming at target customers with relatively low power, a hotel or a travel agency might want to highlight the special treatment or promotion that they are receiving in relation to other firms. For example, the claim “sold by other hotels at $250, our rate is $220” might be a clever strategy when dealing with low power customers. By contrast, when marketing to high-power customers, a practitioner should stimulate demand by highlighting a price that compares favorably with past prices such as “was $250 but now $220” claim. From a managerial perspective, however, one tricky question is how practitioners can identify their customers’ state of power (Jin et al., 2014). A number of prior studies (e.g., Magee & Galinsky, 2008) have shown that the state of power and socio-economic status are highly correlated in that powerful people usually have a high socio-economic status while powerless people tend to have a low socio-economic status. Therefore, information on an individual’s socio-economic status (e.g., income, zip code) can be used as a proxy for power.

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THE EFFECTS OF COMPLAINT TENDENCY ON SERVICE RECOVERY EFForts

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INTRODUCTION

Given the negative impacts of service failures on customers’ dining experiences, examining effective service-recovery strategies and exploring various factors affecting the service-recovery process have been recognized as essential processes to maintaining or enhancing the business performance of restaurants. However, the standard determining whether an incident qualifies a service failure really depends on customers’ perspectives and/or characteristics, and due to the erratic nature of service failures, service providers have difficulty trying to predict them and offer appropriate service-recovery actions (e.g., Bitner et al., 1990; Hoffman et al., 1995; Tsai & Su, 2009). In addition, customers’ responses to a service-recovery process are significantly influenced by situational factors and/or interactional factors (i.e., Tsarenko & Tojib, 2011; Vazquez-Caselles et al., 2012). For this reason, extending service-recovery strategies by considering various situations and customer characteristics has been required to develop appropriate service-recovery strategies.

Since compensation is one of the core factors affecting customers’ evaluation of a service-recovery process, previous studies have employed compensation as a fundamental service-recovery strategy (e.g., Huang & Lin, 2011; Kim & Ulgado, 2012; Matilla, 2001; Okimoto, 2008). These studies have manipulated compensation conditions by the existence of compensation, the types of compensation (i.e., utilitarian compensation [a price reduction] or hedonic-type compensation [e.g., a free gift]), or the speed of compensation (i.e., on-the-spot compensation versus delayed compensation). Though the studies have found significant results with respect to customers’ responses to compensation, more studies employing various types of differing compensation are still needed to develop more efficacious service-recovery strategies. In particular, monetary compensation (i.e., price discounts or coupons for future purchases) is a service-recovery action which is directly associated with financial management in restaurants. For that reason, this study employed the timing of compensation and the frequency of compensation as factors in its scenario.

As a form of emotional compensation, apology is a fundamental service and an essential process when service failures occur. Since types of apology and magnitudes of apology vary, the effects of apology on post-recovery satisfaction vary depending on individualized situations. Appropriate apologies are significantly effective beyond any other recovery strategies in a certain type of service failure, while an improper apology often leads to unexpected outcomes such as customers’ further dissatisfaction. Despite the complicated nature of apologies and the importance of their role in the service-recovery process, few studies have shed light on this topic. For this reason, this study employed two different apology types (i.e., logic-based messages and emotion-based messages). These apologies are based on the concept of the ELM (i.e., the Elaboration Likelihood Model), which has been widely employed to examine attitude changes through persuasion, particularly the persuasion of consumers by messages (e.g., Chebat et al., 2001).

Furthermore, employee empowerment has also been noted as a factor in the service-recovery scenario. Though employee empowerment has been recognized as a significant factor both in customer and employee satisfaction, few studies have explored employee empowerment in the service-recovery process. Since employee empowerment does play a role in improving interactions with customers, and specifically in improving the speed of a service recovery (e.g., Boshoff & Leong, 1998; Hocutt & Stone, 1998), it is essential to identify the effects of employee
empowerment on SRSs (service-recovery strategies) for a given service failure.

As customer-characteristic factors, tendency to complain and number of visits were used to examine their effects on the relationship between SRSs and customers’ responses. Tendency to complain is a significant factor in categorizing types of complainers (Bodey & Grace, 2006; Richins, 1983). Given the categorization of complainers, this study assumed that customers’ responses to SRSs may differ according to customers’ interaction styles (i.e., active versus passive complainers) based on tendency to complain.

This study aims to examine the effectiveness of three service-recovery strategies (i.e., compensation, apology, and employee empowerment) on the three dimensions of fairness, recovery satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. In addition, customer characteristics based tendency to complain was also employed to achieve another purpose of the study, examining customers’ responses to service-recovery strategies according to customer characteristics. This study is expected to update service-recovery strategies by employing additional types of compensation, including timing and frequency of compensation, and by employing types of messages in apology. Consequently, these results might be expected to provide practitioners with guidelines to enhance customer recovery satisfaction by offering ever more appropriate service-recovery actions. In addition, this study is anticipated to identify differing customers’ responses to service-recovery strategies according to their unique customer characteristics based on tendency to complain, and doing so is also expected to give insight on customer-complaining behaviors during the service-recovery process.

**RESEARCH METHOD**

**Research Design**

A 4 (timing of compensation [at the point of incident or at the point of checkout]) x 2 (messages in apology [logic-based or cue-based apology based on the ELM perspective]) x 2 (employee empowerment [with or without employee empowerment]) between-subject design was mainly employed to examine the effectiveness of service-recovery strategies on three dimensions of fairness and recovery satisfaction.

**Written Scenario**

Given the 4x2x2 factorial research design, 16 scenarios including a service failure and service-recovery effort were developed. Wirtz and Mattila’s (2004) study was mainly used to create service failure situation after modification based on the results of the pre-test, the most serious service failure is foreign items in food (m = 6.37 on of a 7-point Likert-scale).

For the service-recovery scenarios, sixteen types of scenarios were developed. In particular, given the first two factors—timing of compensation and frequency of compensation—the manipulated compensation conditions were created. For the apology conditions, scenario contents were manipulated based on the Elaboration Likelihood Model perspective. The apology condition was divided into two conditions, a logic-based apology and cue-based apology. The logic-based apology included contents regarding justification of the service failure with a detailed explanation, while the cue-based apology included contents regarding expressing remorse and promising future good deeds in line with Ohbuchi and Kameda’s (1989) study and Galitsky et al.’s (2011). For the employee-empowerment conditions, the scenario contents were adapted from Boshoff and Leong’s (1998) study and were partially modified due to the different service-failure situations. Given the service-failure scenario and the three factors consisting of service-recovery actions, sixteen scenarios were developed and were employed to examine customers’ responses to service-recovery actions after the service-failure.

**Instrument**

The questions used in this study were established after a review of previous studies. Regarding independent variables, most questions were created by the experimental design, and items for measuring tendency to complain (i.e., assertiveness and aggressiveness scales) were adapted from Richins’s (1983) study. In addition, regarding dependent variables, items of perceived fairness were adapted from Blodgett et al.’s
(1997), Ok’s (2004), and Smith et al.’s (1999) studies, and items of recovery satisfaction, intention to revisit, and intention to recommend were adapted from Ok’s (2004), and Maxham and Netemeyer’s (2002) studies.

Sample
A total of 1,067 data were finally collected with sixteen types of questionnaires. The collected data were screened by listwise deletion based on incomplete responses, univariate outliers based on 3.29 standard deviation, and multivariate outliers based on Mahalanobis distance. Finally, 774 data were used to conduct the data analysis with SPSS 21.0.

Note: a = 50% price discount at the point of incident, b = 50% price discount at the point of checkout, c = Offering 25% value of complimentary at the point of incident + 25% price discount at the point of checkout, d = Informing of 25% price discount at the point of incident + offering 25% coupon at the point of checkout. EE = with employee empowerment, NEE = without employee empowerment.

Figure 1. Sixteen conditions used in this study

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DEVELOPING OF UMBRELLA ROCKS OF AGNO, PANGASINAN AS A TOURIST SPOT: IMPLICATION TO ITS LOCALS AND LOCAL GOVERNANCE

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INTRODUCTION

The Philippines, an archipelagic country is known for its majestic natural resources and world-class tourist attractions and destinations. El Nido in Palawan, Boracay in Aklan, beaches in Siargao, among others, are wonders in which the Philippines can truly be proud. Meanwhile, there are still other natural resources that deserve attention both from the National and Local Governments of the Philippines.

Under the law, the Local Government Unit is vested with the autonomy to develop its tourism for its economy taking into consideration the declared national policy on tourism.

The research proponents find it significant to use this participatory governance principle in assessing one of the potential tourist spots in the North of the Philippines- Umbrella Rocks in Agno Pangasinan.

The researchers believe that the said Local Government of Pangasinan is still working on the development of the subject of the current undertaking which is to evolve the place, at the same time preserve its beauty with the help of the locals and other stakeholders.

It is significant to note that the Umbrella Rocks have been showing indications of its potentialities as a tourist destination in Pangasinan. Given the utmost attention and considering the financial resources of the Local Government Unit, there is no reason why the beauty of Umbrella Rocks cannot be maximized to attract more tourists, and eventually, help the improvement of the socio-economic standings of the Local Government Unit concerned.

Meanwhile, it is important to know that the large formations are called Umbrella Rocks because they look like huge umbrellas they appear to be mushroom-like to other people. These masterpieces made by unremitting waves against the shore through time make the beachside more attractive.

The researchers, being advocates of tourism development are aware on the necessity of improving the life standards of the other members of the community through the refinement of the available resources. The development of Umbrella Rocks in Agno Pangasinan and the influx of tourists of various ecotourism destinations of the said province have corresponding obligations in conserving and protecting the natural resources concerned. The researchers are aware on the important role of the Local Government Unit towards this end, hence, a concrete policy for the development of the subject is likewise necessary.

Through this scholarly paper, the researchers wish to comprehend the viability of efforts of the Local Government Unit in developing Umbrella Rocks in Agno Pangasinan as a major tourist destination of the Northern part of the Philippines.

Theoretical Framework

![Theoretical Framework Diagram]

- Rejuvenation
- Stagnation
- Consolidation
- Decline
- Exploration
- Involve
- Development
- Time
- Number of Tourists
For the theoretical framework, the researchers used the Tourism Life Cycle Model of R.R. Butler. The model shows the Tourism Life Cycle from Exploration up to Rejuvenation and to decline. The Local government units of Agno, Pangasinan is in the process of developing the Umbrella Rock Formations which are the main attraction of Agno, Pangasinan. Looking at the figure presented, the Umbrella Rocks are in the third stage in Butler’s Tourism life cycle.

**Conceptual Framework**

In the development of Umbrella Rock in Agno, Pangasinan, there are three (3) variables to consider. First is the Economic impact to the local government unit, the socio-cultural impact and the environmental impact. The Development Program of Umbrella rocks will be measured according to the variables. The local government unit of Agno Pangasinan is in the middle of the framework because it bridges the variable to the Development program. It is responsible to the implementation of the development program. The variables will be evaluated based on the program.

**METHOD**

This study seeks to find out how the Local Government Unit of Agno, Pangasinan is meeting the different challenges in developing Umbrella Rocks as a tourist spot.

A mixed quantitative and qualitative approach was used to establish the validity and credibility of the results. The self-made questionnaire was prepared and piloted to at least ten locals of Pangasinan. Cronbach’s alpha was utilized to determine the internal consistencies of the instrument and as a mean of reliability testing. After passing at .98 level, the instrument was randomly administered to the locals of Agno in Pangasinan, Philippines. A structured interview was likewise prepared by the researchers to see to it that the officials included in the study understand the direction of the current undertaking.

The researchers collate the responses of the respondents and translate it into a Tabular presentation using percentage and weighted mean as statistical treatment of the data. The quantifiable data corroborates with the many literature and studies in addition to the results of the conducted interviews.

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The researchers sought to determine the assessment of the respondents on the impacts which the development of Umbrella Rocks may bring to the locals and the local government of Agno, Pangasinan, to wit:

1. Economic Impact
2. Environmental Impact
3. Socio-Cultural Impact

**FINDINGS**

Most of the respondents agree that the Umbrella Rocks produce a great impact on the
locals and Local Government Unit of Agno, Pangasinan as it obtained the Total Mean Score of 3.03 from the respondents. A perusal of the data, however, would reveal that respondents agree on the benefits of the Umbrella Rocks on the lives of the people in Pangasinan as it obtained the highest weighted mean of 3.23. They also agree on the economic benefit that the Umbrella Rocks can give to the small groups, as it received the highest weighted mean of 3.08, verbally interpreted as Agree.

The economic aspect of the development of Umbrella Rocks in Agno, Pangasinan, Philippines is the most significant implication among the criteria as it obtained the highest weighted mean of 2.82, with a verbal interpretation of Agree.

CONCLUSIONS

The researchers have drawn the following conclusions based on the findings:

1. The initiatives of the Local Government Unit of Agno Pangasinan, Philippines in developing Umbrella Rocks produce a positive implication on all the determinants included based on the assessment of the respondents.

2. The economic aspect is the most significant factor in the development of Umbrella Rocks as a tourist spot in Agno Pangasinan, Philippines.

3. The Local Government Unit of Pangasinan, Philippines could play a vital role in promoting Umbrella Rocks as a tourist spot. This is viable because of the positive view of the respondents on its initiatives.

4. The locals of Agno, Pangasinan play a significant role in the enhancement of the Umbrella Rock Formations.

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HOW TO ENGAGE JOB SEEKERS IN HOTELS’ FACEBOOK CAREER SITES

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INTRODUCTION

The use of social media has grown continually and become a major communication tool, especially for young Americans (Luchman, Bergstrom, & Krulikowski, 2014). According to the Pew Research Center (2016), Facebook continues to be the most popular social media site in the United States. The number of American Facebook users in 2016 was 191.3 million and this number is expected to reach 211.7 million in 2021 (Statista, 2016). Growing numbers of Facebook users are active and stable, meaning that companies have the opportunity to engage these people on Facebook. Young American adults between 18 and 29 years old are the major users of Facebook (Pew Research Center, 2017). In other words, the 18 to 29 age group is the main target demographic for businesses’ online recruitment efforts. According to Pring (2012), 30 billion posts are shared on Facebook monthly. In addition, 510,000 posted comments, 293,000 status updates, and 136,000 uploaded photos appear per minute on Facebook (Pring, 2012). Thus, there are not only many engaged users, but also a lot of information competition for their interest and attention. Since social media have significantly affected most of our daily lives and changed the way humans interact, job seekers use their social media profile to connect with recruiters, and companies utilize social media for recruitment purposes (Madera, 2012).

The hospitality industry has realized the importance of using social media as a recruitment tool (Ladkin & Buhalis, 2016). Technology adoption in human resource management is the future trend (El Ouiirdi et al., 2016; Stone et al., 2015). To recruit job candidates, especially tech-savvy young adults such as Generation Y and Millennials, human resource management must understand that these candidates prefer to search information online and obtain information interactively from social media platforms (Barron, 2008; Bolton et al., 2013; Cho, Park, & Ordonez, 2013). Therefore, Facebook has become the most widely used social media site for hotels to find and recruit potential employees (Gibbs, MacDonald, & MacKay, 2015). Facebook career sites have been adopted by hotels to provide job information and promote the corporate image. To improve the effectiveness of social media recruitment, hotels can post and update information, articles, links, advertisements, images, videos, and quizzes on their Facebook career sites to interact with online users and attract more users to navigate the site.

Although hotels understand the significance of using Facebook for recruitment purposes, the key concern is how to operate their Facebook career sites effectively and efficiently to enhance e-recruitment outcomes. For instance, Marriott’s Facebook career site has more than 1,173,000 users who like and follow the page. However, only 900 users talk about Marriott’s posts by liking, commenting, or sharing in a seven-day period. On the other hand, Hilton has 801 direct interactions with the page with only around 39,400 users. In other words, less than 0.01 % of users are actively engaged with Marriott Facebook Career Site while over 2% of Hilton Facebook Career site users are actively engaged.

It is important to engage users to keep the number of interactions up because more followers and interactions can improve hotels’ recruitment efforts. In addition, a positive relationship between user engagement and behavioral intention/actual behavior (Dessart, Veloutsou, & Morgan-Thomas, 2015; Gironda & Korgaonkar, 2014; Lim et al., 2015) has been found in the online environment. Hence, hotels should be aware of this and ensure that online users are loyal and immerse themselves in the Facebook career sites. In doing this, they can ultimately engage more job candidates to apply for a job instead of only observing the information on the sites. For example, hotels must determine what type of post/content (e.g., message, information, video, photo) attracts job seekers’ interest and attention and involves them in liking.
sharing, and commenting. Understanding users’ needs, wants, and preferences is necessary because the more user-oriented the posts, the more user engagement, which in turn forms users’ image of the hotel and affects their behavioral intention, such as applying for a job to work at the hotel.

Given the prior studies in social media recruitment, it is surprising that no research has examined this issue in human resource management and the hospitality industry. To be more specific, how to effectively engage job seekers in the Facebook career site remains a key issue. Most research in social media and recruitment has centered on using social media to improve organizational performance (Paniagua & Sapena, 2014; Parveen, Jaafar, & Ainin, 2015) or screen and select job applicants (Chang & Madera, 2012; Gibbs et al., 2015). Thus, the purpose of this study was to identify factors influencing Facebook career site engagement and use among hotel job seekers (i.e., young Americans). Specifically, this study aimed to strengthen the use of and engagement in hotels’ Facebook career sites by investigating users’ perception of posts.

METHOD

Many companies, including hotels, have started utilizing social media to recruit and select job applicants. We chose Facebook because Facebook is the most popular social media platform for such recruitment efforts. To select hotels’ Facebook career sites, we asked 92 undergraduate students enrolled in a hospitality management program to indicate the top five hotels for which they would like to work after graduation. We then chose the top five hotel companies most mentioned by the students: Marriott, Hilton, Hyatt, IHG, and Starwood. To understand the perception of posts from job seekers, we recruited participants from undergraduate students enrolled in hospitality courses at a four-year college in the Midwest. Most students were seniors actively looking for a job. The participants were given an assignment to subscribe to a hotel’s Facebook career site for four weeks. The subscription involved receiving posts, reading the posts, and participating in activities promoted through the Facebook career site. Participants were randomly assigned to one of five hotels’ Facebook career sites. To ensure the participants actively engaged on the assigned sites, they were asked to write a weekly journal about posts they saw during the week and a final report. In the weekly journal, they were requested to calculate the types of posts and the number of likes, shares, and comments and to discuss the posts they liked most and why, as well as the posts they disliked most and why. In the final report, they were asked to discuss the types of posts (referring to their weekly posts), the posts they liked most and why, the posts they disliked most and why, any posts that changed their mind about the hotel chain as an employer, and their overall assessment of the hotel chain as an employer in relation to its Facebook career site.

This study adopted content analysis to research participants’ engagement in the five hotels’ Facebook career sites. Content analysis is an observational research method employed to examine various forms of media with verbal or visual content (i.e., human communication such as photos, videos, audios, and written documents); it is widely used to extract and contrast quantitative and qualitative information (Berg, 2009; Camprubí & Coromina, 2016; Kolbe & Burnett, 1991). It provides an objective and systematic description of the content of communication and helps to explain research questions, make valid inferences, and attain certain conclusions and implications (Krippendorff, 2004; Vitouladiti, 2014).

FINDINGS

Examination of the context of the weekly journal and the final report written by undergraduate students can shed light on their preferences (i.e., what types of posts are popular and acceptable), help to develop categories of posts they like or dislike most, identify patterns in their engagement (e.g., what types of posts have the most likes, shares, and comments), and draw inferences for hotels to improve the operation of Facebook career sites by examining textual data and identifying characteristics of messages.

IMPLICATIONS and CONCLUSION

This study will contribute to a better understanding of job seekers’ perception and
evaluation of posts on hotels’ Facebook career sites. From a practical standpoint, this study will add to existing knowledge by identifying key characteristics/factors of posts that increase user engagement and the behavioral patterns/preferences of college students (i.e., potential hotel job seekers). The findings of this study can serve as a reference for hotel human resource managers who hope to improve the operation of their Facebook career sites, which in turn can enhance social media recruitment outcomes.

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SATISFACTION LEVEL OF LYCEUM OF THE PHILIPPINES UNIVERSITY—LAGUNA INTERNATIONAL CRUISE PARTICIPANTS: BASIS FOR ACTION PLAN DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

The Asian Cruise industry is one of the featured as the new arising market in the Cruise industry. Now, the Asian Cruise has only 5% total cruise market share to offer but the Asian Cruise Market has seen great possibilities as a new market that can nourish the cruise industry. (Yi, et al, 2011). This will determine the Threats, Opportunities, Weaknesses and Strengths (TOWS) in order to develop the Asian Cruise Tour for the next years and to make it more enjoyable for the students who will participate in the future.

METHOD

Descriptive research was used and a self-made questionnaire was utilized. The study was composed of the total population which is consists of 47 respondents. This study has no sampling method since all of the participants of the said tour were included and we will be given a survey questionnaire. The respondents were the Tourism and Hospitality students of Lyceum of the Philippines-Laguna (AY 2014-2015). Moreover, percentage and chi-square were used to determine the relationship between the demographic profile of the respondents and their satisfaction level.

FINDINGS and CONCLUSIONS

The CITHM department may check for the new trends, different destinations that have many tourist attractions and consider the needs and wants of the students before conducting school tours. Proposed measures may review for proper recommendation in implementation of Asian Cruise Tour Program. Future researchers may conduct same research with new variables.

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PERCEIVED LEARNING IN INTERNATIONAL CRUISE:
BASIS FOR PROGRAM ENHANCEMENT

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ABSTRACT

Educational trip contributes as one of the strong foundations of a student’s knowledge through experiences that expose students to an actual situation that relates with their chosen field that provides as opportunity for students to gain cognitive, affective and psychomotor skills for greater learning. This study aims to achieve the following objectives: to identify the perceived learning of Asian Cruise participants to cruise educational trip in terms of cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects; to determine significant relationship of demographic profile and perceived learning outcomes; and to propose an action plan for the improvement of International cruise. This research study used descriptive method and subjected to statistical treatment weighted mean. This study shows that composite mean of cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects has same interpretation which means that majority of the responses agree on the given statement outcomes. Most of the results that have significant relationship between demographic profile and aspects were the outcomes related to culinary. Therefore, the researchers recommend to have a seminar about culinary on-board to help the students gain more knowledge.

Keywords: Educational Trip, Asian Cruise, CITHM

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of education is to develop the knowledge, skill or character of students. Thus, the education is the process of learning and knowing, which is not restricted to our school or textbooks. Education is very important for an individual life. Education is a major aspect of development of any modern society. The importance of education is evident at every stage of education whether at primary, secondary, high secondary and in higher education. Universities are the main institutions that provide higher education.

Mary (2009) describes that higher education is said to produce that essential balance between theory and real practice in any given field. Higher education is viewed as a source of great potential for the socio-economic and cultural development of the country. Therefore, they not only required quality education but also effective and latest means of learning to have a better knowledge and have a command on what they are studying presently so they will able to also apply that knowledge in their future lives. Educational fieldtrip was one of the special activities which provide knowledge to the students by giving opportunity for self-experiences and observations and long-lasting learning.

The educational trip in Tourism and Hospitality education is useful educational tool for transforming and learning experience. This may have enhanced student’s learning and increased their practical knowledge with actual work experience through educational quality of field trip is determined by its structure, learning materials, and teaching method, and the ability to direct learning a concrete interaction with the environment (Do, 2008).

Lyceum of the Philippines University Laguna, with its desire to produce professional individuals, especially from the College of International Tourism and Hospitality Management (CITHM), offers non-mandatory educational cruise tour which is open to all programs and all year levels. The researchers would like to undertake this study to assess the learning’s acquired by the students as basis for program or the educational cruise tour enhancement. Specifically, this study aimed to determine if the university is giving students an appropriate cruise educational tour that will enhance the knowledge and skills they need in the real hospitality industry. Identifying the student’s
perception of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor aspects will be taken into consideration and analysis. The researchers believe that this study will be beneficial to students who will be part of the future International Cruise. This study will also help the CITHM International Cruise coordinator in improving the program.

**Objectives of the Study**

The objectives of this study are to present the demographic profile of the respondents in terms of age and program to identify the perceived learning of Asian Cruise participants to cruise educational trip in terms of cognitive aspects, affective aspects and psychomotor aspects. To determine the significant relationship of demographic and perceived learning outcomes. The researchers shall propose an action plan for the improvement of International Cruise.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Research Design**

The descriptive method of research was used for this study. According to Salaria (2012), descriptive research is devoted to the gathering of information about prevailing conditions or situations for the purpose of description and interpretation. The researchers prepared questionnaires that were used to gather the data needed in the study. This research also used quantitative research method to gather essential information to achieve our main objectives. All data gathered from questioners were subjected to established treatment and tools such as weighted mean.

**Participants of the Study**

The respondents were students who joined the first and second batch of Asian Cruise. The participants of the study were composed of 95 students from 1st to 4th year CITHM. The total population was used as the participants of the study.

**Data Gathering Tool**

This research used a survey questionnaire which is based on students Course Intended Learning Outcomes (CILOS) of five courses which suggest an ocular visit and Asian Cruise which is non mandatory. These courses are Principles of Production, Hotel Management, World Tourism, Basic Safety Security and Crowd Control and Cruise Line Geography and Cultural Diversity. Statement from CILOS was modified by the researchers in relation to the objectives of the study. The survey questionnaire is composed of two parts. Part I is the demographic profile which describes the respondent’s age and program. Part II is about the learnings acquired by the students from International Cruise. In this questionnaire, a number of choices were provided for every statement. The choices represented the degree of agreement each respondent had on the given statements.

**Data Gathering Procedure**

This study was conducted in order to determine the Learnings Acquired by the students in Educational Trip which will be used as a basis for program enhancement. To be able to gather the necessary data, the researchers utilized the quantitative method. The researchers compared each checklist of all CITHM programs which are CLOHS/ CLOCA, CAKO, HRA and Tourism. After comparing, the researchers gathered the same course of each program related to Cruise Educational Trip. The researchers asked for the syllabi of each course to find the cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspects which will be used for our survey questionnaire.

**Ethical Consideration**

The following ethical guidelines were put into place for the research period:

1. The standing and the state of the students who will be involved will be protected at all time.

2. The research data remained confidential throughout the study and the researchers acquired the student’s authorization to use their real names in the research report (Sugarman, 2008).
Results and Discussion

Table 1. Relationship of Program and Cognitive Aspect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pearson Chi-square Value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can identify the continents, oceans and seas of the world.</td>
<td>4.360*</td>
<td>.628</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can distinguish the cruise.</td>
<td>15.092*</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can explain the function of excursion desk on board.</td>
<td>13.703*</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can analyze the cultural differences that abound in each cruising region.</td>
<td>11.309*</td>
<td>.255</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can identify the principles and techniques in food preparation and cooking</td>
<td>13.138*</td>
<td>.156</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can identify the different parts, cuts and market forms of basic food according to standard quality.</td>
<td>2.558*</td>
<td>.862</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can identify/prepare different types of cuisine.</td>
<td>3.175*</td>
<td>.957</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I can discuss organizational structure and factors to determine span of control.</td>
<td>7.398*</td>
<td>.596</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can explain the personal survival techniques.</td>
<td>3.380*</td>
<td>.760</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can evaluate safety procedures of passengers.</td>
<td>5.736*</td>
<td>.453</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: p-value (Asymp. Sig) is < .05 = significant relationship, p-value (Asymp. Sig) is > .05 = no significant relationship

Table 1. shows that there is no significant relationship on the second demographic profile which is program to Cognitive aspect. The outcomes in each statement above tell that the student program is not related for them to gain knowledge in terms of cognitive outcomes when they joined International Cruise. All of the interpretation in the relationship of program to cognitive aspect is Not Significant.

Table 2. Relationship of Program and Affective Aspect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pearson Chi-square Value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can recognize the importance of principle on preparation, cooling and presentation of dishes as foundation in culinary arts.</td>
<td>17.140*</td>
<td>.047</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can understand the different cultures and ethnicity of various countries.</td>
<td>14.138*</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can appreciate the attractions in different ports of call.</td>
<td>12.435*</td>
<td>.190</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can consider the possibilities of visiting different countries.</td>
<td>7.028*</td>
<td>.634</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can appreciate the value of team work in achieving organizational</td>
<td>7.744*</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can appreciate the role of shipping as an industry.</td>
<td>6.347*</td>
<td>.705</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can value the importance of safety and security protocols onboard ships.</td>
<td>9.065*</td>
<td>.431</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I can conformed to shipboard procedures and policies.</td>
<td>10.825*</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can appreciate the role and responsibilities of seafarers.</td>
<td>25.146*</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can value the importance of human relations onboard.</td>
<td>9.553*</td>
<td>.338</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: p-value (Asymp. Sig) is < .05 = significant relationship, p-value (Asymp. Sig) is > .05 = no significant relationship
Table 2. on the previous page shows the relationship between program and affective factor in which Statements 1, 2, and 9 have the result of Significant. It tells that the students can recognize the importance of principle on preparation, cooling and presentation of dishes as the foundation in culinary arts. The statement ‘I can understand the different cultures and ethnicity of various countries’ means that the affective factors of the program are affecting the learning of the students thru the culinary arts of preparation, presentation and the learnings of the students in the culture and ethnicity of other countries. Most of the interpretation in the relationship of program to Affective aspect is Not Significant.

Table 3. Relationship of Program and Psychomotor Aspect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pearson Chi-square Value</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can apply the different principles and techniques in basic food preparation and cooking</td>
<td>2.632*</td>
<td>.853</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can dramatize hotel practices in managing customer complaints.</td>
<td>5.915*</td>
<td>.433</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can demonstrate hotel practices in managing demand and supply.</td>
<td>10.820*</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can simulate passenger/crew drills onboard the ship.</td>
<td>12.283*</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can display proper donning of the life jacket.</td>
<td>12.623*</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can plot shore excursion activities.</td>
<td>3.822*</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can demonstrate to prepare and serve basic foods attractively and efficiently.</td>
<td>8.528*</td>
<td>.202</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I can read globes and maps.</td>
<td>3.139*</td>
<td>.959</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I can create PPT (PowerPoint presentation) and AV (Audio Visual) presentation</td>
<td>7.983*</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can apply skills in food &amp; beverage and housekeeping.</td>
<td>11.791*</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** p-value (Asym. Sig) is <.05 = significant relationship; p-value (Asym. Sig) is >.05 = no significant relationship.

Table 3. shows that program of the students has no significant relationship with the given psychomotor outcomes. Students cannot apply the given outcomes because sometimes what they do in school is not the same at some industries because it is about the standards of each establishment that is giving its own protocol and standards. The relationship of program to psychomotor aspect has no significance to students by having and educational tour. All of these aspects have results of Not Significant.

**Proposed Program for International Cruise Enhancement**

The proposed activities/strategies is that the researchers will give a suggestion to have a seminar about culinary onboard. The researchers are also planning to have an orientation before and after the Asian Cruise so that they can enhance their knowledge to identify different types of cuisines. The main objective of the activities/strategies is to provide the students with practical and theoretical knowledge about basic culinary basic food preparation and food presentation.

The persons who will be involved with is Dean, Program Chairperson, Asian Cruise Coordinator.

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

For the demographic profile, most of the students who joined International cruise are between 15-17 years old and most of them were from CLOCA/CLOHS.

Learning in school includes academic, professional, and personal outcomes that may be wholly or in part related to insights and experiences gained through international trip. Composite mean of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor aspects has same interpretation which means majority of the responses show that they agree on the given statement of outcomes. This broad study of outcomes highlights the continuing role that a field experience
can help student to increase knowledge and understanding.

The researchers also conclude that most of the results that have significant relationship between demographic profile and aspects were the statements that can experience on-board of all students who participate in Asian Cruise. These are valuing the importance of safety and security protocols on-board ships, simulating passenger/crew drills on-board the ship, displaying proper donning of the life jacket, understanding the different cultures and ethnicity of various countries, and appreciating the role and responsibilities of seafarers.

Proposed program for international cruise may be review for enhance and proper implementation in the future.

CITED REFERENCES


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TRAVEL INNOVATION THROUGH SOCIAL MEDIA USING SMART GADGETS

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Maria Christina Jane Cruz, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
Sheikha A. Jaco, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
Rens Shaira Nicole D. Lugtu, San Sebastian College- Recoletos

INTRODUCTION

A lot of Travelling Applications with different purpose and specifications plays a vital role for the modern-time travelers and tourists. From flight and accommodation booking to communication, dining, recreation, documentation, and everything that you must know. The researchers chose one of the most-used application in Smartphones and iPhones, the Waze, a GPS and Community-based traffic and navigation application that can be used in searching for locations, viewing real-time traffic updates from the Waze users, and getting to know the turn-by-turn directions using the fastest possible routes knowing that it is now considered as necessity for anyone who travels with or without prior knowledge of the destination that they are to go.

METHOD

This study would like to determine the answers to the following specific questions: 1. What is Travel Innovation? 2. Is Innovation Cost-effective? 3. What is the effect of this Innovation to Tourism and Travel Industry?

The researchers made use of a quantitative kind of research which entitled 100 respondents who are Waze app users, for the study.

The study was based on the randomly selected active Waze app users around Manila. It is located on the island of Luzon and spreads along the eastern shore of Manila Bay at the mouth of the Pasig River. Since Manila is the capital of the Philippines, it also serves as the center of the country’s economic, political, social, and cultural activity and known as a busy city.

FINDINGS

This study sought to assess the tour and travel innovations, Waze as a travel guide.

This study utilized a total of 125 respondents, they were asked to answer the self-made survey questionnaire which the researchers prepared themselves and conducted an interview with the Waze application users and employees. The data were tabulated, interpreted and analyzed using the statistical tools namely Weighted Mean and Likert’s Scale.

The salient findings of the study are as follows:

1) The study reveals the Waze application users are satisfied with the application’s performance in terms of its features (navigation, voice-over providing turn-by-turn directions and indicating street names, real-time traffic reports, and gas prices, searching for destination by address or name of the place, integrated destination search, and gaming elements)

2) It shows that the feature Navigation is highly assessed with the weighted mean of 3.48. Navigation is really the main feature of the Waze application. While the Gaming element of the application is the least assessed by the users and got a score of 2.88.

3) Based on the findings, Waze users are in favor with the voice-over of history, background, and adding of information innovation that can be proposed by the researchers to the Waze management

4) The study presents that the Waze application can help the following linked industries by promoting and showcasing the different attractions and features in a certain area, giving information about the destination that can attract visitors, and find the most convenient route for transport operators.
CONCLUSIONS

The researchers came up with the following conclusion based on the findings of the study.

1) Based on our findings, we concluded that the Waze features can actually give information that can be helpful to its users.

2) Based on the results, the respondents find the gaming element as the least feature because most of the users don’t have time to play the game because of their focus on the road or directions.

3) The result reveals that the users and management are open to innovations that can help in the betterment of the application.

4) Adding a new feature where the application can be incorporated with the tourism industry can be a huge help for the growth of two parties.
DOES THE JOB SKILLS OF INDIVIDUAL INFLUENCE THEIR JOB SATISFACTION: COMPARISON BETWEEN INTERNSHIP AND PART–TIME JOB EXPERIENCES

Wing Sze Lancy Tsang, PolyU Hong Kong Community College, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

INTRODUCTION

According to Davies (1990) internship is a kind of experiential learning that students can apply their learnt theories into the real world. The essence of internship is to enrich student learning by combine classroom leaning with practical experiences so that students can have a realistic preview of their potential career and understand some workplace-orientated practices before graduation (Aggett & Busby, 2011; Fong, Lee, Luk & Law, 2014; Jiang & Tribe, 2010; Siu, Cheung & Law, 2012). Pervious researches advocate positive internship experiences encourage hospitality and tourism students to join the industry after graduation (Chuang & Jenkins, 2010; Gault, Redington & Schlager, 2000). Thus, many hospitality management programs incorporate internship practices in their curricula. Although many studies have explored the relationship between students’ internship experience and career intention, the gap of academic literature still exists. There is still lacking a focus in relation to the student perception of the job skills consider important for their internships.

The aim of the current study is to obtain an insight into the job skills that students perceive to be associated with job duties during internships or part-time jobs. In addition, this study also wants to explore if there is any difference in job capability of individuals who participate internships and part-time jobs. Finally, this study will investigate if the job skills of individuals have any influence to the students’ job satisfaction.

METHOD

An associate degree programme in hospitality management of a community college in Hong Kong was selected as the research setting for this study. The program offers a 3-months optional internship to students during summer holidays and they are also encouraged to seek their part-time jobs instead of taking internships.

A structured questionnaire contains of 3 sections was designed to collect quantitative data. Section A contains 16 items measuring the perceived importance of the job skills, including “interpersonal skills”, “technical skills (e.g. IT skills, customer services)”, communication with customers”, “time management”, “team spirit”, “problem solving skills”, “operational skills (e.g table setting, check-in/check-out),” leadership”, planning and organization”, proficiency in written English/Chinses”, “oral communication in English/Chinses”, prioritize your job tasks”, “initiative”, “follow supervisor’s instructions/orders”, “preform your job tasks independently”, “getting along with colleagues”. A 7-point Likert-type scale (ranging from 1= very unimportant to 7 = very important) was used to capture responses of these items. Section B contains a close-ended question on the students’ satisfaction levels with the internships or part-time job experiences. Again 7-point Liker-type scale (ranging from 1 = extremely unsatisfied to 7 = extremely satisfied) was used to capture response of this question. Finally information on internship or part-time job experiences (job title, job nature) was collected.

FINDINGS

The targeted respondents were Year-2 students of an associate degree program in hospitality management, they answered the questionnaire within 4 weeks after their internships or part-time jobs. Finally 250 completed questionnaires were received, resulting in a response rate of 78.62%. Among the 250 questionnaires, of which 166 respondents are students participated in internships and the rest of 84 respondents are worked part-time jobs.
Table 1. Statistics of job skills among 2 groups of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Skills</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internship</td>
<td>Part-time job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal skills</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>5.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>4.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication with customers</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time management</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>5.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Spirit</td>
<td>5.51</td>
<td>5.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>5.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational skills</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>4.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning &amp; organizing your work</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>4.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proficiency in written English/Chinese</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oral Communication in English/Chinese</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>5.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prioritize your job task</td>
<td>5.55</td>
<td>4.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative</td>
<td>5.52</td>
<td>5.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow supervisors’ instruction/orders</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>5.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perform job tasks independently</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>5.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting along with colleagues</td>
<td>5.79</td>
<td>5.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>5.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As stated above Table 1, among the 16 job skills, nearly all of them had a mean value greater than 4, only “leadership” (M=3.84, SD=1.586) which is below 4 from part-time jobs group. Whereas, “follow supervisors’ instruction/orders” (M=6.02, SD=9.17) from internships group had a mean value greater than 6 which is the highest among all job skills. Furthermore, comparing the top three highest mean scores of the job skills among two groups, the internships group identified ‘follow supervisors’ instructions/orders” (M=6.02), “communication with customers” (M=5.95) and “oral communication in English/Chinese” (M=5.94) are the top three most important job skills. To part-time group, the top three important job skills are “communication with customers” (M=5.99), “problem solving” (M=5.60) and “follow supervisors’ instructions/orders” (M=5.52). Both groups deemed “follow supervisors’ instructions/orders” (M=6.02, M=5.52) important to their job duties. Whereas, comparing the lowest three mean scores of job skills among the two groups, the findings suggest that “leadership” (M=4.28), “proficiency in written English/Chinese” (M=4.71) and “technical skills” (M=5.11) represents the three least important job skills rated by internship group. To part-time job group, the three least important job skills are “leadership” (M=3.84), “proficiency in written English/Chinese” (M=4.74) and “prioritize your job tasks” (M=4.78). Both groups identified the same job skills “leadership” (M=4.28, M=3.84), as least important among the 16 job skills. For the satisfaction level of both groups have mean value greater than 5 (M=5.18, M=5.19).
The results of independent sample test (Table 2) revealed that there is statistically significant difference between the mean values of “operational skills” (Sig=.000, p<.05), “oral communication” (Sig=.002, p<.05), “follow supervisors’ instruction/orders” (Sig=.003, p<.05) among the two groups. However, there is no significant difference between two groups in terms of satisfaction.

**CONCLUSION**

This study has shown that job skill like “follow supervisors’ instructions/orders” are most important to the job duties perceived by both groups. Conversely, “leadership” is the least important job skill to the job duties perceived by both groups. Most of the students had the internships or part-time jobs in the entry level positions, and they are inexperienced and relied heavy on supervisors’ instruction to finish their job duties and the result is consistent with the findings reported by Lee (2014) and Tse (2010). Further to the students’ knowledge, they perceived that leadership is a higher level skills performed by supervisory or managerial staffs, not entry level staffs. Most of the students were accustomed to follow the instructions from their supervisors and seldom or never have any opportunity to lead a small team by themselves, thus, “leadership” is rated the least important job skills and the result is inconsistent with the finding reported by Tse (2010).
When comparing the satisfaction level between internship and part-time job groups, the findings suggest that there is no significance difference between two groups, indicated students are highly satisfied with the internships and part-time job experiences. However, our findings suggest that internship group and part-time groups have different perceptions regarding the importance of job skills, especially “operational skills”, “oral communication” and “follow supervisors’ instruction/orders”. Internship students rated at higher levels of important than the part-time job students.

As the importance of job skills varies with students, thus, students should not be perceived at homogenous. Hospitality educators and employers should survey the students to find out their expectation to internships. By understanding students’ expectations, employers can tailor-made internship programs to address the issues such as leadership, autonomy, supervisor support, challenging tasks, which in line with students’ aspiration on meaningful internship and make it different from a part-time job. In addition, by having understanding of employers’ expectations, students will have a better idea of what to anticipate in their internship experiences (Yiu & Law, 2012). In order to prepare students well for the internship, schools should provide pre-internship supports such as experience sharing with senior year students, introduction to employer and industry environment, and mental preparedness are needed (Chen & Shen, 2012). Finally hospitality educators should evaluate the academic curricula with employers together to ensure that students are alert to the competencies and skills needed in the industry and to design an interesting and challenging internship (Raybould & Wilkins, 2006; Yiu & Law, 2012).

This study was conducted in one hospitality management programme of one community college in Hong Kong, thus, generalizability of the findings cannot be made. Future study is advised to expand the scope of research by exploring qualitatively and in-depth how students apply the jobs skills in their daily job duties.

REFERENCES


HOTEL EMPLOYEE WORK VALUES IN INDONESIA

Sienny Thio, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Brian King, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

INTRODUCTION

The continuing growth of tourism globally is prompting a need to expand the labor force, notably in the hotel sector. Since hospitality provision is labor-intensive employees are central to hotel operations. As hoteliers confront employment related issues and concerns, the human resource management function (human capital) is increasingly important. This function strives to retain top talent through provision such as education and training, childcare and more flexible work arrangements (Lucas & Deery, 2004; Pizam, 1999).

In Indonesia rapid hotel construction and development has increased the demand for qualified human resources. As noted by Negara (2014) a highly educated and well-trained workforce is critical for an innovation-driven economy. Developed countries has been experiencing labor shortages whereas developing countries such as Indonesia are confronted by a lack of quality. Amongst the various countries of ASEAN, Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore, and Indonesia are now entering the developed destination category and are now encountering shortages of skilled and trained workers (Sritama, 2015).

As Indonesia seeks to secure economic growth, it is also likely to increase social welfare and invest more in human capital development. If an attempt is not made to improve the currently inadequate quality of the workforce, Indonesia is being relegated to a market for goods and services provided by other ASEAN countries (Aritonang & Razak, 2016). These concerns have been exacerbated by the small proportion (10 percent) of Indonesia’s 144 million strong workforce that possess a university degree. This has prompted sceptics to challenge the likelihood of Indonesia’s workers to compete effectively in the regional labor market (Tashandra, 2016; Widarti, 2014; Widodo, 2016a, 2016b). In responding to such concerns, the present research on human resources highlights key areas of concern and opportunity about hospitality employee attributes and beliefs in Indonesia.

The contemporary workplace is complex and the values work that workers possess are changing fast, including within generational cohorts (Smola & Sutton, 2002), through different life stages (Super, 1980, 1995). Understanding the work values of workforce in each generation with various demographic backgrounds in a specific industry, a company is expected to meet employee needs and wants in order to promote favorable working environments, thereby leading to increased performance and workforce productivity (Kupperschmidt, 2000), employee creativity (Ali & Al-Kazemi, 2005), and employee job satisfaction (Brown, 2002). Thus, it is important for hotel managers to identify and understand their employees’ work values because it will help them maintain a competitive edge due to the imbalance between supply and demand in employment (Solnet & Hood, 2008) and have positive impacts on employee work outcomes and productivity (Liang, 2012).

Many scholars have developed scales to measure work values of both subordinates and managers. These have been undertaken to understand the diversity of personal and work values and have been adopted both in hospitality and in other industry settings. Work values across different generations of employees might differ due to the nature of the work itself such as different departments and sectors within the hospitality company (Siu et al., 1997). Having better understanding of work value similarities and differences among different age cohorts will assist HR management develop HR strategic programs (Chen & Choi, 2008). Lyons et al. (2010) also suggested that managers should have knowledge about work value patterns of their employees enabling them to anticipate employees’ reactions to various assignments, stimulus, and workplace situations.

Numerous studies have reported significant differences in work values among different generations working in hospitality (Chen & Choi,
work values of workforces on the basis of socio-demographic background in four- and five-star hotels. As encouraged by Pizam (1993) more industry specific studies are urgently needed on work values linked to national and ethnic contexts. Understanding work value differences and changing workforce values are crucial because they may have a fundamental influence on organizational values and culture (Judge & Bretz, 1992; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Thus, the objectives of this study are to investigate employee’s work values in the context of Indonesia’s hotel industry, particularly in four- and five-star hotels and also to identify work value differences based on the type and location of hotels and socio-demographic profiles such as gender, marital status, age, religion, education and job position levels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Work Values and Gen Ys

Work values may be defined as "evaluative standards associated with work or the work environment by which individuals determine what is ‘right’ or assess the importance of preferences" (Dose, 1997, p. 228). George and Jones (1999) described work values as employee attitudes towards their workplace expectations and how they are pursued. In addition, Elizur (1984) defined work values as individual perceptions about particular outcomes concerning work attributes which are perceived as critical to work. Work values are considered to be a continuing perspective that leads an employee to assess his/her workplace, whether it is fundamentally right or wrong (Judge & Bretz, 1992). Work values are hierarchically structured around what individuals believe has significance for their working lives (Lyons et al., 2010). The focus on values as opposed to attitudes was due to the fact that values do not conform to certain conditions or situations and are more likely to be stable (White, 2006). In addition, it is believed that people have fewer values than attitudes (Dose, 1997) and that values have a greater impact on perceptions, attitudes and behaviors (Brown, 2002; Mok et al., 1998). Values have been viewed as beliefs which are carried out by individual as standards to behave in a certain situation (White, 2005).

Hotels are welcoming more "generation Ys" (also known as millennials) into the labor market. Many scholars have revealed unique characteristics of millennials compared to the previous generations in regards to work values, attitudes and behavior. As noted by Davidson et al. (2010), the job expectation perceived to be crucial for Gen Y employees are "self-actualization, work-life balance, career development, communication and networking" (p. 453). Accordingly, Gen Y workforces are likely to be demanding, more outspoken in revealing their feelings and opinions (Solnet & Hood, 2008) which often create conflicts with their coworkers and employers. In other words, hospitality establishments need to respond to the emergence of Gen Ys in the hospitality workforce by formulating approaches which meet their needs and expectations such as providing new challenges and additional responsibility (Solnet & Hood, 2008). This is supported by Walsh and Taylor (2007) who notes that millennial employees today seek challenging positions in the hospitality industry that provide them with more opportunities to cultivate their skills, responsibilities and involvement in the process of decision making. Way of life, achievement, and supervisory relationships were consistently found to be top of lists of work attitudes for all age groups (Chen & Choi, 2008).

Measurement of Work Values

Given the importance of understanding work values in organizational settings, it is essential to examine how employee work values can be measured. The first measurement was the Work Values Inventory (WVI) (Super 1970). Since its introduction, the WVI has been deployed by numerous scholars to measure workforce work values in several industries, including hospitality (Chen et al., 2000; Chen & Choi, 2008; White, 2005, 2006). The WVI comprises 45 items covering 15 dimensions of both intrinsic and extrinsic work values, namely creativity,
management, achievement, surroundings, supervisory relationships, way of life, security, associates, aesthetic, prestige, independent, variety, economic return, altruism, and intellectual stimulation. For example, Chen and Choi’s (2008) study revealed that a hospitality managerial workforce from different generational differences perceived their work values on four dimensions, namely "comfort and security", "professional growth", "personal growth" and "work environment". While, altruism, intellectual stimulation, security, independence and economic return were perceived distinctly by both managers and supervisors, with altruism ranked highly among all generations.

Another widely adopted model is Hofstede’s (1980) which relates work values with national cultures. His study captured four dimensions of cross-cultural differences, namely: power distance, individualism vs collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. For example, Mok et al. (1998) investigated the work values of Chinese hotel managers in Hong Kong using Hofstede’s (1980) value survey module. The results showed that Chinese hotel managers highly placed their values on both good relationships with their superiors and peers and strong emphasis on financial rewards. They did not have great emphasis on quality of life but they valued the intrinsic elements such as freedom, challenging tasks and consultation with superiors. Another study by Mangundjaya (2010) related to work values was conducted in Indonesia using Hofstede’s version (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005) which involved 2,025 respondents from Indonesia’s state owned companies. The findings revealed that company’s work values were Individualist, high power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, masculine, and have long term orientation. While, work values according to Hofstede’s (1980, 1984) results were collectivist, high power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, and feminine. It can be said that there was a change from collectivist to individualist, and feminine to masculine which might be influenced by socio-cultural factors as Indonesia has diverse ethnicity with different backgrounds and characteristics of people.

Prior researchers have adopted various work value measurements and have generated a variety of results due to the diversity of work settings (Lyons et al., 2010). Scholars have also developed various work value instruments, such as the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (Gay et al., 1971), the Work Aspects Preference Scale (Pryor, 1979), the Work Values Inventory (Elizur, 1984), the Meaning of Working Survey (MOW, 1987), the Values Survey (Neville & Super, 1989), Work Values Scale (Ros et al., 1999), and the Lyons Work Values Survey (Lyons et al., 2010). Although a wide array of work value classifications have been introduced, it seems that two basic types of work value are most likely to appear. These are: "Intrinsic or cognitive" and "extrinsic or instrumental" (Lyons et al., 2010). However, Lyons et al. agreed with Elizur (1984) that the use of the terms "cognitive" and "instrumental" is considered to be more precise and stringent for explaining the two basic types of work value. The LWVS 25 items can be seen in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrumental</th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Benefit</td>
<td>Challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>Continuously learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>Freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hours of work</td>
<td>Variety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance</td>
<td>Use abilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Advancement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition</td>
<td>Interesting work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive supervisor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social/Altruistic</td>
<td>Prestige</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>Impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun</td>
<td>Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>Prestigious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help people</td>
<td>influence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adopted from Lyons et al. (2010)
The four-work value dimensions of the LWVS were derived from Ros et al. (1999). These echoed work value types that were replicated from Schwartz’s (1992) study focusing more on general values such as openness to change, conservative, self-transcendence, and self-enhancement. Previous researchers have shown that work values are related to general values even though they are separated (Elizur & Sagie, 1999). It is believed that work values have evolved from extensive general values (Roe & Ester, 1999). As noted by Papavasileiou and Lyons (2015, p.2167), the four dimensions of work values are:

1. Instrumental (or extrinsic), which reflect more concrete work outcomes such as pay and security;
2. Cognitive (or intrinsic), which relate to the pursuit of personal growth such as advancement and independence;
3. Social/altruistic, which capture emotions and feelings as well as social experiences and roles such as esteem, interpersonal relationships and social contribution
4. Prestige, which refer to aspects of personal success and dominance over others such as recognition and authority

**METHOD**

**Survey Instrument**

The present study has adopted the 25-item scale of the Lyons Work Values Survey (LWVS) to measure how important each work value is to the sample of hotel employees in Indonesia. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which each item within the four dimensions of work values is perceived to be important when they consider to accept or stay in a job ranging from 5 (absolutely important) to 1 (not at all important). The instrumental and cognitive dimension were composed of nine and eight items of work values respectively, while social, and prestige dimension consist of four work values items each.

The researchers employed the LWVS because it has been widely adopted in prior studies (Cennamo & Gardner, 2008; deCooman & Dries, 2012; Infeld et al., 2010; Lyons et al., 2005; Papavasileiou & Lyons, 2015; Sillerud, 2011; Zupan et al., 2013). There is also extensive research measuring all four types of posited work values, namely: cognitive, instrumental, social, and prestige (Lyons et al., 2010). The 25 items in the latest LWVS version is precise and compact for completion by respondents. This approach produces a good response rate. As the present study is not intended to develop and extend the work value constructs from previous studies, the latest version of the LWVS was applied in its entirety. It is considered to be sufficient and comprehensive as a way of identifying employee work values in the context of Indonesia.

**Data Collection and Analysis**

Bali and Java Island were selected for this study due to their respective popularity and also the dynamic growth of the hotel industry across Indonesia. The chosen research sites were Surabaya city as the representative of Java (it is the second largest city after Jakarta) and Bali which is a renowned leisure destination for both domestic and foreign tourists. Hotels in Surabaya are mainly business oriented, while resort/leisure hotels are more dominant in Bali. The employee characteristics across these two regions also differ because of geographic and socio-cultural backgrounds. Surabaya, which is located in the eastern part of Java is dominated by Javanese people with the majority of them are Muslims, while Bali is located in Bali island, the people are mainly Balinese people with the dominant religion is Hindu.

Non-probability sampling was adopted in this study using the convenience method. Hotel employees from managerial and non-managerial levels who are working in four- and five-star hotels in Surabaya and Bali were chosen for sampling purposes. Descriptive statistics was employed to identify work values perceived to be important by hotel workers. Moreover, non-parametric statistics using Mann Whitney U-test and Kruskal Wallis were adopted to examine whether there are significant differences of work values between hotel employees group in Surabaya and Bali. Work values among hotel employees were also analyzed based on their gender, marital status, age, religion, educational level, and job positions.
FINDINGS

**Respondent Profile**

Of 434 distributed self-administered questionnaires, a total of 375 samples of hotel employees in Surabaya and Bali were collected over a three-month period in September – December 2016. After eliminating incomplete responses, 358 questionnaires were retained and used for further data analysis. The demographic profile of the respondents is presented in Table 2. Over 55% of respondents were male with the dominant age group was 22-36 years (68.2%) which was classified as Millennials, followed by Gen X’s and Gen Z’s group with the age range of 37-51 years (25.4%) and < 22 years (6.4%) respectively. The majority of the respondents were married (53.4%) with the educational level of Diploma (40.5%) and undergraduate degree (36%). Most of the respondents were Moslem (48.3%), followed by Hindus (26.3%) and Christian/Catholic (24%) with the majority had the position as staff (47.5%). The sample of the respondents came from employees working in the 4-star hotels (55.9%) and 5-star hotels (44.1%) located in Surabaya (58.9%) and Bali (41.1%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Demographic Profile of the Respondents (N=358)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37-51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior/senior high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not married</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moslem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian/Catholic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hindu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buddha/Confucius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-star hotels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-star hotels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel Location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surabaya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Work Value of Hotel employees

Table 3 shows the results of the overall means and standard deviations as well as the comparison of work values dimensions in Surabaya and Bali. Among four dimensions of work values, the instrumental dimension (overall Mean = 4.12) expressing extrinsic work conditions were perceived to be the most important factor by respondents, followed by social/altruistic (Mean = 3.97), cognitive (Mean = 3.91), and prestige (Mean = 3.44). Meaning that hotel employees in Surabaya and Bali considered the instrumental (extrinsic) work conditions particularly the assurance of job security, having benefits to meet personal needs, and favourable salary to be their most preference consideration to accept a job. Working in lively and fun environment which employees are able to make friendship were perceived to most crucial factors within social dimension. In cognitive dimension, career advancement and the opportunity to learn and develop knowledge were the most essential elements for employees. While, in prestige dimension, employees’ ability to make significant impact and to influence organizational outcomes were rated to be the most important work outcomes. Compared to other dimensions, prestige which refer to personal outcomes and recognition over others seem to be less important for hotel workforce. These results on work values are consistent with Lyons et al.’s (2005) which put the highest ranking on Instrumental/extrinsic and social/Altruistic dimension which means that specific work outcomes such as job security, personal benefit, salary and social interaction such as pleasant working environment and friendly colleagues are acknowledged as employees’ priorities in choosing a job.

The 25-item work values were viewed as important by respondents with all the mean score above 3.00, except one work value item perceived to be the least importance which was about doing prestigious work and be recognized by others. The mean rank of each dimension and items of work values were similar in both Surabaya and Bali, though with a higher mean score in Bali. The higher score of work values for hotel employees in Bali is understandable because most Balinese work in the tourism and hospitality industry. As Indonesian’s main destination for domestic and international tourists, Bali has become the priority choice for those seeking a hospitality career. Therefore, it is unsurprising that Bali’s hotel staff have a greater expectation to their employers.

The result of this study also confirms the cultural dimensions of Indonesia based upon Hofstede’s (1984) Individualism and Masculinity. With a low score of Individualism (14) Indonesia is considered to be a Collectivist society. This is observable It can be seen from a higher mean score of social dimension work value in this study compared to Cognitive and Prestige dimension. Indonesian employees prefer to build strong social relationships with their friends, family, and relatives, including in the workplace. Comfortable and enjoyable working environment has become an essential factor to retain them for longer. Whatever their industry all employees tend to seek a pleasant environment (Smola & Sutton, 2002). This is notably the case in a labor-intensive industry such as hospitality. Additionally, Indonesia is also considered as low Masculinity with the score of 46. This means that Indonesian employees are more likely to avoid conflict and will try to find solutions by compromising or negotiating. Nurturing and interpersonal relationship have become important societal values. They do not work to achieve a certain "prestige" because they focus more on earning money to live and support their families.

Table 3. Mean and Standard Deviation of Work Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Overall Mean</th>
<th>Mean by hotel location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The assurance of Job security</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits to meet personal needs</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good salary</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balance work life</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension</td>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient hours of work</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constructive feedback</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to the Information needed</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition for a job well done</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supportive Supervisor</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Advancement</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuously learn</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement in accomplishment</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use ability</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting, exciting, and engaging</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge abilities</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety in work activities</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freedom to make decisions</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.953</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social/Altruistic</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lively and fun working environment</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>0.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly co-workers</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help people</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant impact on the organization</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence organizational outcomes</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.944</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority to organize</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestigious and regarded highly by others</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.230</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**A comparison of employee work values**

The researchers deployed the Mann-Whitney U test to identify work value differences between two different groups of hotel workers. It can be seen from Table 4 that there was a significance difference between hotel type (4- and 5-star hotel) and hotel location (Surabaya and Bali) in regard to work values, particularly in the case of the instrumental, social, and cognitive dimensions. Employees working in 5-star hotels were deemed to require a higher work value than their counterparts in 4-star hotels. This might be due to the nature of upscale hotels which are required to provide excellent service to their guests with the consequence that employers need to recruit talented employees who are more demanding about their work value outcomes. Additionally, securing a position in a 5-star hotel requires higher qualifications and applicants will in return expect more benefits from their employer for their personal and professional growth.

Perhaps because competition amongst hotels in Bali has intensified in recent years, the study has found that Bali respondents had higher expectations about work values than their Surabaya counterparts. They expect a better welfare from their employers and working environment for their personal benefits and development. Large scale hotel development is occurring in Bali and massive recruitment of labor has already commenced. Already it is noted that Bali residents are more experienced and have a wider range of choices when considering future hospitality roles. In understanding their work priorities, the ranking of each individual acquired on their work values exhibits their priorities in a work context (Elizur, 1984) and have become essential preferences and beliefs on their career decisions (White, 2005).
In order to identify any significant differences among groups in terms of their age, religion, education, and job positions, the researchers present the results of the Kruskal Wallis test in Table 5. The four work value dimensions were significantly different among education groups, ($p < 0.01$). It was found that holders of bachelor degrees had a higher mean rank than those from lower educational backgrounds. Whereas, among groups of religion and job position level, it was found that there were significance differences in regard to their work value dimensions of instrumental, cognitive, and prestige. Hindus attached higher work values expectations on the extrinsic and intrinsic dimension. Meanwhile senior managers had a higher mean rankon their work values than their lower level counterparts. Surprisingly, there were no significant differences among the three generation groups with regard to their cognitive and prestige work values. The significant differences among age groups were only found in the instrumental and social work values dimension ($p < 0.05$). Millennials had the highest mean rank among the other two generations, indicative that this group seeks greater job security and personal benefits such as better allowances, work-life balance, convenient working hours, and recognition. These results are consistent with Chen and Choi’s study (2008) which concluded that Gen Xs rated economic return and security highly as work values. Interestingly, the generation which has followed the Millennials (known as Gen Zs) requires a greater emphasis on social relationships in their working environment compared than the older two generations (Gen Xs and Gen Ys). Though Gen Zs are not yet fully explained because their hotel industry careers are still at the early stage, it is noteworthy that members of this group are more sociable in their approach to work.

### Table 4. Mann-Whitney Test Results for Work Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Marital status</th>
<th>Hotel type</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z value</td>
<td>-0.333</td>
<td>-1.001</td>
<td>-3.567</td>
<td>-3.898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z value</td>
<td>-0.973</td>
<td>-0.071</td>
<td>-2.415</td>
<td>-3.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.330</td>
<td>0.943</td>
<td>0.016*</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z value</td>
<td>-0.580</td>
<td>-0.534</td>
<td>-2.683</td>
<td>-2.680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.562</td>
<td>0.593</td>
<td>0.007**</td>
<td>0.007**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z value</td>
<td>-1.444</td>
<td>-1.646</td>
<td>-1.928</td>
<td>-1.877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.061</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**represents significant levels <0.01  
*represents significant level <0.05

### Table 5. Kruskal Wallis Results for Work Values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Job position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>7.352</td>
<td>15.469</td>
<td>14.555</td>
<td>25.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.025*</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
<td>0.001**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>4.118</td>
<td>13.767</td>
<td>15.762</td>
<td>25.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>0.003**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>6.733</td>
<td>7.230</td>
<td>11.694</td>
<td>6.588</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.035*</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>0.003**</td>
<td>0.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>7.841</td>
<td>10.868</td>
<td>26.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>0.666</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
<td>0.004**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*represents significant level <0.05
**represents significant levels <0.01
CONCLUSIONS

The wide range of perceived work values amongst Indonesian hotel employees have been expressed through four discrete dimensions (Instrumental, Cognitive, Social and Prestige). The results have shown that Indonesian hotel employees attach greatest importance to instrumental and social work values and the least importance (lowest ranking) to prestige. The work value attributes which need to be recognized if hotels are to attract and recruit talented employees are job security, benefits that meet personal needs, and good salary. Noting that employee job behaviors are impacted by work values (Sagie et al., 1996), giving proper recognition for the prevailing work values in of Indonesia’s hotel industry offers the prospect of an enhanced understanding of workforce issues such as labor shortages, high labor turnover, unskilled employees, and poor training.

Given Indonesia’s different types of hotel (eg 4-star and 5-star properties), locations spread across diverse island settings (eg Surabaya and Bali) and employee socio-demographic backgrounds (age, religion, educational, and job position level), it is evident that employers will need to acknowledge the heterogeneity of employee work values. This study has provided a preliminary investigation of hotel employee work values in Indonesia and should provide insights to support the work of human resource executives and practitioners. This will enable hotel companies to work together and design better human resource strategies to improve future hotel performance based upon local circumstances. The result of this study should provide insights for hoteliers understanding of their workforce across various socio-demographic background who have different characteristics and work values which need to be considered and acknowledged, particularly in the case of 4- and 5-star hotels in Surabaya and Bali.

One limitation of the study is that the findings draw exclusively on respondents from 4- and 5-star hotels in Surabaya and Bali. Their views may diverge somewhat from employees in other types of hotel and locations across Indonesia. It is suggested that future researchers should investigate other categories of property such as 3-star and budget hotels and hotels in other geographical areas across Indonesia. Such an extension would allow for greater generalizability of the findings to other settings. Furthermore, a sample of respondents in this study covered all department and positions level from staff to senior managers. Future researchers might contribute by identifying work values perceived to be important by employees from different departments and levels and comparing them with a view to providing greater understanding of work values across various departments and job levels in Indonesia’s hotel industry.

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INFLUENCES OF CONFUCIAN VALUES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY IN ASIA

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Kaye Chon, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

INTRODUCTION

The gravity of the world tourism has gradually shifted to Asia over the past two decades and this trend is expected to continue in the future (Chon, 2013). The Asian boom in tourism fuels the growth of the hospitality industry too. The Asian based hotel brands have expanded themselves in extensive ways and such examples include Shangri-la Hotels and Resorts, Mandarin Oriental Hotel Group, The Peninsula, and so on which have expanded themselves to other Asian countries and non-Asian countries (Lam, Ho & Law, 2015). The western brands such as Marriott International, Inc. do the same way as the Asian brands. These economic activities help consolidate Asian hospitality in Asian countries and cultivate Asian hospitality in non-Asian countries. This is evidenced by a presentation by STR which indicates that, of all new hotel projects in the pipeline worldwide, approximately 48% are the projects underway in the Asia Pacific Region (STR, 2016).

1.1 Confucianism and Asian Hospitality

It is postulated that Asian hospitality has been greatly influenced by Asia’s unique religions, social values, history and culture (Sucher et al., 2013). Hofstede also emphasized that Confucianism influenced people’s behavior in Asian (Hofstede, 1980; Kwek & Lee, 2010). For instance, the Confucian values which emphasize good relationship (Guanxi), Harmony (Zhong Yong) and Face-giving (Lien and Mien-tsu) forms Asian hospitality.

1.2 Objectives

This paper attempts to evaluate the impacts of three dominant Confucian values – Relationship (Guanxi), Harmony (ZhongYong) and Face-giving (Lien and Mien-tsu) on the development of hospitality industry in Asia. Specific objectives of this paper are: (1) to examine the hotel practitioners’ perception of the influence of Confusion value in Asia; (2) to analyze the relationship between Confusion values and Asian hospitality; and (3) to evaluate the impact of Confusion values on Asian hospitality.

1.3 Conceptual Model

Basing upon the literature review, a conceptual model is presented below to frame the study.
METHOD

This is a preliminary study based upon in-depth interviews conducted with seven hotel managers. These seven managers were selected in consideration of their hospitality management experience both in Asian countries and in western countries, their personal relationship with the author. Plus, the hotel brands they worked for had strong footholds in Asian countries such as Dusit International, Regal Hotels International, Accord Hotel International, and so on. In order to facilitate data collection, a questionnaire was designed based upon the literature. The data was collected through qualitative means. In-depth interviews or phone interviews were arranged with the seven hotel managers individually. The data collected will be analyzed by Content Analysis. Though this study is small in scale, it would serve as a research ground for our future studies.

FINDINGS

Among seven respondents, five of them were males and two of were females. Three were of top management level and four were of managerial level. Six out of seven respondents had worked in hospitality industry for over ten years. Besides, six of them had worked in western countries prior to starting their career in Asia.

3.1 Relationship (Guanxi) could help shape personal values and facilitate inter-personal relationship and career advancement. All respondents realized that Relationship (Guanxi), Harmony (Zhong Yong) and Face-giving (Lien and Mien-tsz) in Asia as un-official social rules for communication and business practice in Asia and it reflected Asian culture. One of respondents commented that the above Confucian values influenced the mindset, behaviour, judgment and value system of the society and the individual.

3.2 Impacts of Confucian values (Relationship, Harmony and Face-giving) on Asian Hospitality

3.2.1 Relationship (Guanxi) and business opportunities through customer loyalty. All respondents shared the same view that the above three Confucian values played asignificant role in Asian hospitality. Six respondents realized that they positively impacted Asian hospitality. They commented that Relationship (Guanxi) could facilitate employee and guest relationship. It also helped facilitate business opportunities and gain customer loyalty in long term.

3.2.2 Harmony (Zhong Yong) as a way of motivating team spiritBesides, six respondents realized that Harmony (Zhong Yong) should be highly promoted and practiced in all business occasions particularly in China because hotel service would be performed through team work. Harmony could enhance team spirit. Besides, six respondents opined that Face-giving could facilitate mutual respect and gain trust in the workplace and with guests.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The findings support the literature saying that Relationship (Guanxi), Harmony (Zhong Yong) and Face-giving (Lien and Mien-tsz) is important in hospitality in the particular context of communication. Findings also demonstrate that Confucian values is essential for people's communication and relationship building. It will particularly help if we can make those values more tangible by blending it into guest relationshipbuilding and staff communication. Given that it is a small scale research with limited sample size incorporated, it may not be significant enough to generalize the findings. It is hoped that more research will be done to explore the above phenomenon in an extensive way.

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FOOD AS A COPING MECHANISM BY CALL CENTER AGENTS IN SELECTED COMPANIES

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INTRODUCTION

The study sought to investigate how call center agents in selected companies in Metro Manila regard food as their coping mechanism in the workplace. Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) is an important economic driver in the Philippines and a popular job option because of the competitive compensation package it usually offers. Majority of the clients of Philippine BPO companies are located in different time zones which result in irregular working hours. Their continuing popularity poses a new set of health hazards to Filipino professionals. Call center agents eat less nutritious food and more junk food because of lack of time to cook nutritious food and inaccessibility to health food in their workplace (Nessia, R. 2013). The Philippine Population Commission and the University of San Carlos in Cebu (Suarez, D., 2010) reported that call center agents do not eat enough healthy food, consume high amount of caffeinated drinks and fast food, and have an irregular mealtime. More female workers also skip meals with fried chicken as their most popular food choice followed by chips, burgers and fries. Another study showed that 75% of Call Center agents have normal nutritional status and 25% classified as obese or underweight (Loverio, J. & Guevarra, S., 2016). Half of the participants eat three or more meals but most do not take their meal on time. It is thus, important to determine the problems and the root cause so that prevention, control and solutions can be devised to mitigate it.

This study aims to help BPO companies identify the types of food that should be made available in canteens and nearby establishments to provide the call center agents enjoyment and motivation. Its main objective is to determine the role of food in helping call center agents of selected BPO companies, cope up in the workplace. Specifically, it aims to: a.) identify the food available to call center agents; b.) determine the type of food that they prefer to better equip and motivate them in their work and; c.) explain how they perceive food as their medium of dealing with the demands of a call center job.

Food Choices are shaped by biological, economic, physical, social and psychological factors as well as consumer knowledge, attitudes, belief and bias. Biological needs refer to energy and nutrients needed by the body to function; palatability which also increases appetite and food intake and sensory aspects - taste, smell, appearance and texture of food. Economic and physical factors of food choice refer to the price or cost of food, accessibility and availability and level of education, knowledge of good nutrition, time constraint and conveniently-packed food-ready-to eat meals and pre-packed fruits and vegetables. Social factors refer to social class, culture and social contexts, as influenced by attitudes and habits developed through interaction with other people, support from the family or co-workers. Psychological factors like mood, stress and guilt can alter behavior and affect health. Consumer knowledge, attitudes, belief and bias differ by individual, population and across countries (Determinants of Food Choices, 2014).

METHODOLOGY

This study used purposive sampling using Snowball Methods to gather data among five BPO companies in Metro Manila. A Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with eight call center agents was also conducted. A pilot-tested questionnaire was used to collect the data from 303 participants. Call center agents who preferred to do it online used a Google questionnaire. Key informants include those who helped recruit other participants for the research, some are either team leaders or call center agents. The data on comfort food
preference and consumption were categorized into four: Snack Type A (sweet) candies, donuts, cakes, ice creams, cookies, chocolates, chips, Filipino native rice cakes; Snack Type B (savory) barbecue, meat dumplings, breads, cup noodles, street food, sandwiches, soup, ramen; Meal Type A (rice, home-cooked viands, casseroles, local noodle, ramen etc.); Meal Type B (burger, pizza, fast food type, sausage, sausage sandwich, spaghetti, pasta).

FINDINGS

The 303 participants from selected BPO companies around Metro Manila comprised of 71 percent rank-in-file employees (call center agents, customer care associate, customer service representative, associate, agent, sales specialists or associates, staff, and support). Other respondents included supervisors, managers, asst. managers, management trainees and trainers. Regular employees comprised 78 percent and 13.5 percent under probation. About 47 percent have been employed for 1-5 years; 18 percent for 5 to 10 years and 6 months to 1 year. Almost 80 percent for eight hours with 9 percent working for less than eight hours and the rest, for more than eight hours. Most participants were aged 21-26 years, college graduate (73 percent), single (76 percent), mostly female (62 percent) and earning a salary between Php 10,000 to 30,000 (US $20.8 to 62.4). With the low minimum wage of Php 481.00/day (US $ 9.6), BPO work is popular to young Filipinos because of its higher compensation package (Loverio, J. & Guevarra, S., 2016). Castro and Deluna (2013) identified salary, civil status, educational attainment, job prospect, work hours environment and geographical factors as employees’ main reasons for working in BPOs. This research shows single persons as more likely to work as call center agents than married persons as the latter value family time more. Salary and education are equally important with respondents mostly college graduates. However, the probability of working for a BPO decreases by 1.47 percent per one year level of formal education. Those with a master’s degree (0.3 percent) prefer to find work that suits their degree.

Majority of the BPO companies offer water and coffee, with the latter preferred by most participants as it keeps them awake. Seventy one percent works for a company with a canteen or eating area serviced by food providers. Most common food offerings include rice meals with chicken, pork, fish, beef or vegetable viands. Most participants eat once a day in their company canteens because of convenience. Gender, educational attainment, civil status and living arrangement do not affect the participants’ food choices. Most participants (47 percent) subsist on their comfort food: sweet snack type of food (cakes, chocolates, and ice cream) and only 17 percent on savory snack food. Forty five percent choose savory snack food and 37.6 percent, sweet snack food. Those below 20-25 years old and between 35-45 years old consume mostly sweet snacks. Those aged 26-35 and 46-55 usually consume savory snack food. This result supports Wansink et al. (2003) who stated the choice of comfort food as age and gender-dependent. Younger women eat more snacks than those 55 years and up while males prefer meals. In this study however, gender is independent from the choice for comfort food.

This study also shows that participants are more likely to consume sweet food regardless of food. However, those experiencing negative emotions tend to eat savory snack food. These include barbecue, meat dumplings, steamed buns with meat fillings, sandwiches, soup or cup noodles. Kandiah, J. et al. (2006) also reported that stressed subjects experienced increase in appetite, and choose sweet food and mixed dishes. Sweet food includes dessert, candy and chocolate bars, ice cream, sweet breads, among others while mixed dishes include sandwiches or burgers, meat items, casseroles, tacos and ethnic and fast food. Habhab et al. (2009) reported that participants suffering from laboratory-induced stress preferred sweet and high fat food. Highly-stressed Korean students also had a high intake of candies, chocolates, breads, flavoured milk and confectionaries (Kim, Y. et al., 2013). Participants of Dube, L. et al (2005) preferred high calorie sweet (HCS) food under stressful condition. Sweet products regulate the negative emotions of highly-stressed individuals. The latter felt happy, satisfied, rejuvenated, stress free, contented or fulfilled after eating their comfort food.

The type of food consumed by the
participants does not affect their Body Mass Index (BMI). Those working in companies with canteen consume sweet snack food regardless of BMI. However, underweight participants consume mostly sweet snack type of comfort food while those with normal to high BMI mostly consume savory food. Most participants with no canteen eat savory snack food regardless of their BMI. However, those with low to normal BMI consumed mostly sweet snack food. Overweight to obese participants eat comfort food such as pizza, fast food, burger, etc. Also, participants with company canteen eat their comfort food 2x a week, while those without eat their comfort food 3x a week. The availability of their comfort food in restaurants outside their company encourages them to eat it 2x per week.

IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

Food service providers or canteens usually serve rice meals and snack food (sandwiches, baked products and junk food). Although a most participants consider sweet snacks as comfort food, majority eat savory food. Positive emotions encourage the participants to eat more sweet snack food. Negative emotions encourage them to eat savory snack food. Gender does not affect the choice of comfort food but age does. Most of the younger participants prefer sweet snack food while their counterparts prefer savory snacks. Comfort food in company canteens also elicits lower consumption per week, affecting consumption per Body Mass Index. Majority of the participants with company canteen eat sweet snack food while those without canteen eat savory snack food as comfort food. Call center agents of companies with canteen show lower stress levels. Negative emotion triggers the urge to eat savory snacks.

Thus, companies can provide access to food service providers for call center agents working in the graveyard shift to help alleviate their stress levels. Food service providers may work with a nutritionist-dietitians in developing nutritionally-balanced and stress-reducing food.

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TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND REGIONAL PRODUCTIVITY
EFFICIENCY: EVIDENCE FROM CHINA

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Yanping Xu, Xiamen University

For a particular poor region, tourism development may result in many direct economic outcomes, such as the decrease of unemployment rate and alleviating poverty, which provides the primary account for a poor region to develop tourism. The enhancement of economy performance is not a surprising outcome of tourism development, given that the increase of tourist flows to a poor region generally corresponds to the investment of regional infrastructure, the start of businesses with a purpose to meet the requirements of tourists, and the significant revenue contributed by tourists.

Besides these direct economic impacts of tourism development, some indirect impacts have been referred to recently. For instance, Marrocu and Paci (2011) propose that tourist flows to a region may function as a precious channel to introduce new information, encourage knowledge exchange and stimulate innovation within a destination, and hence the productivity efficiency of a region is improved. Relying on the data from European regions, Marrocu and Paci (2011) validate their proposition. Marrocu and Paci (2011)’s argument is worthy of further analysis from tourism researchers, because this argument represents a fresh perspective to give a deeply level reason for a poor region to develop tourism.

Following Marrocu and Paci (2011)’s work, this study wants to investigate the impact of regional tourism on regional innovation, using southwestern China (including 40 cities in Sichuan province, Yunnan province and Guizhou province) as a case. On the one hand, southwestern China is an undeveloped region in terms of economy development. The overall economy level of southwestern China lags far behind those of the central and eastern China, and many people in this region are afflicted with poverty for a long time period. On the other hand, Southwestern China boasts rich natural and cultural heritage, rooted in unique and diversified culture of local minority nationalities, which may be exploited for tourism development. Actually, many regions in southwestern China have experienced the rapid increase of tourist demand, such as Lijiang city in Yunnan Province and Leshan city in Sichuan province. The southwestern China provides a suitable context to implement this study.

This study collects panel data at the prefecture level from southwest China to estimate how tourist arrivals impact regional innovation. A basic model is established as follows.

\[ TFP_{it} = \alpha + \alpha_j T_{it}(1j \sum_{j=1}^{X} \beta_j x_{ij} + \delta_i + \gamma_t + \epsilon_{it}) \]

In equation (1), \( TFP \) (total factor productivity of a region) is used as the proxy of regional innovation and productivity efficiency (Cole & Neumayer, 2006), which is the explained variable in this study. \( T \) is the tourist arrivals to a region, the explanatory variable in the model. \( x_{ij} \) represents one of controlled variables which are determinants of productivity efficiency of a region, according to the current literature.

The possible contributions of this study are two-fold: first, it uses the evidence from China to test an important argument that tourism development may create an indirect economic impact on a region, i.e. to boost the innovation and technology progress for a region, which are considered as sources for long-term economy growth for a region; second, it uses practical implication for a poor region, like southwestern China, how to utilize tourism flow as a channel to stimulate innovation.

**Keywords:** regional tourism, total factor productivity, panel data model, innovation.
A STUDY ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING RELATIONSHIP MODEL FOR GASTRONOMY TOURISTS IN TAINAN

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INTRODUCTION

Research has shown that local food consumption is widely recognized to be an essential part of the tourists’ experience and can be important both as a tourism attraction in itself and in helping to shape the image of a destination (Boniface, 2003; Cohen and Avieli, 2004; Hall and Sharples, 2008). In recent years, attempts to improve the economic and cultural sustainability of both tourism and hospitality, gastronomy tourism have become one of the main tourism purposes that international tourists travel to a destination. Tainan city is famous for local food since Ching Dynasty, formalized of regional specialties and resulting in the rise of food districts. However, a number of scholars have recently stressed the perceived value, experiential marketing, satisfaction and behavioral intentions of tourist’s gastronomy experience in the social scientific literature. Hence, the purposes of this study utilize questionnaires and adoption statistical analysis techniques to examine the tourists’ experience of that and to investigate the relationship model among the quality of involvement, experiences, perceived value, and psychological well-being (PWB) in Tainan.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Pearce and Kang (2009) studied the effects of prior and recent experience on continuing interest in tourist settings, the value of consumer involvement as a way of explaining increasing interest in tourist setting participation was consistently supported. Hoffman and Novak (1996) summarized incorporating important consumer behavior issues such as involvement, search, decision making, consumer benefits, and motivation. Psychological well-being is usually conceptualized as a combination of some positive affective states such as happiness (the hedonic perspective), functioning with optimal effectiveness in individual and social life (the eudemonic perspective) (Deci & Ryan 2008). As summarized by Huppert (2009), “Psychological well-being is about lives going well. It is the combination of feeling good and functioning effectively.” Therefore, people with high psychological well-being are reported to feel happy, well supported, and satisfied with life. Csikszentmihalyi (2000) commented that the level of material consumption, in addition to not being scalable to the world’s population, also does not correlate with people’s happiness and subjective well-being (Csikszentmihalyi, 1999; Diener, 2000; Myers, 2000) In this study, psychological well-being is measured with Lee and Chen PWB scales (Lee & Chen, 2006), which encompass three dimensions, including “memory of happiness”, “pleasant emotion”, and “happy and content”.

METHOD

A questionnaire survey was conducted to collect empirical data from gourmet tourists in Tainan. The questionnaire was pre-tested and revised to ensure content validity. Data was analyzed quantitatively using SPSS software. We used the Lisrel 8.52 statistic software for structural equation modeling (SEM) to examine causality. Due to the limited time and manpower, a judgmental sampling method was adopted. A total of 400 questionnaires were delivered and 385 effective samples were obtained for tourists in Tainan. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to specify the structure between observed indicators and latent constructs, and test the validity of measurement model. After
determining the best-fitted final measurement models for each construct, the overall measurement model was estimated and the structural model was further tested. A relationship model of this study is proposed and six hypotheses are made as follows:

H1: Involvement (INV) has a positive significant effect on Experiences (EXP).
H2: Involvement (INV) has a positive significant effect on Perceived value (PV).
H3: Involvement (INV) has a positive significant effect on Psychological well-being (PWB).
H4: Experiences (EXP) has a positive significant effect on Perceived value (PV).
H5: Experiences (EXP) has a positive significant effect on Psychological well-being (PWB).
H6: Perceived value (PV) has a positive significant effect on Psychological well-being (PWB).

FINDINGS

This study aims to discuss the psychological well-being (PWB) relationship for gourmet tourists in Tainan, constructing a structure equation model based upon the influence of involvement, experiences, and perceived value on gourmet tourists’ psychological well-being, in order to examine the relationship model. Finally, this study presents the conclusion and provides the suggestions. The gourmet tourists’ “Involvement(INV) related to Experiences(EXP)”, “Experiences(EXP) related to Perceived value(PV)”, “Experiences(EXP) related to Psychological well-being(PWB)” and “Perceived value(PV) related to Psychological well-being(PWB)” were positively significance. Based on this conclusion, it shows become previous experiential value and psychological well-being for all Gourmet tourists in Tainan. This study suggests that gastronomy tourists’ involvement, experiences, perceived value and psychological well-being be enhanced by establishing official units. It also recommends that they improve neighboring infrastructure to promote the practicality of gastronomy. Enhance tourists’ experiences feelings and such effort, international visions can be further explored to strengthen international market visibility. Scenic area can use carry capacity to catch with gastronomical environment. In addition, some suggestions for improving the strategies and activities of gastronomy tourism and provided based on the results of this study.

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THE REVIVAL OF TRADITIONAL CULINARY EXPERIENCE IN TOURIST DESTINATIONS IN THAILAND: A CASE STUDY OF GONG KHONG MARKET, AYUTHAYA

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INTRODUCTION

The paper discusses how the concept of ‘cultural involution’ operates in the delivery of food experience in the context of Thailand tourism by studying Gong Khong Market, a nostalgic-themed touristic marketplace located in Ayuthaya, the former capital of Thailand (previously known as Siam). The purpose of the paper is to examine how Thai traditional culture is appropriated in the contemporary context through the gastronomic experience offered, as well as assess the impact of tourism on the spiritual values of traditional cultures once converted into commodities.

It could be said that Thailand is famed for its gastronomy, which can be explained in terms of the abundance of food supply (Poupon, 2013) and culinary diversity (Kanokpongchai et al., 2001). Thailand is internationally reputed for cuisine, as evidenced by the constant increase in number of Thai restaurants outside the country (Murray, 2007; Sunanta, 2005; The Government Public Relations Department, 2016) Tasting authentic Thai food is among the main quest of visitors to Thailand (Bender & Forbes, 2013; Bernama, 2016; Lonely Planet, 2012; Shea, 2016). Due to the growing interest of international tourists in discovering Thai food culture, food experiences in Thailand are not only limited to tourist oriented eateries that feature certain international favourite Thai dishes but extend to visiting to local eateries, culinary workshops, fine-dining restaurants, farm visits. It could be said that Thai culinary identity is in the process of ongoing creation (Pangkesorn, 2013). Traditional Thai cuisine is subject to contemporary reinterpretations by new generations of restaurateurs, as exemplified by the attempts of Thai restaurants to deliver memorable experiences to customers by adopting the multi-sensory approach to eating, and the development of Thai fusion food by combining Thai culinary knowhow with other world’s popular cuisines.

It is obvious that many tourist destinations and tourist activities that exist today are resulted from the revival of the past. The term ‘cultural involution’ coined by McKean (1973), refers to the meaningful revival of traditional culture by converting elements of traditional culture on the verge of extinction into tourist experiences. This suggests that the concept of authenticity in tourism is not about preserving the original state of culture but rather acknowledging the possibilities of culture to be altered when it travels from one social context to another (Cohen, 1988; Salamone, 1997; Shepherd, 2002). In today’s society, the revival of old-fashioned gastronomy in many tourism destinations is very much lauded for the positive contribution on the preservation of local culinary culture (O’Sullivan & Jackson, 2002), and regarded as a measure to diversify tourism attractiveness in destinations that has reached the maturity stage of their lifecycle (Kappert, 2000; Scarpato, 2002). Indeed, it is important to preserve the original characters of old-fashioned gastronomy (Avieli, 2013; Vitterso & Amilien, 2011). Nevertheless, gastronomic tourism experiences should be understood as an adaptation of traditional gastronomic culture for the contemporary usage (Spence & Piqueras-Fiszman, 2014). Different forms of narrative are used in the presentation of traditional gastronomy to evoke tourists’ imagery of good old times (Stalker, 2009). Food experience is not solely about the gustatory experience of eating but should be regarded as the educational activity enabling tourists to learn local culture and history through food (Hall, 2013). In a way, gastronomic experiences can enhance visitors’ perception of authenticity in tourism destinations (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2005; Robinson & Clifford, 2007).

The originality research paper is to discuss the process of reviving Thai traditional food culture into tourism commodity by focusing on food experiences offered in a traditional market, a type of tourism attraction that has increasingly gained popularity over the last decade (Cohen...
2016). In addition, it hopes to fill the gap in the study of gastronomic tourism in the Thailand context, for there are very few academic literatures exploring that area.

METHOD

The research project operated on the qualitative basis and employed the ethnographic approach, where a series of methods were used in the process of data collection. It comprised of several day field trips in Gong Khong Market during 2012-2014. The field research was divided into two phases: December 2012- March 2013 and January -February 2014. The second round of the research was aimed to confirm the reliability of the data collected in the first round, as well as record changes that occurred on the site from the previous years (if any). During the fieldwork, semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the manager of the marketplace, 11 food traders. The qualitative questionnaire was used to collect data from visitors, due to the researcher’s limited ability to approach visitors, who tended to refuse to take part in in the face-to-face interviews due to numerous unfavourable circumstances. All participants were asked give either written or verbal consent before taking part in the research project. The venue observation was conducted on the same days as the interviews took place. It aims to acquire data on the rough plan of the market, the surrounding of the market, the usage of the market space, the characteristic of culinary products sold, and the behaviour of food sellers and visitors. The observation data was recorded by both in the form of note taking and photos.

FINDINGS

Gong Khong Market was established in 2006 by a local-based land developer who has a deep passion for history and culture of Ayuthaya, a former capital city of the Thai kingdom during 14th -18th century. This touristic market is intended to revive the marketplace of the ancient customs houses that existed in this area when Ayuthaya served as the kingdom’s capital. Opened Thursday- Sunday from 10am-5pm, the market sells a variety of the commodities, including food items, decorative objects, handicraft products, and tourist souvenirs. Seatings are provided where visitors can purchase ready to eat food and eat on the premises. Besides organizing a number of cultural performances and activities, the market also operates traditional Thai wedding services for those interested.

The findings in the markets reveal that a variety of elements of traditional culture are revived in the development and promotion of gastronomic experiences offered in the market. This is not limited to the commodification of old-fashioned foodways but also embraces the creative presentation of nostalgia serving to construct unique character of gastronomic experiences.

Old-fashioned gastronomy

There were a variety of local-grown raw fruits and vegetable, old-fashioned dishes sold by traders, who brought recipes from their childhood and those which has been passed down from their ancestors in the production of culinary items sold in the marketplace. Many traders chose to use old-fashioned utensils in handling food, and used banana leaves to package food. Some of them justified that old-fashioned cooking utensils are better methods to obtain better taste of food. Nevertheless, the market did not refrain traders from selling non-local and modernized culinary items. According to the manager, the presence of modern character in the market should be read as a trade characteristic of the Ayuthaya period, where new types of consuming products were continuously introduced to the kingdom through foreign traders.

Visual attributes of culinary experience

The research found that ambience of the market the character could considerably enhance the quality of food experiences in the marketplace. Numerous visual elements were used to connect visitors to the ideal good old times: open-plan thatched roof house and low-rise food stalls, requiring customers to bend down when negotiate with traders. Traders were required to wear Thai traditional dresses and perform a traditional Tom-Tom dance to welcome visitors to the market. Besides old-fashioned food items, old-fashioned decors, utensils, and toys sold in the market were attributes to creation of nostalgic atmosphere.

Hospitality of traders

The research found that hospitality was a factor attributing to the positive impression on gastronomic experiences. It was the intention of
the manager of the site to contrast the traditional trade atmosphere with that in large cities, where traders are likely to be impolite. In so doing, the manager demanded all traders to behave politely to customers and welcome everyone to brows in their stalls, no matter they made purchase or not, like what happened in marketplaces in the pre-modern times. Moreover, the idea of hospitality was translated into sincerity, seen from the manager strongly encouraging traders to prepare food with the same quality as the food they prepared at home.

CONCLUSION

The revival of traditional Thai culture in the case of gastronomic experiences offered in Gong Khong Market demonstrates a meaningful transformation of culture from being common ways of life of an era to contemporary consuming commodities that are connected to the traditional way of life. The presence of traditional gastronomy in the market is seen a positive action to conserve traditional ways of life, which would be otherwise disappear. The paper demonstrates that culture is not something static but subject to change according to time. Gastronomic experiences are not about pure duplication of old-fashioned foodways but rather contemporary creation of eating experience serving visitors’ desire for nostalgia and curiosity of learning traditional way of life. A variety of visual elements of gastronomic experiences are intentionally recreated to enhance visitors’ perception of authentic traditional experiences, whilst certain elements of traditional culture that contradict with the contemporary values have been left out to correspond with current consumer preferences. Some ancient recipes have been intentionally modified to meet with modern palate and dietary concerns.

The research paper suggests the importance of the collaboration between gastronomy and innovation in developing unique experiences. Through the case study of Gong Khong Market, the paper marks possibilities of tourism attractions in Thailand to generate its selling points from creative delivery of gastronomic experiences (Fox, 2007), which in a way correspond with the growing importance of the notion of creative economy in tourism industry across the world.

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MOTIVATION OF FOOD CONSUMPTION, PERCEIVED WELL-BEING AND FOOD RELATED PERSONALITY OF HOT SPRING TOURISTS

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Chih-Hung Wang, National Taichung University of Education
Huei-Siang Jhang-Jian, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism

INTRODUCTION

As located in the Pacific Rim, Taiwan has diverse and rich hot spring resources. Since 2001, the leisure time of local people has been increasing after full implementation of the two-day weekends. The domestic tourism culture increases significantly in Taiwan hot spring culture. At present, hot spring hotels offer not only opportunities of soaking oneself in a hot spring, but also setting up a number of spa-related facilities. In addition, many of this type of resorts offers food and drink emphasizing local characteristics. Due to the fact that today’s diet is no longer just paying attention to satiate, tasting food is in fact an effective way of experiencing the local culture for tourists. Tourists gain joys by tasting food, thereby enabling the tourists to produce a special feeling toward the local. The visible diet plays an important role in food or cultural tourism. Food related personality such as food neophilic of tourists is directly related to perceived well-being. Tourism diet can also be considered a source of human happiness or well-being. When tourists experience the hot spring and enjoy the food in the hot spring area, it has also become an interesting and novel experience. As such, the research site of this study is confined to the Beitou, Taipei. The main research objective is to explore the relationship among motivation of food consumption, well-being and food related personality of tourists at a hot spring area.

METHOD

With respect to the research design, a quantitative approach by using the survey method is selected for this study. The purposive sampling is adopted. Tourists whose age are 18 years and older and have experienced food in the Beitou, Taipei hot spring area within the past year are the targeted respondents. Prior to the formal survey, a pilot study was conducted so as to obtain reliability and face validity. The survey time frame include both winter and spring.

Survey instruments were developed based on previous empirical research including studies of Hills & Argyle (2002), Mak et al. (2009), Chitra et al. (2016). Constructs such as motivation, perceived well-being, food related personality, and consumption characteristics of tourists are included in the questionnaires. A 5-point Likert scale is administered: 1 stands for “very agreeable”; 5 stands for “very disagreeable”. After the valid questionnaires are collected, SPSS and AMOS statistical softwares are used to analyze the collected data. Data analysis methods include descriptive frequencies, one-way ANOVA, independent t-test, correlation analysis, structural equation modeling and etc.

FINDINGS

The results show that food consumption motivation of tourists has positive effect on well-being. The food related personality play as the moderating effect between food consumption motivation and perceived well-being. Some significant differences exist in perceived well-being between demographic variables of the sample and the consumption characteristics. According to the results of this study, specific recommendations for the hot spring food operators and related catering industry are made as references for future marketing management.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The findings of this research could expand our knowledge in hot spring tourism as well as in food tourism. Furthermore, motivation of food consumption and perceived well-being of tourists are explored so as to fill the void of academic
As for practitioners’ perspectives, this research provides useful information for both promoting local food as well as attracting more tourists to experience hot spring food/cuisines.

**Keywords:** Hot spring tourists; Motivation; Well-being; Food related personality

**REFERENCES**


EMPATHY AND PREFERENCE FOR TRAVEL DESTINATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

The determinants of tourists’ decision-making behavior can vary significantly. Demographic factors, such as tourists’ age, sex, occupation, and income, have been traditionally used to investigate tourists’ decisions on where they prefer to go and what they do there. However, psychological factors have been recently recognized as determinants of tourists’ decision-making behavior. For example, tourists’ personality seems to influence preference for travel destinations. Lepp and Gibson (2007) demonstrated that sensation seeking, as a personality trait, influenced destination choice. Also, travel-related consumer-generated media creation was determined by personality traits (Yoo & Gretzel, 2011). Along with these studies, Yashiro and Oguchi (2003) argued that self-monitoring is related to decision-making regarding travel destinations. Self-monitoring is a personality trait proposed by Snyder (1974), and Lennox and Wolfe (1984) studied it in depth and developed the Self-Monitoring Scale, which consists of two factors, “ability to modify self-presentation” and “sensitivity to expressive behavior of others.” Yashiro and Oguchi (2003) pointed out that female university students whose ability to modify self-presentation was high paid more attention to others and tended to act as they were expected to; thus, they preferred traveling to destinations in nature and places of scenic beauty where they could relax.

Therefore, this study focused on another personality trait, empathy, and examined its relationship with a preference for travel destinations. Human beings are inherently able to understand the feelings of others and share their own. Empathy is an essential trait to encourage and facilitate the establishment of relationships between individuals and involves both a cognitive aspect to understand and infer feelings of others and an emotional aspect of sharing and experiencing these feelings as if they were one's own. Davis (1983) understood empathy as a multi-dimensional concept and developed the Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI). The IRI evaluates empathy from four standpoints, “fantasy,” “perspective taking,” “empathic concern,” and “personal distress.” Fantasy involves the respondents’ tendency to transpose themselves imaginatively into the feelings and actions of fictitious characters in books, movies, and plays. Perspective taking refers to the respondents’ tendency to adopt the psychological point of view of others spontaneously. The emotional concern involves “other-oriented” sympathy and concern for unfortunate others, and personal distress refers to “self-oriented” feelings of personal anxiety and unease in tense interpersonal settings.

According to a study by Tobari (2000), individuals who show high levels of fantasy, perspective taking, and empathic concern tend to be sensitive. These individuals will focus on and prefer destinations where they can relax, such as nature and places of scenic beauty (Hypothesis 1). Additionally, Tobari (2000) showed that personal distress had a positive correlation with emotionality and a negative correlation with self-regulation. Thus, personal distress will show a positive correlation with a preference for entertainment districts (Hypothesis 2).

METHOD

An Internet survey was conducted. Data collection was delegated to Rakuten Research, Inc. in early April 2016. A total of 300 individuals, 249 men and 51 women, in full-time employment, and aged 20 to 69 years participated in the study. The survey asked respondents to evaluate their preference about travel destinations on a scale of preference based on the study by Yashiro and Oguchi (2003) and complete a Japanese version of the IRI (Sakurai, 1988). The scale of preference for travel destinations consisted of 28 items to be evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale. The Japanese version of the IRI consisted of 28 items to be rated on a 4-point Likert scale.
FINDINGS

Empathy. Table 1 shows the factor structure of the Japanese version of the IRI. Factor analysis (principal factor method and promax rotation) was conducted and four factors were extracted: “personal distress” (6 items, $\alpha = .76$), “perspective taking” (5 items, $\alpha = .74$), “fantasy” (4 items, $\alpha = .77$), and “empathic concern (-)” (5 items, $\alpha = .67$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Personal distress</th>
<th>Perspective-taking</th>
<th>Fantasy</th>
<th>Empathic concern (-)</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I tend to lose control during emergencies.</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In emergency situations, I feel apprehensive and ill-at-ease.</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being in a tense emotional situation scares me.</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I see someone who badly needs help in an emergency, I go to pieces.</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am usually pretty effective in dealing with emergencies.</td>
<td>-.46</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes feel helpless when I am in the middle of a very emotional situation.</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to look at everybody’s side of a disagreement before I make a decision.</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I’m upset at someone, I usually try to “put myself in his shoes” for a while.</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After seeing a play or movie, I have felt as though I were one of the characters.</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I really get involved with the feelings of the characters in a novel.</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I watch a good movie, I can very easily put myself in the place of a leading character.</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I am reading an interesting story or novel, I imagine how I would feel if the events in the story were happening to me.</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usually I am not extremely concerned when I see someone else in trouble.</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes I don’t feel sorry for other people when they are having problems.</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don’t feel very much pity for them.</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I see someone gets hurt, I tend to remain calm.</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I’m sure I’m right about something, I don’t waste much time listening to other people’s arguments.</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eigenvalue 2.55  2.26  2.40  1.69  Contribution ratio 15.03%  11.84%  8.09%  5.31%  40.26%
Empathy and preference for travel destinations. In order to investigate the relationship between preference for travel destinations and empathy, correlation coefficients were calculated; these are shown in Table 2. Fantasy, perspective taking, and emphatic concern were associated with preference for destinations in nature and places of scenic beauty; therefore Hypothesis 1 was supported. Moreover, personal distress showed a positive correlation with a preference for entertainment districts; Thus, Hypothesis 2 was also supported.

Table 2 The correlation coefficients between the preference for travel destinations and empathy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Personal distress</th>
<th>Perspective taking</th>
<th>Fantasy</th>
<th>Empathic concern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hot-springs</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warm places</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picturesque places</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.12*</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seas</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historic sites</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>-.18**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antiquities</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.10†</td>
<td>.11*</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mountains</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.12*</td>
<td>-.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shrines and temples</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.12*</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.16**</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lakes</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grasslands</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.12*</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>-.13*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valleys</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>-.12*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forests</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>-.11†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Calcareaeous) caves</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theme parks</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.10†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping malls</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museums</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beaches</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>-.10†</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galleries</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farms</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sacred spots</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concert halls</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.10†</td>
<td>.15**</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High-rise buildings</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movie theaters</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.10†</td>
<td>.21**</td>
<td>-.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cold places</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.10†</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snowy places</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.14*</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deserts</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jungles</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note ** p < .01, * p < .05, † p < .10

IMPLICATIONS

Hypothesis 1 was supported, as fantasy, perspective taking, and emphatic concern showed a positive correlation with a preference for destinations in nature. However, there were differences in terms of concrete destinations. For example, people whose perspective taking was high preferred quiet nature scenes like grasslands. In contrast, people whose fantasy level was high preferred adventurous nature scenes like deserts and jungles. Therefore, individuals who tend to get involved with the feelings of characters in a novel might prefer adventurous destinations in nature. On the contrary, those who tend to adopt the psychological point of view of others spontaneously might prefer nature scenes where they can relax.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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DOES TRAVELING TO PLAY POKÉMON GO CONTRIBUTES TO TOURISM?

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Jinman Kim, Teikyo University

INTRODUCTION

Pokémon GO is a game application designed for both iOS and Android and has been developed jointly by Niantic, Inc. and the Pokémon Company. Pokémon GO was released in July 2016. The virtual field in Pokémon GO is based on real-world locations. The players enjoy the game while on the move and travel is required in the scheme of the game. Therefore, Pokémon GO becomes topical in the travelling and tourism area and it is expected to attract a large number of people from the viewpoint of regional revitalization through tourism.

On the other hand, behavioral and characteristic differences between conventional tourists and Pokémon GO aimed travelers have not been discussed enough. Also, the extent to which tourism businesses use Pokémon GO to attract tourists has not yet been clarified. The purpose of this study is to examine the following hypotheses. Traveling to play Pokémon GO will be different from conventional tourism structurally and characteristically. Travel to play Pokémon GO will make new contributions to tourism to a certain degree but it will be limited.

METHOD

We looked at a general view of Pokémon GO and analyzed news about Pokémon GO and tourism. After that, we compared traveling to play Pokémon GO with conventional tourist behavior and characteristics, and discussed how Pokémon GO will contribute to tourism.

First, in order to understand Pokémon GO, we looked at its TV game series and animation series as well as Pokémon GO as a game application, and talked about the topics related with the study. The news and topics about Pokémon GO and tourism were classified into three groups: expectation to revitalize tourism in the future, programs applying Pokémon GO’s features, and Pokémon GO as a tourism resource.

Next, traveling to play Pokémon GO and conventional tourist behaviors were compared based on the topics about Pokémon GO and tourism. Finally, its structural and characteristic differences were discussed and the ways and extent of Pokémon GO’s future contribution to tourism were considered.

FINDINGS

Topics about Pokémon GO and tourism. A Pokémon GO player walks around with a smartphone with Pokémon GO installed onto it. The player explores the virtual world which is based on map information in the real-world location, using a mobile device's GPS capability. The player discovers and captures virtual creatures called Pokémon, trains Pokémon, completes the Pokédex, obtains and stocks up on helpful items, and makes Pokémon battle each other.

The distances the player walks effect the progress of the game. Certain types of Pokémon appear at certain places, so the player needs to visit various places to get Pokémon. Also, there are PokéStops where you can get helpful items, and Gyms where you can make Pokémon battle each other.

As for the topics about Pokémon GO and tourism, some regions where a lot of Pokémon appeared tried to hold Pokémon GO events. Also, some regions tried to attract tourists by setting it so that specific Pokémon would appear or the appearance rate of Pokémon would increase in certain places. For example, Yokosuka-city in Kanagawa prefecture made a Pokémon GO map. Also, the affected areas of the Great East Japan Earthquake collaborated on a program to attract tourists with the game site operating company.
Structure and characteristics of moving and staying aiming to play Pokémon GO. As a result of comparing travel to play Pokémon GO and conventional tourism, the following differences were found.

- The game play which is a purpose of travel continues while the player is moving and staying there without an interval.
- The destination is decided based on purposes and values in the game.
- Transfer methods and paths are decided for convenience and progress of game.
- Where to visit in the destination depends on purposes in the game.
- Schedule of destinations depends on purposes in the game.
- The player has interests in the geography of the destination, but not cultural factors like food.

Though travel to play Pokémon GO accompanies transferring and staying in the real world, its central purpose is to play the game and the events in the game. The traveler has his interests in the game. The traveler acts just in the virtual field while in the real world. If the game play is regarded as a kind of “business,” travel to play Pokémon GO is a type of business travel.

Consequently, we assume the following phenomena.
-Values and images oriented from certain areas are affected by evaluations on Pokémon GO.

-Relationships and interactions among travelers are different from those in conventional tourism.
-Existence of Pokémon GO players undermines the satisfactions of conventional tourists.
-Response and organization of host communities do not match because the behavior pattern of Pokémon GO players is different from those of conventional tourists.
-Decision-making of the game operating company and relationships between the tourism business and the game site operating company have and exert influence.

IMPLICATIONS

From these points, Pokémon GO is expected to attract tourists to a certain degree, but the conventional contribution to tourism is limited. In some cases, original and existing tourism resources and attractions might be damaged. In addition, even if the tourism business makes efforts towards the traveler to play Pokémon GO, it might have limitations to satisfy the conventional tourists and increase the attractiveness of tourism destinations. The attractiveness and images produced by Pokémon GO do not match those tourism destinations.

However, it is difficult to distinguish between them from how they seem. It is expected that they enjoy tourism while playing Pokémon GO while on the go like business travelers. The tourism business is required to respond to each in a manner that satisfies both together.
Finally, we discussed future research topics, and clarified what and how considerate the balance between conventional tourism resources and local Pokémon GO is through a filed study.

REFERENCES


CONSIDERING DESTINATION MATURITY, ETHNICITY, AND RESIDENT ATTITUDES IN TWO ETHNIC NEIGHBORHOODS OF JAPAN

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Kyle Woosnam, University of Georgia

INTRODUCTION

In the past three decades, researchers have devoted themselves to explore how tourism influences lives of the local residents (Ap, 1992; Sirakaya et al., 2002). While researchers (Ko & Stewart, 2000; Lankford & Howard, 1994) often explore perceived impacts as an indicator of residents’ attitudes to tourism, other related constructs have been considered. For example, residents’ cooperation, or rivalry, within a community have been examined, suggesting that tourism may be an opportunity to bond residents or a source of competition over the access to tourism resources (Jamison, 1999; Woosnam et al., 2016). Residents’ empowerment has also been examined as an important predictor of residents’ attitudes (Maruyama et al., 2016).

Residents’ perception of tourism may be a function of the stage of development within a particular destination as Butler (2004) and Lepp (2007) suggest. Generally, locals hold more positive perspectives about tourism in initial stages of development but over time, these positive attitudes erode as development reaches certain levels (Long et al., 1990). While some studies compare attitudes of residents at destinations with varying levels of development (as a result of burgeoning tourism) in coastal areas (Akis, 1996; Diedrich & Garcia-Buades, 2009), such comparisons have not been conducted among destinations focused on ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT).

In addition to the stages of tourism development, residents’ perceptions may differ within a local community. No community is truly homogenous in its sociodemographic and socioeconomic composition as well as perspectives of tourism. As Crehan (1997) argues, a “community” is often fractured into various social groups, and each group is likely to have divergent perceptions of tourism. In the case of ENT, ethnicity of residents may even influence residents’ attitudes about tourism. To attract tourists, destinations of ENT need to focus on promoting “authentic ethnic culture” (e.g., ethnic restaurants, events, and souvenir shops) over the culture of the dominant ethnic group. Because of the dichotomous nature, perceptions towards tourism may differ between members of the ethnic minority whose culture is being represented to visitors and members of the dominant ethnic group.

The goal of this study is to examine whether attitudes of residents at ENT destinations differ depending on the stages of tourism development and ethnicity of residents. To do so, this study compares residents’ attitudes among four groups at two different destinations of ENT, namely; Japanese and Brazilian residents at Oizumi town, Gunma, and Japanese and Korean residents at Ikuno-ward, Osaka, Japan. As indicators of the residents’ attitudes, this study uses the concepts of emotional solidarity (Woosnam et al., 2016), residents’ empowerment (Boley et al, 2016), in addition to perceived impacts of tourism.

In Oizumi town, Gunma, ethnic neighborhood tourism centered on Brazilian culture was launched in 2007 by the local government in an attempt to revitalize the town’s declining economy. However, it is still at an emerging level of tourism development as it hosts only day visitors from the surrounding area. On the contrary, the Korean town in Ikuno, Osaka, is a more mature tourism destination. Owing to the “Korean Wave,” the global popularity of South Korean pop culture that swept Japan at early 2000s, the Korean neighborhood, which had long been marked as a “ghetto” to avoid, became a popular tourism destination. As a result of tourist numbers on the rise, a number of new, modern stores targeting female fans of “K-pop” have opened in the traditional ethnic enclave. While there is no statistics that show the number of
tourists to the area, approximately 177,800 people per day use the Tsuruhashi station (the nearest train station to the area), whereas only 1415 people use the Nishi-koizumi station in Oizumi Town.

METHODS

Data for this study were collected from Japanese (N=467) and Brazilian residents (N=183) in Oizumi, and Japanese (N=466) and Korean residents (N=160) in Ikuno, Osaka. To examine residents’ empowerment, the Resident Empowerment through Tourism Scale (RETS) (Boley et al. 2014) with three factors (psychological, social, and political) was employed. Emotional Solidarity Scale (ESS) (Woosnam, 2010) with three factors (welcoming nature, emotional closeness, and sympathetic understanding) was also employed to examine the emotional ties within a community. In addition, to examine the perceived impacts of tourism, Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (TIAS) (Lankford & Howard 1994) with two factors (support for tourism development and contributions tourism makes to the community) was employed. To supplement TIAS, three items that examine residents’ perception of ENT are used (Tourism that focuses on Brazilian {Korean} culture can be a medium to get to know my Brazilian {Korean} neighbors; Japanese residents will feel out of place in Oizumi {Ikuno} if tourism development focuses on minority culture; Local Brazilians {Koreans} should be more involved in tourism development in town) (Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015) were used.

RESULTS

To compare the mean scores of each factors among the four groups, a series of ANOVAs were used. In both Oizumi and Ikuno, minority residents’ groups (Brazilian and Korean residents) scored significantly higher than their Japanese counterparts (p < 0.001) in all three factors of ESS. For factors of RETS, Brazilian residents scored significantly higher than Japanese residents in Oizumi on two out of the three factors (psychological and social), while Korean residents in Ikuno scored higher than Japanese residents on all three factors (p < 0.001). In addition, in all three factors of RETS, Brazilian residents in Oizumi scored the highest, followed by Japanese residents in Oizumi, Korean residents in Ikuno, and Japanese residents in Ikuno. In terms of TIAS, Brazilian residents in Oizumi scored significantly higher than Japanese counterparts on both factors, while Korean residents in Ikuno scored significantly higher on the first factor (the support for tourism development) (p < 0.001). Brazilian residents in Oizumi scored the highest while Japanese residents in Ikuno scored the lowest on both factors of TIAS. Brazilian residents in Oizumi scored significantly higher than Japanese residents in Oizumi on all three items to examine perception of ENT, and Korean residents in Ikuno scored significantly higher than their Japanese counterparts on the first two items (p < 0.005). Comparable to other scales, Brazilian residents scored the highest on the three items while Japanese residents in Ikuno scored the lowest on all three items.

DISCUSSION

The analysis reveals that residents in Oizumi, particularly Brazilian residents, perceive tourism more positively and feel more empowered than residents in the Korean town in Ikuno. Residents at the emerging tourism destination show favorable attitudes toward tourism while residents of the mature destination cite negative impacts more frequently (Diedrich & Buades 2009). Arguably, this can be the case in this study. As the Korean town has hosted a large number of tourists, the residents have perceived negative impacts of tourism, which far outweigh the positives. In other words, social carrying capacity of the Korean town in Ikuno may have been reached (Diedrich & Buades 2009). Another reason behind the decline is the fact that a number of new shops for tourists have been launched in Ikuno while the tourism development in Oizumi largely depends on the existing facilities. The changes in Ikuno may have increased not only competition among local business owners but also concern among the residents about their town’s identity being threatened by ENT (Henderson, 2000).

In terms of differences of attitudes within a
community, in both Oizumi and Ikuno, minority residents’ groups (Brazilian residents and Korean residents) scored significantly higher on most of the factors of all scales and related items. For example, minority residents feel emotionally close to Japanese residents in the both communities. The minority residents also scored higher on the items that concern their feelings about their neighbors. These findings may indicate that the minority residents recognize the ENT as an opportunity to cooperate and mutually understand both with their co-ethnics and with their Japanese counterparts by whom once they felt segregated. In addition, the minority groups scored higher on factors of RETS, indicating that Brazilian and Korean residents perceive themselves to be more empowered than did Japanese residents in their communities. This illustrates ENT can be a medium for ethnic minorities to resist the marginalization and represent their culture to the wider public. The analysis also indicates minority residents in both destinations support tourism development and acknowledge its contributions to their communities more than Japanese residents. This can be explained by the nature of ENT where tourists are willing to experience authentic “ethnic culture.” In other words, benefits of tourism tend to be concentrated on ethnic business while Japanese residents only suffer from negative impacts of tourism.

Overall, this study indicated residents’ attitudes towards ENT can vary depending on the maturity of destinations and the ethnic group to which ones belong. A future study may need to explore how employment in the tourism industry influences residents’ perception of emotional closeness to their counterparts, empowerment, and perception to ENT.

REFERENCE


PRICE V.S VALUE? PERSPECTIVE OF THE BACKPACKER’S S INTERACTION IN HOSTELS

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Cheng-Kuo Chen, National Penghu University

ABSTRACT

How to attract young backpackers come Lodging in hostel? The tourist hotel industry has become more and more competitive in Taiwan. Firms that produce similar products and services as other companies will not survive, especially in the growing global economy which continually emphasizes creativity and social interaction.

Backpackers economic of Youth Travel act important role in Tourism Industry. With instant access to the Internet and the positive image shaped by the media, backpacking concept was introduced into Taiwan in a fresh and achievable way, which permits maxi-mum freedom and embraces the adventurous idea of "to explore the unknown" during the trip. The aspects of consideration are specifically identified as Hotel, Bed and Breakfast and Youth Hostel the study gives an in-depth analysis on discerning the relation between these three and willing to pay customers' willingness to stay the hostel.

When booking a room in a hostel you usually have two choices – a bed in a dormitory style room sharing with other backpackers, or a bed in a private room more akin to something you'd get in a hotel. Very rarely will you come across a hostel that doesn't offer both these types of rooms, which is great because it means if you don't like sharing with other people you don't have to! However, if you don't have the money for the more expensive private rooms you're not stuck!

The study framework and hypotheses were established through documents review, and the empirical study is conducted by employing questionnaire investigation and related statistics techniques. The paper questionnaires were sent to 53 hostels across YH in Taiwan, with the online questionnaire being spread out at the same time. A total of 300 questionnaires were issued, and the valid questionnaires are 212 copies with effective rate at 71.6%.

The current result suggests that travelers' aspects of price had a significant effect on their price, and the interaction factor was the most significant effect among other factors. Specially, the price factor also had no significant effect influence on traveler's Willingness intention. The main contribution of this study is to provide a good reference model of cost and space innovation for hospitality and tourism industries. Such a model can also be applied to the other related service sectors. Managerial implications and recommendations for future research are discussed.

Keyword: Interaction, Willingness to pay, Space Values, Willingness intention
PAPER REVIEWS ON THE CHANGES IN TOURISM DEMAND RESULTING FROM INCREASED TRAVEL BY EMERGING NATIONS

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INTRODUCTION

In tourism industry, it is very common to apply theories from other disciplines, rather than developing a new theory (Lowery et. al., 2015). Gioia and Pitre (1990; Cited Lowery et. al., 2015) defined theory as “any coherent description or explanation of observed or experienced phenomena”.

With regard to hospitality, tourism studies fields, Smith, Xiao, Nunkoo & Tukamushaba (2013) conducted a research to examine what type of “Theory” were used by the researchers. The research papers from three leading refereed journals under these three fields were selected respectively for content analysis. The trends of using certain types of “Theory” were also examined. The analysis was based on the seven distinct types of “Theory” in tourism research identified by Smith and Lee (2010; Cited Smith et. al, 2013).

Theory is the core element in the research. Udo-Akang (2012) mentioned that there is no academic study or research that can be undertaken without a theory. Although theory should ideally guide research, theory and research are interrelated as well as interdependent. The purpose of this research is to examine whether tourism knowledge is being built on a strong conceptual or theoretical basis. In this research, ten research papers regarding to the changes in tourism demand resulting from increased travel by emerging nations are selected to examine the types of “Theory” used which based on the categories from Smith et, al. (2013) in recent years.

Summary of Seven Type of Theory

According to Smith and Lee (2010; Cited Smith et. al, 2013), the seven types of “Theory” were identified through a reflective, iterative, comparative, and hierarchical process of coding and interpretation. The typology is shown in Table 1. In the followings, these seven types of “Theory” are briefly summarized.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Brief description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type 1 theory</td>
<td>Theory of the form used in natural sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 2 theory</td>
<td>Theory of the form often used in social sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 3 theory</td>
<td>Theory is equated with statistical analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 4 theory</td>
<td>Theory is an untested/untestable verbal or graphic model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 5 theory</td>
<td>Epistemology or a research design presented as theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 6 theory</td>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type 7 theory</td>
<td>Theory as a casual term or used as an analogy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

METHOD

To review the recent researches about the theoretical foundation in this area, 10 journal articles were selected from the first lustrum, which is between year of 2011 and 2016. To easily identify the appropriate journal articles, each article's title, abstract, and keywords were used as search fields with “emerging country”, “tourism demand” and “theory” as the search terms to identify articles for examination. Interesting that it was hard to locate the journals with all three groups of word appeared together on the title. The articles which focus on the literature review were screened out.

These articles are about the demand, behaviors, trends, and images to the outbound travel destination of Chinese or South Korean visitors.
### Table 2. Selected Articles about Tourism Demand of Emerging Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article No.</th>
<th>Journal Articles Title</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Theory Type</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Other comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Assessing mainland Chinese tourists’ satisfaction with Hong Kong using tourist satisfaction index</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Constructed a SEM model and then develop a theory</td>
<td>It served as a pilot test of the theoretical framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese International Students. An Avant-Garde of Independent Travellers?</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>A series of focus group as well as a pilot study were conducted, followed by an 5-point scaled online survey</td>
<td>Empirical research was done, followed by analyzing the international student characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints to visiting the United States</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Conducted face-to-face open-ended interviews, coded the results for categorizing</td>
<td>Extended the existing theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do expectations of future wealth increase outbound tourism?</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Examined hypotheses by using secondary data</td>
<td>Conducted an empirical research to examine the casual relationship to explain the current phenomenon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mainland Chinese Tourists to Hawaii: Their Characteristics and Preferences</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>350 surveys by convenience sampling method with 7-point scaled questionnaire</td>
<td>An empirical research was done and made the conclusion of tourist behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States: Letting the shoppers do the talking The Impacts of China’s new free-trade zones on Hong Kong tourism</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Purposive sampling method was used, followed by 10 phone interviews</td>
<td>Grounded theory approach was used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The impact of tour quality and tourist satisfaction on tourist loyalty: The case of Chinese tourists in Korea The Post-Mao gazes: Chinese Backpackers in Macau</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Description of situation and provision of solutions.</td>
<td>No empirical research. Neither developing nor applying theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Understanding the tourism relationships between South Korea and China- a review of influential factors</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Development of a SEM and presented as a theory</td>
<td>The SEM model was constructed without testing the priori conceptual model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Qualitative research with thematic and discursive analysis</td>
<td>Analyzed the tourist characteristics from the themes emerged from the dataset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Description of situation and provision of suggestions according to secondary data</td>
<td>No empirical research was done. Neither developing nor applying theory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

*Journal #1 Assessing mainland Chinese tourists’ satisfaction with Hong Kong using tourist satisfaction index*

The purpose of this study was about developing a two-step tourist satisfaction index (TSI) framework. To test the validity and reliability of the TSI, researchers assessed the Mainland Chinese tourists’ satisfaction in Hong Kong. The study served as a pilot test of that theoretical framework.

To develop the TSI, researchers firstly estimated the sectoral-level satisfaction indexes based on a structural equation model (SEM), followed by revealing such overall tourist satisfaction index via conducting second-order confirmatory factor analysis. The study analyzed the SEM for hotel, retail and tour operator sectors. The two-step TSI provided a strong scientific basis to prove the overall estimation. Through the TSI, various casual relationships were integrated, some recommendations would then be made for evaluation or revision of particular tourism policies.

Researchers commented that the model would be applicable to other source markets and tour-
ism-related sectors so as to capture the dynamics of tourist satisfaction and tourist destination management. SEM was used as the mean to construct this model; therefore, this is under Type 3 Theory.

**Journal # 2 Chinese International Students. An Avant-Garde of Independent Travellers?**

As many Chinese students travelled overseas to pursue academic qualification, they usually travelled independently around their place of study, accompanying by friends and relatives whom they are hosting. King and Gardiner (2015) identified that the youth travelers consisted of backpackers and international student travelers. A comparison was made between these two types of travelers. Researchers pointed that it was still worth to examine those behaviors as it is a portent of future market trend.

This study aimed to investigate the travel behaviors of Chinese international students who were currently studying in Australia. Then, using the results to compare with the characteristics of backpackers, which were discussed from the literatures. Studying Chinese international students travel behaviors would offer insight into the emerging Chinese outbound travel market in the future. Three research questions were set in this paper. A series focus group as well as a pilot study were conducted for assessing the questionnaire, followed by an online survey to 5000 students who were studying at Australian universities. The findings indicated that Chinese international students had significant differences from backpackers in terms of traveling motivation, accommodation preference, duration of travel, and choice of destination.

A preliminary conceptual framework was presented to explain youth tourism according to the market of emerging Chinese outbound student tourists. However, this research did not contain testable hypotheses. The data collected were used to demonstrate the current phenomena of Chinese international students. Also, the interpretation could not be applied to internationals students from other countries. Therefore, this paper is under type eight “No Theory”.

**Journal # 3 Chinese outbound tourists’ perceived constraints to visiting the United States**

There were three purposes of this research, including: (1) examining the constraints of Chinese outbound tourists; (2) exploring the usefulness of Leisure adopted the Leisure Constraint Model (LCM); (3) understanding how constraints differ by travel experiences.

1600 respondents were selected by convenience sampling methods in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou. Face-to-face interview with opened-ended questions were conducted. The Lai et al. (2013) adopted the LCM which developed by Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) as the analytical framework, which was further developed on the basis of Crawford and Godbey (1987). According to LCM, there are three types of constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. Lai et al. (2013) refined the LCM model to include an extra level termed “cultural constraint” as they found that the LCM studies were well applied in Western countries, but not non-Western countries. Culture could be a factor of constraint.

According to Godbey, Crawford and Shen (2010), LCM comprised what should be more properly denoted as a theory of hierarchical leisure constraints, given that each model essentially testable theoretical propositions or predictions. This model is about the social science which could be tested. This theory is used to address the complicated phenomena; thus the result could be different if the test is conducted by another theory such as measuring the cultural distance theory of Hofstede (2012) among the Mainland Chinese as well as other source markets to the United States. Even though Lai et, al. (2013) modified the LCM with the cultural issues included, it is unable to identify which how does cultural distance affect the motivation of Chinese tourists to visit the United States. Moreover, the time would also affect the result. Due to the trend of globalization, economies, political, social, legal, technological changes would dramatically influence the travel intention and destination of Chinese tourists. Therefore, it is under Type 2 Theory, in which multiple theories can exist. This research could be supported by empirical evidence by testing hypothesis, but the result be varied by using other type of theory.

**Journal # 4 Do expectations of future wealth increase outbound tourism? Evidence from Korea**
Kim. et al. (2012) examined the causal relationship between the future wealth and the international outbound tourism by reviewing the data of South Korea in two decades from 1989 to 2009. The tourism demand is dependent on wealth as the researchers believed that tourism is a luxury goods. Based on the National Statistics, the wealth of Korean households was highly concentrated in real estate (76.8%) following by financial assets (20.4%) and other assets (2.7%). Wealth effect developed by Ando and Modigliani (1963; Cited Kim. et al 2012) was applied in this research. According to Kim. et. al. (2012), wealth effect theory was empirically validated by previous researchers (Case, Quigley, and Shiller, 2005 and Poterba, 1988). Wealth effect means changes in the value of prominent assets that influences the consumption.

Thus, hypotheses in this research were developed, including appreciation of apartments will increase demand and appreciation of stocks will increase demand for outbound travel in Korea. The test revealed that the Korean tourism demand partially affected by appreciation in housing assets, but not much related to the relative wealth in the stock market.

However, this study is not universal, which means that it is not guaranteed that the result of wealth effect could be applied in other emerging countries. As this research examined the impact of apartment and stocks, but it did not consider other related issues on the economics such as unemployment rate and economic cycles. These issues would also have impact on the travel motivation.

This research falls to Type 2 Theory as it set hypotheses to examine the phenomenon occurred in a country. It is also under social science category. The significant issues may or may not be examined by conducting such empirical research. It is possible to examine the validity of the hypotheses, but it is unable to identify other possible causes. Thus, the result would be different by using different theories.

Journal # 5 Mainland Chinese Tourists to Hawaii: Their Characteristics and Preferences

This research explored the attitudinal and characteristics, and preferences of Chinese tourists in Hawaii as a leisure destination according to key sociodemographic variables. The purpose of this research was to help all stakeholders, for example, tour operators, hotels and tourism officials, understand the Chinese tourists.

Three objectives were set including (a) to identify attitudinal or behavioral characteristics of Chinese tourists, (b) to explore differences in attitudinal and behavioral characteristics of Chinese tourists between groups of sociodemographic and travel-related variables, and (c) to analyze differences of preference in tourism to Hawaii between groups of sociodemographic and travel-related variables. Pilot test was done prior to data collection so as to avoid ambiguity of questions. 350 Chinese tourists conducted the survey by convenience sampling method. Some suggestions were provided based on the findings of the survey.

This is a pure empirical research, but theory was neither created nor extended. Besides, this study was limited to focusing on the effort to identify the characteristics and preferences of Mainland Chinese tourist, but not the tourists from other emerging source markets. It was unable to develop theory. This research is not under any one of these seven theories. Thus, it would be in type eight “No Theory”.

Journal # 6 Shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States: Letting the shoppers do the talking

As the Chinese tourists were having constraints while travelling to the United States, such as high costs, long travel distance and visa restriction, this paper aimed to develop destination marketing strategies through exploring the shopping behaviors of Chinese tourists while visiting the United States.

Grounded theory approach was applied in this research, the analysis was based on four categories of shopping motivations developed by Jansen-Verbeke’s (1994; Cited McGhee and Xu, 2012). Researchers assured trustworthiness of this study with regard to four criteria developed by DeCroo (2004; Cited McGhee and Xu, 2012). Purposive sampling method was used to conduct 10 interviews, which were referred by a tour guide.

Open-ended general interview questions were used. The coded transcripts were used to compare the Jansen-Verbeke’s four shopping motivations. It found that the findings were consistent with the four
shopping motivations. Three categories were formed with reference to Jansen-Verbeke’s findings, dataset, coded transcript with grouping. The categories of Chinese tourists shopping behaviors in the U.S. included: (a) purchase gifts for friends and relatives; (b) take advantage of unique products and price differences; and (c) make good use of travel time.

To enhance the shopping experience, the researchers provided two suggestions. Firstly, the shopping malls should employ Chinese such as Chinese international students, as sales assistant so as to minimize the language barrier. Secondly, it is suggested the shopping areas to accept the credit card issued in China.

This research involved construction of theory through and analysis of data by grounded theory approach, thus it is under Type 6, Grounded Theory.

Journal # 7 The Impacts of China's new free-trade zones on Hong Kong tourism

This journal investigated the impacts of China’s policy of free-trade zones (FTZ) on Hong Kong tourism area. From 2013 to 2014, Shanghai, Tianjin, Fujian and Guangdong were selected to be the FTZ so as to enhance trading of manufacturing, finance, and tourism sectors with Asia-Pacific regions and Middle East. Researchers analyzed how did the FTZ affect Hong Kong, including cruise-tourism, medical-tourism, retail sector, artwork trading, exhibition service, lodging, and tourist attractions, followed by revealing the new business opportunities to Hong Kong. The study aimed to provide a timely reflection for Hong Kong tourism policy makers and practitioner, and the destination managers in Asia.

There was no empirical research conducted in this study. Neither theory formed nor applied in this research. It only explained the situations and problems and then provided suggested solutions to solve the problem. Therefore, this research does not fall into any seven theory type from Smith et. al, 2013. It would be in type 8 “No Theory”.

Journal # 8 The impact of tour quality and tourist satisfaction on tourist loyalty: The case of Chinese tourists in Korea

This study examined the causal relationship between tourist expectations, tourist motivations, tour quality, tour satisfactions, tourist complaints and tourist loyalty of Chinese tourists in the South Korea. The Korea Tourist Satisfaction Frame Model was designed in this research. According to Lee et, al. (2011), the model was created based on some theories, such as balance theory (Heider, 1958), multiple attitude model on attitude (Fishbein, 1967) and reinforcement theory (Raj, 1982). In this model, seven hypotheses were set.

Pilot study was done for measuring the validity and reliability. Convenient sampling and the purposive sampling non-probability sampling methods were used. Only the tour groups from Beijing were selected after the trip in Korea. Individual travelers did not participate in this research. Totally 513 completed questionnaires were received, while seven-point likert scale questions were set in the questionnaire. Structural Equation Model (SEM) was applied for testing relationships among constructs. The result was presented based on the findings of the SEM, followed by the recommendations to the stakeholders. Bias would be occurred as the tourists from Beijing could not represent the tourists from other major outbound provinces in China. Also, the perceptions of individual travelers would be different from the tour groups in expectation and travel experience.

As the statistical model was formulated and presented as theory but lacking of developing a priori conceptualization. This theory of this research is under Type 3.

Journal # 9 The Post-Mao gazes: Chinese Backpackers in Macau

Ong and Cros (2012) investigated how the backpacker tourism developed from Mainland China in Macau after changing of Deng Xiaoping’s policy explorations with capitalism. The culture of Macau is different China as Macau is the formerly colony of Portugal. As majority of the backpackers were post-Mao generations, including post 80s and post90s, these people liked sharing and discussing their travel experience in some forum on cyberspace.

Researchers adopted the virtual ethnographic approach by using the texts articulated from the participants in the Macau section of the most popular forum, The Mill, about backpacker tourism in China. In this forum, backpackers would discuss,
initiate, contact and share stories of their travels. The texts input in the forum within a period were copied, coded and annotated. Thematic and discursive analysis were conducted to analyze the key themes of the data collected. The themes were then recorded and analyzed. Chinese backpackers appreciated Macau’s culture, nature and heritage even though the cultural background is different.

In this paper, the researchers used qualitative research method to examine the characteristics of post-Mao generations about travelling to Macau as backpackers without extending or creating a theory. As a result, this paper does not belong to any one of the seven theory type. Type eight “No Theory” is then categorized.

Journal # 10 Understanding the tourism relationships between South Korea and China- a review of influential factors

China and Korea has had 5000-year history of friendship and contempt. Both of them are emerging countries, where tourism industry is one of the key pillars on their economy development. Researchers evaluated the complicated relationships among these two countries throughout the history. The effects of external factors that influencing tourist flow were identified based on the Four-stage Approach of Butler and Mao (1996; Cited Timothy and Kim, 2015). Researchers revealed that the relationship between South Korea and China had evolved towards the mature stage, in which the tourists could visit each other side more regularly. However, the tourist flows between nations are also affected other countries such as North Korea, the USA, Japan, Russia and Taiwan, in terms of political, economic, security, military and cultural aspects.

After analyzing the historical connection between two nations as well as other external factors from other countries, this paper provided some suggestions on how these two emerging countries could have cooperation on tourism development. The suggestions focused on reinforcing cooperation in cultural exchange, tourism product enhancement and political and security issues. Through the research, there was no theory or model adopted from previous researchers as a framework. The suggestions also were not formed based on developed theory or model. Instead, these solutions were based on the situations and opportunities that both nations encountered. As a result, this research is not under any one of the seven type theories. It is categorized at “No Theory”, which is type eight

FINDINGS

With regard to Smith et, al. (2013), among all seven types of theory, only type 1 and type 2 theory are committed to the standard concept of ‘theory’, while the validity of formation of theory is weakening as shifting along type 3 to type 7. Some of the papers about tourism demand in emerging countries even do not fall into any of these seven types. To be a good research for theory development, Wacker (1998) pointed out several criteria, which include uniqueness, parsimony, conservation, generalizability, fecundity, internal consistency, empirical riskiness, and abstraction.

From Wacker (1998), the research objectives could be categorized as theory-building and fact-finding. The differences among two are based on the purpose of the research. For theory-building, the research could be used to explain how and why relationship exist, followed by predicting the future. However, fact-finding research aims at using evidence to discover if relationships exist, which explain how and why specific phenomena occurred.

According to these ten research papers, half of them, including journal articles # 2, 5, 7, 9 and 10, do not have any theoretical development or extension of existing theory, which are not under any one out of seven taxonomy of Smith et, al.(2013). Instead, these articles are fact-finding research. Fact-finding research is different from theory-building research. These journal articles analyze the current travelling characteristics (# 2 for travelling preference of the Chinese international students in Australia; # 5 for the Chinese tourists’ shopping preference and characteristics in Hawaii; #9 for Travelling trends of young Chinese tourists in Macau) or antecedents (# 7 for the impacts of FTZ to tourism demand; # 10 for reviewing the external factors that influents the tourism demand for China and South Korea) of the tourist demand of emerging countries.

Even though these studies do not have priori explanations and predictions before the data, they are all good researches. These studies are well developed to provide facts and investigate relationships which could be the ground of further theory-building
researches.

Two out of 10 papers belong to Type 3, which developing the theory by using SEM. These research papers include #1 for developing of tourist satisfaction index by using SEM and #8 for designing the Korea Tourist Satisfaction Frame Model by SEM. To create those theories, researchers referred some theories as the framework of the model development. For the example, in journal #8, the model designed according to the balance theory, multiple attitude model on attitude, reinforcement theory. Even though these might be untrue as they did not have priori conceptualization, they could still be used for further researches to experiment on its reliability, consistency and genuineness.

Grounded theory is not uncommon to be used in tourism and leisure as a research method. with regarding the journal #6, grounded theory was done so as to conclude with four categories of Chinese shopping behavior. Even though there are possible drawbacks such as potential bias while interpreting the data, the research is inspiring which allows the emerged concepts to be further examined.

Journal #3 and #4 are under Type 2 of Smith et al. (2013), which are the very common theory building research used in social science. Hypotheses are tested to support the theory. As theories are addressing complicated tourists’ demand, various possible theories that might occur at the same time. The causal relationship is identified, but there would have some other possible antecedents yet to be examined. Besides, the generalizability is limited as they focused on particular types of tourists but not the tourists in general. Time would be a factor that influence the tourists’ decision making.

CONCLUSION

Half of these journals did not develop the theory, instead, they were used to examine the phenomenon by applied the theory or forecast the trend by applying the theory. Although many researches are fact-finding, it does not mean that they are not quality researches. They are all conceptually sound with worthy suggestions and inspirations in the research for practitioners and government. Besides, they also provide a good foundation for further theory-building studies. It reassures that no academic study or research that can be conducted without a theory (Udo-Akang, 2012).

Tourism demand is complicated and ever-changing with various influential factors such as economies, political, social, legal, and technological advancement. These factors would have certain impact on the tourists’ characteristics and preference. Especially for the emerging countries, previous studies about the tourist demand are very limited. As a result, many papers would tends to reveal the characteristics and preference of those tourists rather than developing a theory for general tourism industry as a whole.

Even though the theory development in this area is relatively less, but it does not mean that these researches are not theoretically robust. These researches had strong literature background to support the research framework and their comprehensive analysis are all conceptually valid. Besides, the implications and suggestions were explicitly disclosed for further research and applications.

REFERENCE


THE CONCEPTUAL CONSTRUCT OF THE 21ST CENTURY HOSPITALITY LEADERSHIP FOR THE ASIAN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

Leadership is defined as a “social influence process” and a “group phenomenon” (Erkutlu, 2008, p.709). Leader is expected to create values, beliefs and vision to inspire his/her followers (Rothfelder, Ottenbacher, & Harrington, 2013) and appropriately give them feedback, encouragement and coaching (Scott-Halsell, Shumate, & Blum, 2007). Facing the fiercely competitive environment, the role that frontline employees play in customer-employee interaction is more important and their job satisfaction is found closely affected by leadership behaviour (Rothfelder et al., 2013). As Testa (2007) commented, subordinates have expectation on their leaders and compare their leadership in mind with observed leadership behaviours. Realising the influence of leadership on employees’ outcomes (Kara, Uysal, Sirgy, & Lee, 2013), managers tend to adopt different leadership behaviours in work settings in hopes of attaining higher employee satisfaction, commitment, and productivity (Erkutlu, 2008), higher level of creativity (Hon & Chan, 2012), and workforce engagement (Maier, 2011).

Unsurprisingly, the importance and significance of leadership in the hospitality industry has captured a number of researchers to conduct study to examine the effects of different leadership styles in the hospitality settings, such as transactional and transformational leadership (e.g. Constanti, 2010; Dai, Dai, Chen, and Wu, 2013; Erkutlu, 2008; Kara et al., 2013; Marinova, Van Dyne, & Moon, 2015; Newman & Butler, 2014; Rothfelder et al., 2013) ethical leadership (Brownell, 2010; Crews, 2015; Minett, Yaman, & Denizci, 2009; Qin, Wen, Ling, Zhou, & Tong, 2014) emotional intelligent leadership (Butler, Kwantes, & Boglarsky, 2014; Langhorn, 2004; Scott-Halsell et al., 2007; Scott-Halsell, Blum, & Huffman, 2008; Wolfe & Kim, 2013), servant leadership (Huang, Li, Qiu, Yim, & Wan, 2016; Ling, Liu, & Wu, 2016; Wu, Tse, Fu, Ho, & Liu, 2013). It is noteworthy that those research studies are conducted just to examine a specific type of leadership or compare and contrast the effects of two to maximum three types of leadership without attempting to establish and tailor a leadership solely for the hospitality industry. Likewise, it is also found that quite a number of researchers tend to rely on a specific leadership construct to measure leadership behaviours throughout a number of studies, like multifactor leadership questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (1995), implying that it might be short of operationalised leadership measurement construct. Furthermore, the significant difference between Western and Asian culture may also imply the need to establish a leadership construct to prepare for the 21st century hospitality leader for the Asian hospitality industry.

This study attempts to propose the conceptual leadership construct which is better able to measure the hospitality leadership in Asia context by reviewing a wealth of leadership as well as comparing prevailing contemporary leadership theories, including transactional, transformational, emotional intelligent, servant, and ethical leadership. The preliminary conceptual construct of the 21st century hospitality leadership for the Asian hospitality industry is presented in the last section.

METHOD

Through the scrutiny of research studies which cover different leadership theories, it is found that researchers tend to put transactional leadership and transformational leadership together (e.g. Constanti, 2010; Dai et al., 2013; Erkutlu, 2008; Rothfelder et al., 2013). What is more, these research findings has indicated that the effects of transformational leadership is consistently better and higher than transactional leadership in
organisations, such as employee job satisfaction (e.g. Erkutlu, 2008) and personal accomplishment (e.g. Constanti, 2010). However, as Robbins and Judge (2015, p.379) opined, transformational leadership looks for “long-term results”. Transactional leadership results expected outcomes and transformational leadership gains well beyond expected (Erkutlu, 2008), signifying that leaders should at least provide followers with appropriate rewards to make them stay with leaders and willing to devote themselves to organisations for a better future. For this reason, contingent reward behaviours are maintained positive relationship with the four dimensions of transformational leadership (Rothfelder et al., 2013). Dai et al. (2013) once commented that the contribution of transactional leadership should not be neglected. Both transactional and transformational leadership indeed “complement each other” (Robbins & Judge, 2015, p.378; Dai et al., 2013). Both leadership styles should be used simultaneously to form a good leader (Dai et al., 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2015; Rothfelder et al., 2013).

“The hospitality is referred as a people industry” (Scott-Halsell, Shumate, & Blum, 2007, p.111), of which frontline service employees are engaged in jobs with high emotional labour as they are required to display positive emotional expressions according to the display rules in every service encounter imposed by organisations based on different hospitality settings, negative outcomes such as emotional exhaustion, job stress etc. somewhat are incurred. Hence, having emotional intelligent leaders who understand their self-emotions as well as their followers, adjusting their own behaviours, and extending their empathy towards the followers is imperative to maintain a constructive leader-follower relationship.

Brownell (2010) denoted that both servant and transformational leadership seek to empower followers, however, servant leadership also emphasises altruism by helping followers to grow and develop and self-sacrifice by forsaking beyond self-interest (Robbins & Judge, 2015; Wu et al., 2013), as well as integrity and morality of leaders which in essence may overlap with ethical leadership (Ling et al., 2016). Furthermore, Robbins and Judge (2015) argued that transformational leader also contains ethical component since some of the leaders might use their charisma to influence their followers to fulfill their self-interest. However, the focus of ethical leadership is to reinforce ethical standards and behaviours, as well as consequences of complying or violating the relevant rules in organisations. Indeed, ethical leadership is distinct from servant leadership and transformational leadership in a certain extent.

FINDINGS

It is well reckoned that different leadership styles represent its unique propositions which in some way also reflect the significance of each type of leadership. In this regard, it is suggested to extract the most significant part of transactional, transformational, emotional intelligent, servant, and ethical leadership to formulate a versatile leadership construct which can suit in the Asian hospitality context. It may be doubtful the adequacy of including some leadership styles stemmed from western cultures like, transactional and transformational leadership, to the construct tailored for the hospitality leaders in Asia. However, the significant findings of Dai et al. (2013) for both leaderships have successfully exemplified their suitability. Encompassing emotional intelligent leadership and ethical leadership is highly recommended owing to the unique nature of the industry and the universal values of ethics and integrity. Beyond that, considering the congruence between the core values of servant leadership and Confucianism (Huang et al., 2016), as well as the cultures of East Asia (Robbins & Judge, 2015), the inclusion of both leadership style is unquestionable.

As a consequence, the conceptual construct of the 21st century leadership for the Asian hospitality industry should encapsulate (1) contingent reward of transactional leadership owing to its constructive and positive reinforcement pattern (Rothfelder et al., 2013); (2) idealised influence and intellectual stimulation of transformational leadership in consideration of focusing on leader’s charisma and ability to arouse follower’s creativity and innovation which is imperative to highly competitive environment; (3) self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship of emotional intelligence which are put together to constitute empathy; (4) serving
behaviours to show how the servant leader helps and support his/her followers to grow and develop themselves; (5) ethical behaviours to uphold the ethical standards.

CONCLUSION

Recognising the absence of a comprehensive conceptual leadership construct in the extant academic research, the current study has preliminarily tailored a conceptual construct, encapsulating the uniqueness of the major contemporary leadership theories, in attempting to effectively and appropriately reflect the 21st century hospitality leader in Asian hospitality industry. It is suggested researchers of leadership could further refine and develop a well-established measurement construct built on the proposed leadership construct through focus group to obtain professional comments and opinions about attributes and qualities of the Asian hospitality leaders and put it into research and practice of Asian hospitality leadership.

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INVESTIGATION OF RESEARCH TRENDS IN HOSPITALITY ACADEMIA

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify the research trends in the hospitality academics. Specifically, the study identified major research themes appeared in the hospitality journals. The study analyzed the articles published in leading hospitality journals for the last fifteen years, from 2002 to 2016, using text mining and social network analysis. While hospitality industry has been grown fast for the last several decades, and thus, in turn, academia has been expanded both in quantity and quality, just a few publications made efforts to investigated research trends using content analysis and bibliographic methods. It is necessary to examine research trends in hospitality by using advanced analytical techniques, text-mining and Social Network Analysis. To achieve the study purpose, first, the major academic journals in the hospitality were identified, such as Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, International Journal of Hospitality Management, and Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research. The abstracts from 3,154 articles from the four journals from 2002 to 2016 were retrieved and analyzed. By employing topic modeling, a total of 20 main research topics were extracted. Among the 20 major topics, ‘Hotel financial performance’ showed the highest percentage during 2002-2016 in hospitality journals, followed by ‘Service quality’ and ‘Employee job satisfaction’. Social network analysis was performed to identify centrality of the research topics, and thus to visualize the relationships among the main research topics. Among them, in particular, the topics, ‘Turnover’, ‘Hotel financial performance’, and ‘Restaurant menu’ showed strong relationships with other topics. An analysis of research trends, using text mining and social network analysis, can offer scholars with the directions and insights into future research.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to identify the research trends in the hospitality academics. Specifically, the study identified major research themes appeared in the hospitality journals. The study analyzed the articles published in leading hospitality journals for the last fifteen years, from 2002 to 2016, using text mining and social network analysis techniques. While hospitality industry has been grown fast for the last several decades, and thus, in turn, academia has been expanded both in quantity and quality, just a few publications made efforts to investigated research trends using content analysis (e.g., Tang, 2014) and bibliographic methods (e.g., Garcia-Lillo et al, 2016). It is necessary to examine research trends in hospitality by using advanced analytical tools. Text-mining and Social Network Analysis have recently been used for the purpose of research trend analysis in academic disciplines, including technology trends (Yoon & Park, 2004), International strategic management research trends (White III et al, 2016), and social marketing research themes analysis (Dahl, 2010).

METHOD

To achieve the study purpose, first, the major academic journals in the hospitality were identified, such as Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, International Journal of Hospitality Management, Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research. 3,154 abstracts of the articles from the four journals from 2002 to were retrieved and were analyzed.
Unstructured text data was pre-treated for an analysis which consists of tokenization, stop-words removal and lemmatization. SAS Enterprise Miner 14.1 and SAS Enterprise Guide 7.1 were utilized. After the pre-treatment, text parsing and text filtering were performed and then topic modeling was performed to extract main research topics.

Using keywords extracted from the topic modeling, Social Network Analysis was done to visualize connections among the research topics. Specifically, an analysis of topic-year matrix was done by UCINET 6 and Netdraw 2.1.

Text Mining and Social Network Analysis techniques identify meaningful identification of patterns and trends from a huge volume of text data. Further, text-mining facilitates interpretations from a macro-level, such as three-dimensional graphical presentations (Porter et al., 2002).

Text mining extracts useful information from unstructured or semi-structured form of text data, and enables users to identify or determine the patterns or relationships in the extracted information. While text mining identifies the relationships of concepts in text data, domain experts’ intelligence is needed to interpret the meaning and relevance of the acquired information. Text mining is advantageous to the traditional content analysis by adding additional value to knowledge discovery thanks to advanced computer-aided analysis (Feldman et al., 1998).

Social network analysis is good to understand the linkages among social entities and implications of those linkages. While the social entities are called as actors, it is critically important to note in the development of social network analysis that the unit of an analysis in SNA is not the individual, but an entity comprised of a collection of individuals and the linkages among them.

RESULTS

To achieve the study purpose, the study performed topic modeling and total 20 main research topics were extracted. The topics were extracted based on the frequency of words appeared. The extracted words formed topics, and the words forming a topic which was named in a meaningful one in the hospitality. Topic modeling extracted 20 major research topics. Topic 1 was named as ‘Tourism destination’ based on the words of ‘Tourism’, ‘destination’, ‘Tourist’, ‘Region’ and ‘Wine.’ Among the 20 major topics, ‘Hotel financial performance’ showed the highest percentage during 2002-2016 in hospitality journals, while the topic shares 6.4% of total hospitality research. Following ‘Hotel financial performance’, ‘Service quality’ and ‘Miscellaneous’ ranked high as well, by showing 4.6%, 4.2% respectively. These 3 topics can explain 15.2% of the hospitality research topics in the last fifteen years.

Second, the study utilized social network analysis to visualize the relationships among the main research topics. Each nodes stands for research topics and years published (2002-2016) and each line means the link between research topics and published year. Research findings indicate that 20 topics are closely related with each other rather than being studied as an individual topic. Among them, in particular, the topics, ‘Turnover’, ‘Hotel financial performance’, ‘Restaurant menu’ showed strong relationships with other topics.

CONCLUSION

The study identified major research topics in the hospitality journals, and examined relationships among the topics. An analysis of research trends, using text mining and social network analysis, can offer scholars with the directions and insights into future research. The current research is unique and strong, as it covers the last fifteen years and the four hospitality journals.

REFERENCES


CONSEQUENCES OF DINE ALONE:
CLOSER EXAMINATION ON SOLO DINERS

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the number of people who spend time alone is significantly increasing (Bainbridge, 2016; Dutton, 2016). Regardless of their choice, more people are expected to be alone during consumption activities, such as going to movies, going on vacation or a business trip, eating in a restaurant, and so forth. Among all of these activities, there is one activity that is inseparable for one’s survival – eating. The number of solo-diners has increased drastically in the US (Potter, 2015).

Solo diners are attracting social attentions in some collectivist societies, which emphasize the notion of ‘in-groups’ (Hofstede et al., 2010). In the aforementioned collectivist societies, solo dining was not common in the past due to the notion that an individual dines alone does not have any friends to dine with, or does not belong to any group. However, the demand of solo diners is increasing as individualism culture becomes popular. Similar to other collectivist Asian countries, such as China or South Korea, Japan still holds various aspects of a collectivistic society, which emphasizes the harmony of group. However, solo dining is a very common phenomenon in Japan because foodservice operators attempted to find out various ways to reduce the feeling of alone by utilizing unique table layouts or menu options, etc. Followed by Japan, solo dining has become a prominent social phenomenon in South Korea, and attracting enormous interest. Specifically, solo dining in South Korea has been termed as “Honbap”, and marketers strives to attract these solo-diners (Dutton, 2016). The increasing demand of solo diners is reshaping the foodservice industry of Korea to better accommodate them.

Even though there exists an increase in the number of solo diners, the consequences of solo dining are still questionable. The importance of emotions in consumption experience has been stressed out in various literature (e.g., Han, Back, & Barrett, 2009; Jani & Han, 2013; Oliver, 1994). Considering the notion that many restaurant companies are utilizing different table setup for solo diners, such as small table, bar seat, or even communal table. However, the influence of different table setup has remained unknown. It may cause positive emotions, which eventually leads to repurchase intentions (Um, Chon, & Ro, 2006). Comparably, it may cause negative emotions, which will lead to switching intentions or even negative word of mouth (Babin, Darden, & Babin, 1998). Traditionally, Mehrabian–Russell model has been utilized in order to identify the influence of physical atmosphere on both positive and negative emotion, which lead to avoid or approach behavior (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Considering the increasing demand of solo-diners, it is necessary to identify how to facilitate solo-diners’ consumption experience, which is closely related to company’s potential revenue increase.

The main objective of this study is to examine the role of different table layouts on solo-diners’ emotions and behavioral intentions by utilizing Mehrabian–Russell model. Specific research objectives are (1) to identify the influence of different table layouts on solo-diners’ emotional responses, (2) to examine the role of emotions (i.e., positive and negative) on behavioral intentions, (3) to identify the moderating effects of solo diners’ perceived loneliness on the relationship between table layouts and emotional responses.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mehrabian–Russell model

Mehrabian and Russell (1974) posited that environmental stimuli influence a person’s emotional state, which influences approach or avoidance behaviors. Specifically, physical atmosphere influences consumers’ emotional states (i.e., positive and negative emotions), and
emotional states mediate the relationship between physical atmosphere and behavioral intentions (i.e., approach and avoid behavior). Mehrabian–Russell model has been applied in various retail and service research (Machleit & Mantel, 2001). For instance, Jang and Namkung (2009) found that physical atmospheric of a restaurant significantly increased positive emotion, which stimulates behavioral intentions. Similar results were obtained in the study by Liu and Jang (2009).

In a restaurant setting, there can be many stimuli that can influence customers’ emotional state, such as product attributes, physical environment, and service quality. Among them, the major focus of this study is to examine the role of physical layout (i.e., table setting) on solo-diners’ emotional state. Even though it is unknown that which type of table layout influences emotional states (i.e., positive and negative emotions), it is possible to posit that there can be causal relationship between different table layouts and solo-diners’ emotional response. Also, both positive and negative emotions would influence solo-diners’ behavioral intentions. Therefore, this study hypothesizes:

- **H1**: Different table layout will have significant influence on solo-diners’ positive emotion.
- **H2**: Different table layout will have significant influence on solo-diners’ negative emotion.
- **H3**: Solo-diners’ positive emotion has a positive effect on behavioral intentions.
- **H4**: Solo-diners’ negative emotion has a negative effect on behavioral intentions.

**Moderating effect of loneliness**

Loneliness refers to “perceived absence of satisfying social relationships, accompanied by symptoms of psychological distress that are related to the perceived absence” (Young, 1982, p. 380). For solo-diners who perceive high level of loneliness in general, their emotional response after experiencing table layouts designed for solo-diners would lean toward negative emotions. Comparably, those who perceive low level of loneliness in their life will perceive same table layout as pleasing, implying that there can be a moderating effect of perceived solitude on the relationship between various table layouts and emotional states. Therefore, this study hypothesizes:

- **H5**: The influence of table layouts on positive emotion can differ according to the level of perceived loneliness.
- **H6**: The influence of table layouts on negative emotion can differ according to the level of perceived loneliness.

**METHOD**

The population of this study is defined as restaurant customers who have experience of dining alone. Target sample is defined as restaurant customers who have dined alone within two weeks. Two-week period is adopted to minimize possible recall bias. This study will collect data by hiring an online marketing firm in the U.S. The online survey will be constructed and randomly distributed to the panel members of this online marketing firm. This study utilizes scenario method. Each participant will be randomly assigned to one of three different scenarios that have different table layouts designed for solo-diners. After reading the scenario, participants will be asked to rate their positive/negative emotions, and behavioral intentions. Participants’ emotional responses will be measured by scales utilized in previous studies. Positive emotions (i.e., joy, excitement, peacefulness, and refreshment) and negative emotions (i.e., anger, distress, disgust, fear, and shame) will be adopted from Jang and Namkung (2009). Loneliness will be measured by Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980). Lastly, behavioral intentions will be measured by scales provided by Zeithaml et al. (1996). 7-point Likert scale will be adopted for all measurements (1=extremely disagree, 7=extremely agree).

In order to analyze the main effect of different table layouts as well as moderating effect of loneliness, this study will utilize moderated regression analysis suggested by Sharma et al. (1981).

1. \[ \text{emotions} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Layouts} + \epsilon \]
2. \[ \text{emotions} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Layouts} + \beta_2 \text{Loneliness} + \epsilon \]
3. \[ \text{emotions} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Layouts} + \beta_2 \text{Loneliness} + \beta_3 \text{Layouts} \times \text{Loneliness} + \epsilon \]

Further, to test the mediating effect of emotional responses will be tested based on the procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986).
EXPECTED IMPLICATION

This study was designed to identify the table layout that can stimulate positive emotions but can reduce negative emotions, and moderating role of loneliness. Fulfilling the proposed research objectives will provide significant theoretical and managerial implications. Even though interest on the solo-diners is prominent, the literature that examined the behavior of solo-diners is scarce. Few studies attempted to examine the behavior of solo-travelers (Bianchi, 2015; S. Peattie, Clarke, & Peattie, 2005), but research that focuses on solo-diners is very limited. Therefore, this study will provide a chance to consider solo-diners in hospitality literature. By applying Mehrabian-Russell model in identifying solo-diners’ emotional response and their behavioral intentions, this study also provide an opportunity to highlight Mehrabian–Russell model when a researcher considers a potential outcomes of physical layout or table layout of a restaurant.

Empirically, this study will provide significant implications as well. As pointed out by various sources (e.g., Bainbridge, 2016; Dutton, 2016), the number of solo-diners is increasing rapidly. However, the optimal table layout that can decrease potential solo-diners’ negative emotions is still questionable. By finding out which table layout can stimulate positive emotions while reducing concurrent negative emotions, results of this study provide a guideline of how to setup their physical environment or modify their services to attract more solo-diners, which will lead to a significant increase in revenue.

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ECOTOURISM SUSTAINABILITY OF MASUNGI GEORESERVE TANAY: BASIS FOR IMPROVEMENT OF THE DEVELOPMENT PLAN

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INTRODUCTION

As a tourism management, major, it is ideal for students to discover and explore destinations as well as employing themselves with activities in the tourism industry. This research will include related segments about conservation that will encourage them to perform a study about an attraction which is already appealing but not yet too popular compared to those other similar attractions in terms of its activities. A one step out from a habitual box is where uniqueness and adventure can be sought. A lift from the usual destination that everybody’s been talking about is another reason for conducting this study.

METHOD

In this study, the researchers used both Qualitative and Quantitative method which covers the whole process of conducting surveys and interviews. Through the aid of these methods, the researchers could collect necessary data from the information specified by the respondents that are essential for this study. It will entail processes and methods to meet the objectives and requirements of the study. This research will deal with data and information that will lead to the broader description of the subject. The stated method will aid into coming up with the conclusion to cover the whole activity and its requirements.

The respondents of the study are tourists, employees and management of Masungi Georeserve, residents within the area and local government officials of Tanay, Rizal. The Survey questionnaires will be given to fifty (50) tourists while we will interview is being conducted to employees, management, residents within the area and the local government of Tanay, Rizal for the fulfillment of this study.

The study was conducted by the researchers at the rustic rock garden of Masungi Georeserve located in Tanay, Rizal, Philippines.

For this study, the researchers used two instruments. These are the survey questionnaire and the interview guide. The survey questionnaire contains certain questions about the ecotourism sustainability and development in the destination. The interview guide comprises the recommendations, upcoming plans, and additional activities or programs in Masungi Georeserve.

FINDINGS

1. Tourists had agreed in terms of the revenue of Masungi Georeserve. They are willing to pay a certain amount which would be an advantage to the Georeserve to contribute funds to the economy. The payments given were affordable and reasonable enough to them as it was absolutely reflected in the services and product being offered.

2. Majority of the respondents have strongly agreed that the employees have exerted efforts enough to make them satisfied. Social sustainability is necessary to provide equality and good quality of life within communities. The basic notion of sustainability is taking responsibility for the fact that actions have an impact on others.

3. Ecotourism is all about practices and programs that are enforced whenever a tourist visits the chosen destination. The activities are inoffensive and acceptable by the natives. The management could consider and respect the culture/tradition of the local community. The dignity and rights of the local people were not deprived of the management and its activities.

4. Masungi Georeserve provides mandatory maintenance on the sustainability of their natural resources to preserve Masungi’s precious
limestone and rock formation. Cleanliness was properly observed in the vicinity. The rock formations are well preserved and there are still no marks of damage. The rock formations are well preserved and there are still no marks of damage and they provide and secure mandatory reproduction of natural resources.

CONCLUSIONS

1. Masungi Georeserve. A conservation area in Rizal that aims to sustainably protect the rocks, flora and fauna within it. A trail, including rope courses, allows visitors to go through the highlights of the georeserve, showcasing the formidable rock formations and lush forestry in this sprawling area.

2. Evaluation of the tourist to the Ecotourism Sustainability of Masungi Georeserve in Tanay in terms of Economic Sustainability, Social Sustainability, Cultural Sustainability and Environmental Sustainability.

1.1. Economic Sustainability. The tourist evaluated the ecotourism sustainability of Masungi Georeserve in Tanay based on Economic Sustainability 3.40 overall which can be verbally interpreted as agree but has the lowest overall evaluation of all the topics discussed in sustainability. The statement ‘The entrance fee in Masungi Georeserve is affordable for tourists’ has the lowest mean which is 3.27 which is interpreted as agree.

2.2. Social Sustainability. The respondents evaluated this topic overall as strongly agree on which has a mean of 3.53. The statement ‘The quality of service rendered by the staffs is satisfying’ got a mean of 3.72 which is the highest and can be verbally interpreted as strongly agree.

2.3. Cultural Sustainability. The tourist evaluated the statement. The statement ‘The dignity and rights of the local people were not deprived of the management and its activities’ was evaluated 3.77 which is the highest and can be verbally interpreted as strongly agree. The other statements got an interpretation of strongly agree. The overall mean of this topic is 3.69 which is strongly agreed.

2.4. Environmental Sustainability. The tourist said that the Cleanliness in Masungi was properly observed in the vicinity. The statement ‘Cleanliness was properly observed in the vicinity’ has a mean of 3.82 which is strongly agreed. This topic has an interpretation of strongly agree with a mean of 3.76.
CONSUMER BIAS TOWARDS THE CALORIC CONTENT AND THE HEALTHFULNESS OF ETHNIC CUISINES

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INTRODUCTION

It is well documented that the obesity rate of the U.S. population is responsible for various health, social, psychological, and economical issues within the country (Reilly et al., 2003; Friedman, 2009). More than one-third of adults and approximately 17% of children and adolescents are obese (Ogden et al., 2014). While there may be various causes of obesity, one major cause is the consumption of obesity-promoting foods (Hill & Peters, 1998; Rolls et al., 2004). In response to the above, there has been an increase in interest towards healthy eating habits. According to a Mintel report in 2015, 61% of the respondents were “trying to eat healthier foods” and 53% were “working on eating a well-balanced diet” (Mintel, 2015a).

One major component of the healthy eating trend is ethnic cuisines. In a recent survey, 33% of the respondents answered that authentic ethnic foods is an important menu descriptor when choosing a healthy meal (Mintel, 2015a). Verbeke and Poquiviqui Lopez (2005) mentioned that growth of the ethnic cuisine segment is partially due to the consumers’ desire for healthier, yet flavorful foods. Similarly, Roseman (2006) found that consumers choose ethnic cuisines because they feel the cuisine is healthy for them. The above is also supported by the popularity of ethnic cuisine related contents in numerous television shows, newspapers, and magazines (Amidor, 2010; Corapi, 2010).

Statement of problem.

In contrast to the increasing interest towards healthy eating habits and ethnic cuisines as described above, the obesity rate has been on a continuous rise, reaching 27.7% in 2014 (Mintel, 2015b). We believe that one cause of the contradicting trend may be consumers’ biased perception towards the caloric content and the healthfulness of ethnic cuisines. In support, Chandon and Wansink (2007) demonstrated the bias in caloric estimation of certain dishes. More specifically, the study found that the popularity of fast-food restaurants claiming to be healthier, led the consumers to underestimate the number of calories contained in their meals, thus promoting overeating. We propose that the same applies to ethnic cuisines. There is no doubt that ethnic cuisines offer many low-fat and low-calorie dishes, as suggested by National Institutes of Health (2015) and Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (Denny, 2014). However, the continued positive promotion of ethnic cuisines may have led consumers to generalize the idea across multiple ethnic cuisines and under or overestimate the caloric content and the healthiness.

Accordingly, we aim to investigate whether there exists a bias when consumers estimate the caloric content and the healthfulness of different ethnic cuisines, and also identify what ethnic cuisines consumers consider more or less healthful compared to other ethnic cuisines. In addition, we attempt to explore the moderating effect of perceived authenticity when consumers encounter ethnic cuisines in a restaurant setting. Past studies suggest that consumer bias may be strengthened when the ethnic restaurant is perceived to be authentic (Ebster and Guist, 2005; Jang, Liu, and Namkung, 2011).

Significance of the study.

The results of this study will be useful not only for the community but also for ethnic restaurants. According to previous studies (Provencher, Polivy, & Herman, 2009; Chandon & Wansink, 2007), underestimation of calories may promote overeating of foods that are perceived as “good” and “healthy”, and further, cause obesity. Likewise, certain ethnic cuisines may be falsely perceived by the consumers as being low in calories or healthful. A successful execution of this
study is expected to assist in resolving such issues: encourage ethnic restaurants to better inform their customers and enable consumers to more accurately assess the caloric contents and the healthfulness of different ethnic cuisines.

**METHOD**

**Pilot Test.**

A pilot test consisting of three sections will be administered to determine the ethnic cuisines and the ethnic dishes that will be utilized for this study. First, based on the rationale that the participants will not be able to respond accurately if they have no knowledge of the ethnic cuisine, we will ask 100 online participants to rate their familiarity toward 14 ethnic cuisines that are most commonly found in the U.S. market (National Restaurant Association, 2015). The familiarity scale will be adopted from Flight, Leppard, & Cox (2003): (1) I do not recognize the food; (2) I recognize the food but have not tried it; (3) I have tasted the food; (4) I occasionally eat the food; (5) I regularly eat the food. The collected familiarity score will be examined to select only the cuisines with an average score of two or higher. Second, the participants will be asked to name any corresponding ethnic dishes they can think of. Collected responses will be tallied to identify the two most-known dishes per ethnic cuisine. Third, the participants will be asked to name a dish that represents the American cuisine. Collected responses will be examined to identify a dish that represents the American cuisine.

**Study 1.**

Three hundred U.S. consumers will be recruited via an online survey firm. Any participant with an ethnic origin identical to the ethnicity associated with the ethnic cuisine will be screened to minimize any biases caused by the excessive knowledge towards an ethnic cuisine. Each participant will be presented with ethnic dishes identified in the pilot test and asked to estimate the number of calories contained in the presented dishes. Since some participants may not be familiar with calorie estimation, each participant will also be presented with the caloric content of the American dish identified in the pilot test. The participants will also be asked to rate, on a scale of one to seven, each dish in terms of its healthfulness. Afterwards, participants will also be asked to explain why they rated each dish as they did. We believe that such open-ended questions will provide additional valuable findings.

**Study 2.**

Another three hundred U.S. consumers will be recruited via an online survey firm. Any participant with an ethnic origin identical to the ethnicity associated with the ethnic cuisine will be screened to minimize any biases caused by the excessive knowledge towards an ethnic cuisine. Each participant will be presented with one of the two scenarios (a restaurant with high level of authenticity vs. low level of authenticity) and asked to estimate the caloric content and the healthfulness of an ethnic dish. As in Study 1, each participant will also be presented with the caloric content of the American dish identified in the pilot test.

In both studies 1 and 2, familiarity towards ethnic cuisines will be measured and controlled. In addition, age, gender, education, occupation, income, and place of residency will be asked to control the influence of demographic and socio-economic variables on consumers’ ethnic food consumption. In line with our interest on obesity, perceived overweight and weight control behavior will be measured to be controlled as well.

**Analysis.**

Differences between consumers’ estimated calorie and objective calorie will be used as the dependent variable in a repeated-measures ANCOVA. The healthfulness of ethnic cuisines, and the influence of authenticity will be tested also using ANCOVA.

**REFERENCES**


EXPLORING TOURISTS’ DINING CHOICE PROCESS AT A FOREIGN DESTINATION: THE CASE OF YOUNG AUSTRALIAN TOURISTS IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourists need to make a variety of decisions before and during international trips (King & Woodside, 2001; Pearce, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1990). Dining choices are regarded as an important component of tourist behaviour (Abascal, Fluker, & Jiang, 2017; King & Woodside, 2001). Compared with other components, such as destination and accommodation choices, dining may not require the same level of careful decision-making due to its lower price (Solomon, Dann, Dann, & Russell-Bennett, 2007). However, as Kivela and Crotts (2005) stated, food plays a major role in tourists’ experiences in a tourism destination and could stimulate repeat visits. Therefore, a better understanding of tourists’ decision-making regarding dining at a travel destination is an important topic that can provide valuable information for tourism practitioners.

In order to increase understanding on this topic, this study explores the dining choice process among young Australians travelling in Japan. During the 1990s, the number of Australian tourists to Japan and Japanese tourists to Australia increased. Many scholars attempted to understand the behaviour of Japanese tourists in Australia, including decision-making (e.g., Nishimura, Waryszak, & King, 2006; Reisinger & Turner, 1999). However, the number of Japanese tourists to Australia started to decrease in the late 1990s (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016). Meanwhile, the number of Australian tourists to Japan has steadily increased and has recently shown a rapid increase (see Figure 1). In 2015, the number reached 376,975 and younger tourists (in their 20s and 30s) represented 52.2% of Australian tourists (Japan National Tourism Organization, 2016; JTB Tourism Research & Consulting Co., 2016). Despite the recent increase in Australian tourists to Japan, they have received limited research attention among tourism scholars.

Figure 1. Number of tourists between Japan and Australia

The current study focuses on the dining choice process of Australian tourists travelling in Japan. Food, including traditional Japanese food, is an important factor among international tourists’ experiences. For example, a study conducted by JNTO (2016) reported that eating Japanese food was the most commonly mentioned expectation among Australian tourists in Japan. As explained in a previous study (Kivela & Crotts, 2005), favourite dining experiences may motivate tourists to revisit the same destination, so dining can contribute to the continuous growth of the Japanese tourism industry. Therefore, as part of an ongoing project on Australian tourists’ behaviour while travelling in Japan, this paper provides preliminary insights into the dining choice process, especially about how young tourists collect information for choosing among dining options.

METHOD

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, the research team adopted a qualitative approach to explore Australian tourists’ dining choice process while in Japan. The team applied a snowball sampling method to recruit participants, and conducted semi-structured interviews with young Australians who had previously travelled to Japan between January and February 2017. The interviews were conducted online (via Skype), but some were also conducted onsite in Japan when participants were temporarily staying in Japan at the time of the interview. In total, ten participants between 20s and 30s (five female and five male) from different parts of Australia were recruited for this study. Half of the participants were university students, and the others were working full time. After gaining permission to record an interview with each participant, the researcher collected data and transcribed. A thematic analysis approach was utilised to analyse the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

FINDINGS

Through the familiarisation process of the thematic analysis approach, a common pattern among the participants was observed. Most participants did not collect information about food before arriving at their destinations, although all participants expected to eat Japanese food in Japan. Sirakaya and Woodside (2005) stated that most tourism service purchases are preceded by an extensive information search. However, most participants did not seek extensive information about dining choices before arrival at their destinations. Indeed, Solomon, et al. (2007) described consumers as being unmotivated to devote a great deal of effort to find information unless the products are expensive (e.g., high-end accommodations).

Four major information sources used by the participants for deciding among dining options at their destinations were identified: ‘local advertisements’, ‘online searches’, ‘recommendations from social networks’, and ‘personal experience’. Regarding the first information source, all participants used local advertisements or other visual materials (e.g., signs, menus, food displays) at storefronts, which they often encountered when walking around town, for deciding where to dine on a given day.

In addition, most participants conducted online searches using websites such as Google and TripAdvisor to collect information about dining options in the destination area (e.g., location, price, reviews). This finding coincided with research by Dewan and Benckendorff (2013) showing that young, technology-savvy tourists often conduct online searches onsite during a trip. In this study, first-time tourists tended to utilise popular English websites (e.g., TripAdvisor), but experienced tourists, especially those with some level of Japanese fluency, also consulted Japanese websites. Most participants used GPS and navigation applications to look for nearby restaurants or areas with many restaurants. Interestingly, some experienced tourists avoided collecting information from tourist websites, believing they would lead to crowded dining situations with too many tourists and a lack of uniqueness.

The third source of information about dining options, ‘recommendations from social networks’, was also identified in a previous study (Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1995). First-time Australian tourists relied on opinions from various social networks (e.g., family, friends, other travellers), whereas experienced tourists
tended to seek opinions from Japanese friends who were familiar with the local environment. The fourth source, ‘personal experience’, indicated that the decision-making of some tourists was influenced by their knowledge or by previous experiences. For instance, most participants chose Western fast food stores, such as McDonald’s, or family restaurants, such as Jonasan, for western dishes at some point during their trip because of the familiarity of the western food for Australians. On the other hand, one experienced participant shared, ‘If I go to Tokyo, maybe I’ll go back to a restaurant that I remembered was very good’. These findings were consistent with a previous study indicating that external (e.g., advertisements, friends) and internal (e.g., lifestyle, past experience) sources are used by tourists for decision-making as limited decision-making (Fodness & Murray, 1999).

CONCLUSION

This study gathered preliminary findings about how young Australian tourists collect information and make dining decisions in Japan. In-depth interviews with young Australian tourists who had travelled to Japan revealed common information sources used for deciding among dining options. Most participants searched for information on dining after their arrival at the destination. Some experienced tourists were able to collect information more widely and efficiently (e.g., viewing Japanese websites, asking opinions from Japanese friends) than first-time tourists, but most participants used both external and internal sources to make decisions as limited decision-making.

It needs to be noted that some of the study participants had studied the Japanese language in high school or university; therefore, they may have represented unique information-search behaviour. In order to extend the findings of this study, the research team intends to conduct in-depth interviews with a larger sample that represents a wider population of young Australians. As part of the ongoing project, quantitative research will also be considered in order to generalise the findings.

REFERENCES


THE EVALUATION OF HOTPOT RESTAURANTS IN TAIWAN—INTERPRETATION FROM THE PERCEPTION OF CUSTOMERS

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Hotpots have been very popular among Taiwanese consumers in recent years. Hence, the hotpot restaurant style is also a popular choice of new restaurant entrepreneurs. Given increasing challenges like volatile seasonality and high food and labor costs associated with a new start-up restaurant, we believe that studying and learning from existing operators’ experience and advice would help avoid mistakes and greatly increase the chance of success and profitability.

This study has compiled a list of critical questions for restaurant start-ups and interviewed three successful current operators. Results suggest that to get into the hotpot restaurant business, one must: identify target customers; consider suitable location; prepare sufficient funding, including initial fixed asset requirements and working capital for a year; launch effective promotion activities which are price driven; and use internet media. All three interviewees agree that hotpot is an easy entry style but requires extra effort to increase profitability. We hope that successful operators’ experience could help new entrepreneurs build core capability and be successful.

Keywords: Competitive Strategy, Hotpot restaurants, Business model, Core capabilities.
HOW CUSTOMER FEEDBACKS AFFECT SERVICE PROVIDER’S WORK ENGAGEMENT? THE ROLE OF REGULATORY FIT

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INTRODUCTION

Customer feedback refers to the message from customer communication considering a product or a service (Erickson and Eckrich, 2001). With the widely use of the Internet, nowadays customers have much more channels to give positive or negative feedbacks to service providers (comment areas on official websites, third-party reviewing websites, social media, and etc.). Likewise, service providers have more opportunities to know how customers evaluate their service and the overall service quality of their firms. Due to the public impact of these channels, a growing number of service providing firms are following up these feedbacks as a signal of valuing guest opinions and ensuring service quality.

Among all types of feedbacks, front-line employees’ performances (e.g. the attitude of service providers, the speed of service) are the frequent topics (Cadotte and Turgeon, 1988; Antony et al., 2004). A Front-line employee is identified as a boundary-spanning employee engaged in a job-related interaction with a customer who is considered part of the environment but not of the firm (Robertson, 1995). Therefore, this employee serves as a customer-contact point between customers and the organization (Edmondson and Boyer, 2013). And the employee’s performances determine the customization and the quality of service towards customers (Bettencourt and Gwinner, 1996).

Past studies have shown that work engagement positively influences frontline employee’s job performance, extra-role customer service, and propensity to leave (Karatepe, 2013; Zablah, et al., 2012). Job engagement is a construct that comprehensively reflects an employee’s working attitude and state of mind. Kahn (1990) identifies job engagement as a motivational process as an employee’s willingness to devote the full self in terms of cognitive, physical, and emotional energies in the person’s work performance. What positively influence work engagement are the employees’ perceived role benefit from the job, job autonomy and strategic attention from the firm (Slätten and Mehmetoglu, 2011). Chung and Schneider (2002) summarize that the role of a frontline service provider is to both external masters (i.e. the firm’s customers) and internal masters (i.e. the managers). Therefore, it can be inferred that feedbacks from either master would influence how a frontline service provider perceives the working roles and how this person is engaged into the work accordingly. The majority of works have focused on investigating how manager feedbacks affect subordinates’ performances, however, scan research has examined how customer feedbacks affect frontline service providers’ work engagement.

Prior research has demonstrated that people’s attitudes towards certain comment differ by their regulatory foci. Regulatory foci refers to the two types of motivational process in which people seek to align themselves with appropriate goals (e.g. their behaviors and self-conceptions), specifically, motivation to approach pleasure (promotion-focus) and to avoid pain (prevention-focus) (Higgins, 1997). Furthermore, when a person’s regulatory focus towards the goal (e.g. promotion-focus seek for pleasure) matches the manner to pursue the goal, the person would feel the goal is of more significance and would be more engaged to the subsequent actions. Such phenomenon is regulatory fit (Avnet and Higgins, 2006; Cesario et al., 2004; Cesario et al., 2008), otherwise is regulatory unfit or non-fit. Cesario et al. (2004) argue that under persuasion context, a person’s own subjective experience (e.g. chronic regulatory focus) may transfer into the message evaluation, together with the strategic framing of message arguments to create regulatory fit. Such fit may influence the
perceived message persuasiveness and recipients’ opinions of the topic.

When facing a positive message, people will evaluate the message more positively after being primed a regulatory fit than a regulatory non-fit. The regulatory fit gives people a feeling of confidence about their judgement, which increases the reliance of judgement towards the message (Avnet et al., 2013). In contrast, when facing a negative message, it is possible for people who experience unfit (vs. fit) to feel more motivated to doubt and think critically about the message, and lead to less negativity in their emotions and message evaluation. For example, previous research has shown that when doctors giving tough advice to patients, patients feel those advices are more acceptable when they experience regulatory non-fit than regulatory-fit (Fridman et al., 2016).

Since the framing of service principles (the gain or non-loss framing) of the firm and service providers’ regulatory focus (promotion or prevention focus) can create regulatory-fit or regulatory non-fit to service providers, we suggest that this would affect their work engagement when receiving negative customer feedbacks. We expect that service providers would react less negatively when they experience regulatory non-fit than regulatory-fit in this situation.

**METHOD**

We will recruit 150 participants to take part in an experiment. They will be randomly assigned to cells of a 2 (service principles: gain-framed vs. non-loss-framed) × 2 (customer feedbacks: positive vs. negative) between-subjects design. We will measure participants’ regulatory focus orientation by using a scale adopted from Higgins et al. (2001). To manipulate the framing of service principles, participants will be asked to imagine that they are a hotel front-line employee and their supervisor is briefing several principles to deal with guests, all of which emphasize differently on attracting guests or not losing guests (e.g. “One of the most widely liked customer service attitudes is coined in the phase ‘We will try our best to help.’ As such, we will always help customers.” or “One of the most widely disliked customer service attitudes is coined in the phase ‘It’s not our problem.’ As such, we shall avoid being unhelpful to customers.”). Then they will view three consumer feedbacks (positive or negative) about their performance. Afterwards, their affective status and job engagement level will be measured. Adopted from Fisher (2000)’s job emotion scale, participants will be asked about their affective status by five positive (e.g. happy, optimistic) and negative emotional adjectives (e.g. unhappy, disappointed) using a 10-point scale (0=not at all, 10=a great deal). To measure work engagement, participants will complete an 18-item 5-point scale developed by Rich et al. (2010).

**FINDINGS**

We predict that in the positive feedback situation, experiencing regulatory fit (compared to non-fit) would make participants to be more engaged into subsequent work. In the negative feedback situation, however, regulatory unfit (compared to fit) would mitigate their decreasing work engagement. In addition, we expect that perceived work affect would mediate the relationship between the valence of customer feedbacks (positive or negative) and the service provider’s work engagement. That is, when facing positive customer feedbacks, regulatory fit would increase service providers’ positive work affect, and resulting in higher work engagement. When facing negative customer feedbacks, regulatory unfit may de-intensify the negativity of service providers’ work affect, leading to higher work engagement.

**IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS**

This study will contribute to the existing knowledge of service management by bringing out a new moderator – regulatory fit or non-fit into how customer feedbacks influence hotel employees’ work engagement. Additionally, this study will show the hotel front-line service provider’s different affective status as the mediator of work engagement, supporting that work affect may be an antecedent of work engagement. This study will also provide managerial implications. As regulatory fit and non-fit can be achieved through the framing of communication, this article will offer managers clues to communicate with front-line service providers to maintain and improve their work engagement when they face customer feedbacks.
This study has several limitations. Firstly, data collection is needed to further testify the model. Secondly, only the moderation of regulatory fit or unfit is discussed. More moderators which are commonly discussed such as job demands (Zablah, et al., 2012) and job resources (Bakker et al., 2007) could be included in the future studies. Thirdly, only hotel context is studied, which may lead to an incomplete understanding of service provider’s work engagement. More scenarios in different service industries should be included.

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EFFECTIVE WINE TOURISM ADVERTISING

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INTRODUCTION

Wine tourism has grown considerably in the last decade (MacLeod & Hayes, 2013). As a special interest tourism, wine tourism has provided tourists with unique products and services in experiencing wine related products as well as lifestyles in wine regions. In return, wine tourism has supported local economies. Recognizing the conducive role of wine tourism to local economies, wine producers (e.g., cellar doors) and regional tourism agencies (e.g., destinations) have executed marketing practices by developing products and services such as new wine trails and adding visitor-oriented services, and promoting wine tourism destinations through media coverage on wine festivals and advertise campaigns (Byrd et al., 2016). As the volume of wine tourism has been increasing substantially, numerous regions are now aggressively marketing to attract wine tourists, and accordingly, the competitive marketing strategies of wine tourism regions has become an important strategic issue (Getz & Brown, 2006). However, previous research on wine tourism has mainly focused on antecedents and attributes associated with tourists’ satisfaction on-sites and revisit intentions, lacking empirical research on how wine producers and regional tourism authorities can develop effective communication strategies (e.g., advertising) to promote their products and services and grab tourists’ attentions (Byrd et al., 2016).

Thus, given the increasing importance of wine tourism for many destinations and the critical role of wine tourism in supporting their local economies, and recognizing research needs, this study aims to investigate factors influencing travelers’ responses to wine tourism advertising. In particular, this study focuses on the influence of destinations types (e.g., conspicuous versus inconspicuous), advertisement claims (e.g., ideal self-image versus social self-image), and an individual’s wine involvement on travelers’ attitudes toward winery advertising and intentions to visit the winery.

LITERATURE REVIEWS

The Halo Effect of Wine Tourism Destinations

As wine tourism has increased in the past 10 years, many wine tourism destinations around the globe now provide exquisite tasting rooms with scenic vineyard views, wine tasting dinners, and tours of the vineyards and cellars. Among wine tourism destinations, Bordeaux and Burgundy in France, Tuscany in Italy, and Napa in California...
are well-known destinations or “conspicuous destinations”. More recently, however, areas around the States, South Africa, Canada and Australia have come into their own small regional wine tourism destinations, or “inconspicuous destinations”.

The distinctive characteristics of wine have been imposed by its region-of-origin, and consumers often believe that wines from conspicuous wine destinations such as Bordeaux and Burgundy are with higher quality and more reputable than those from inconspicuous destinations (Moulard et al., 2015). Similarly, given winery advertising, travelers’ responses to the advertisement can be influenced by the halo effect of region-of-origin. The well-known wine destination would play an important role as an inference resource for travelers. People often rely on the characteristics of destination when they make a travel decision. Thus, a winery advertisement in a conspicuous destination would positively influence on travelers’ responses to advertising.

Hypothesis 1: Travelers tend to show more positive a) attitudes toward an advertisement and b) intentions to visit a winery in a conspicuous destination, rather than a winery in an inconspicuous destination.

The Matching Effect of Advertisement Claims

Existing research shows that travel behavior is affected by self-congruity. That is, the greater the match between a tourist’s self-concept and a destination image, the more likely that this tourist will be motivated to visit that destination (Sirgy & Su, 2000). The self-congruity theory argues that people may use four different self-images: the actual self-image, how consumers see themselves; the ideal self-image, how consumers would like to see themselves; the social self-image, how consumers believe they are seen by significant others; and the ideal social self-image, how consumers would like to be seen by significant others (Sirgy 1982, 1985). In connection with advertisement claim, this study propose that the type of self-concept (e.g., ideal self-image vs. social self-image) used in a winery advertisement may generate differential effects on travelers’ responses to the advertisement across destination types and individual’s wine tourism involvement.

Wine involvement is fundamental to the wine consumption phenomenon (Lockshin et al., 2001) and accordingly to wine tourism behaviors. Involvement is “a person’s perceived relevance of the consumption object based in inherent needs, values, and interests” (Zaichkowsky, 1985, p. 342). Consumers are ‘involved’ with a product when they perceive the product as addressing or corresponding to something of considerable value or fundamental importance in individuals’ lives (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Hence, travelers with high wine tourism involvement are more likely to seek their own experiential value than those with low involvement, and such value would be more importantly considered for a winery in an inconspicuous destination where they can have more private experience in less commercialized and bucolic environment which make them special. However, travelers with low wine tourism involvement are more likely to seek their social image enhancement through the wine tourism since, for them, wine consumption can be considered conspicuous or status consumption, which refers to the practice of using products to signal social status aspirations to other consumers (Braun & Wicklund, 1989). Thus, they are more likely to have favorable responses to wine tourism advertising with a social self-image claim. Moreover, the effect of social self-image would be stronger for a winery in a conspicuous destination than a winery in an inconspicuous destination. Based on this notion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 2: For low involvement travelers, a social self-image claim for a winery in a conspicuous destination has stronger effects on travelers’ a) attitudes toward an advertisement and b) intentions to visit a winery than those in an inconspicuous destination.

Hypothesis 3: For high involvement travelers, an ideal self-image claim for a winery in an inconspicuous destination has stronger effects on travelers’ a) attitudes toward an advertisement and b) intentions to visit a winery than those in a conspicuous destination.
METHODOLOGY

This study will employ between-subject experimental design with a hypothetical winery advertisement: 2 (destination type: conspicuous vs. inconspicuous) x 2 (advertisement claim: ideal self-image vs. social self-image) x 2 (wine tourism involvement: low vs high). Prior to the survey, a survey to identify conspicuous and inconspicuous destination types for destination manipulation will be conducted. A study survey questionnaire will consist of three sections: in the first section, respondents will read an advertisement and answer manipulation check questions, and their attitudes toward the advertisement and intentions to visit the advertised winery; for the second section, respondents will rate their wine tourism involvement; and the last section will include questions for respondents’ demographic information, and the realism of the scenario. All items will be measured by a 7-point likert scale except demographic information. For measurement items, this study will use a previously validated measurement items and modify them to fit into a current research setting: attitudes toward an advertisement (Drolet et al., 2007); intentions to visit a winery (Lam & Hsu, 2006); and involvement (Hollebeek et al, 2007). For data analysis, ANOVA tests will be conducted with SPSS 24.

EXPECTED CONTRIBUTIONS

Recognizing the increasing importance of wine tourism for local economies, and needs for competitive marketing strategies, this study will explore how wine producers and regional tourism agencies can develop an effective wine tourism advertisement. By categorizing wine tourism destinations into conspicuous and inconspicuous destinations and investigating its effect on tourists’ responses to an advertisement, the results of this study will suggest that destination reputation will have a halo effect on travelers’ attitudes toward individual winery advertisement and their intentions to visit. In addition, incorporating a concept of self-image congruity into an advertisement claim context, and investigating its effect by destination types and levels of wine tourism involvement, the results of this study will provide managers with effective communication strategies by understanding travelers’ inference mechanism of advertisement in terms of matching advertising claims with destination types across the levels of involvement. With developing effective wine tourism advertising strategies, wine producers and regional authorities can improve travelers’ awareness and knowledge and create a positive image of the wine tourism destinations.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION: ROLE OF CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE AND ETHNOCENTRISM

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INTRODUCTION

With the significant growth in the market, hospitality has expanded into a global network, where industry members must be able to handle multicultural and diverse situations with respect, understanding, and intentionality. This is not only a key managerial competency, but also the "key to success" in today’s globalized and diversified business environment (Arora & Rohmetra, 2010). Therefore, it is greatly necessary for hospitality students to enter the field with a foundational appreciation of other cultures, and a general understanding of how to navigate culturally diverse situations in their field of study and career of choice.

In this regard, cultural intelligence (CQ), defined as the ability to detect, assimilate, reason, and act using cultural cues appropriately when faced with cultural diversity (Earley & Ang, 2008), is a meaningful topic for intercultural communications of future leaders. Because CQ entails people’s tendency to consciously respect the cultural preferences and norms of others, have intrinsic interest in other cultures, and exhibit situationally appropriate behaviors, those who have high CQ are more likely to be successful in interacting with people from different cultures (Earley & Ang, 2008).

Despite the implications of CQ to effective intercultural communication, however, few studies have been conducted on the CQ of hospitality students within their collegiate environments. Particularly, little research has examined to the role of CQ on intercultural communication and emotional intelligence (EI).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to answer the questions, “what personal trait contributes to student CQ?” and “how CQ affects their intercultural communication?” Specifically, to achieve this purpose, this study examined the predictive role of EI on CQ; the mediating effect of CQ on the relationship between EI and intercultural communication apprehension (ICA); and the moderating effect of ethnocentrism on the relationships. We hypothesized that (1) EI is positively associated with CQ; (2) CQ is negatively related to ICA; (3) CQ mediates the EI-ICA relationship; and (4) the direct relationships of CQ are moderated by ethnocentrism.

These hypotheses are well supported by literature. EI refers to the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions (Mayer & Salovey, 1990). ICA is generally defined as the fear, anxiety, or lack of motivation associated with real or anticipated interaction with people from different cultural or ethnic groups (Neuliep & McCroskery, 1997). Previous research indicates links between EI, CQ, and ICA. For example, Gabel et al. (2005) suggest that one’s ability to show empathy and accommodate the emotions of others has a positive effect on their general appreciation and comprehension of different cultures, increasing their interpersonal interactions with people from different cultures. Also, according to Berger and Calabrese (1975), CQ includes knowledge of cultural universals as well as knowledge of cultural differences, so culturally intelligent people may reduce uncertainty and anxiety during communication with foreigners, and accordingly avoid ICA. Furthermore, ethnocentrism refers to the tendency to regard one’s own group as the center of everything and judge other groups based on its standards (Sumner, 1906). Ethnocentrism is generally considered dysfunctional; it affects an individual's ability to respond appropriately to cultural differences as well as develop and maintain cross-cultural interpersonal interactions.
(Thomas, 1996). Therefore, ethnocentric people tend to be more resistance to or anxiety about real or anticipated interaction with different ethnic groups, showing different tendency with EI CQ, and ICA.

METHOD

The sample consisted of 370 undergraduate students majoring in hospitality management in 25 colleges in the U.S. Online survey questionnaire was used to collect data. An email invitation was sent to faculty members of the selected programs to request participation in this study. Faculty members who agreed to participate forwarded the email invitation to their students along with the instructions and a URL for the survey. CQ was measured using the 9-item Mini-Cultural Intelligence Scale (Mini-CQS) developed by Ang and Van Dyne (2008). EI was measured using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Wong and Law, 2002). ICA was measured by Neuliep and McCroskey’s (1997b) 7-item Personal Report of Intercultural Communication Apprehension. Ethnocentrism was measured with Neuliep and McCroskey’s (1997a) 18-item generalized ethnocentrism scale (GENE). Overall the scale reliability alpha coefficient of these measures exceeded the standard cut-off value of .70 in previous research. The hypothesized relationship models were tested and analyzed via structural equation modeling (SEM). To test the moderating effect of ethnocentrism on the relationships, multiple group analysis using AMOS 23 was conducted.

FINDINGS

Hypotheses 1 predicted that EI would increase student CQ. Results of this study showed that EI (β = .30, p < .001) significantly contributed to predicting CQ, supporting Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive relationship between CQ and ICA. Results showed that ICA (β = -.11, p < .01) has a significant, negative relationship with ICA. Hypothesis 2 is therefore supported. Hypothesis 3 proposed the mediating effect of CQ on the relationships between EI and ICA. Result showed that the strength of the direct relationships reduced when CQ was added to the models (constrained model: β = .27; and mediating model: β = .21), supporting Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 4 proposed the moderating effect of ethnocentrism on the relationships. Results of multiple-group analyses revealed that the chi-square difference between the unconstrained model and the full constrained model was significant (Δχ² = 31.11, Δdf = 16, p < .01), indicating that relationships between the variables would be stronger among students with lower levels of ethnocentrism than those with higher levels of ethnocentrism.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Our results show that students with higher EI have higher levels of CQ; and these students, with a heightened capability to adapt in multicultural settings and motivation to enter into intercultural social interactions, also have reduced levels of ICA. Furthermore, our results revealed that, for students with low ethnocentrism, EI and CQ are effective personal traits in lowering ICA, although they are not effective predictors of ICA for students with high ethnocentrism.

The present study has several important theoretical implications for the hospitality literature. First, the findings of this study contributes to the hospitality literature about CQ, EI, and ICA among hospitality student; it provides initial evidence for the generalizability of the relationships between the variables that were validated in the general management and other social science domains. Second, by examining a unique role of ethnocentrism as an individual’s dysfunctional personal propensity, our research findings provides a clear rationale that ethnocentrism is both a practically and theoretically meaningful culture-related construct worthy of further research on CQ.

The findings of this research provide practical implications for practitioners and educators alike. For example, building CQ and EI into selection and promotion decisions can also convey its importance within the firm. Exploring these personal traits for a pool of applicants will provide a strong predictor of intercultural communication competence. Integrating CQ and ICA in evaluation materials and in promotion decision-making criteria will both enhance the
culture of the firm as culturally adaptive.

For educators, continued development of assessment methods and strategies is an important aspect to consider. Reliable and valid means of assessing the student’s learning and preparation, including that of EI, CQ, and ICA, provides evidence of what is working and what needs to be adapted, made more effective, and changed. Educators can use this information to help develop students that are ready to enter the global marketplace with high CQ and EI. Additionally, as ethnocentrism may attenuate the effect of CQ and EI on effective intercultural communications, hospitality programs should also consider including ethnocentrism into their cultural diversity curricula as a major topic.

The findings of this study should be interpreted in light of its limitations including common method variance, use of cross-sectional data, and limited generalizability of the findings to other contexts. Furthermore, future research may extend our findings by identifying mediating and moderating variables as well as antecedents and outcomes of CQ.

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CELEBRITY INVOLVEMENT, DESTINATION IMAGE, AND PLACE ATTACHMENT IN THE FILM-INDUCED TOURISM

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INTRODUCTION

Film-induced tourism has undergone rapid development of research (Rittichainuwat & Rattanaphinanachai, 2015) and is defined as “visitation to sites where movies and TV programs have been filmed as well as to tours to production studios, including film-related theme parks” (Beeton, 2005, p. 11). The importance of film-induced tourism has been recognized by destination marketers because it can bring benefits to filmed and portrayed sites (Yen & Croy, 2016). When viewers encounter destination through films, these films enhance their interests, formulate their destination image, and in turn have intentions of visiting these filmed destinations (Lee & Bai, 2016; Wong & Lai, 2015).

In the film-induced tourism, celebrities play a significant role in destination choice processes and travel behaviors (Yen, & Teng, 2015). This is because the traits of celebrity (i.e., image) can influence the destination image that potential tourists perceive and in turn may enhance their tendency of visiting the destination (Glover, 2009). Lee et al. (2008) proposed that the construct of celebrity involvement refers as the tendency to develop a heightened affection and attachment to a celebrity, explained by three dimensions: attraction, centrality, and self-expression. Fans with high level of celebrity involvement would transfer the positive image of celebrity into the filmed destination that celebrities signify (Lee et al., 2008). Therefore, past studies have studied the influence of celebrity involvement on destination image and found that there is a significant relationship between celebrity involvement and destination image (Yen & Croy, 2016).

Destination image refers to “a function of brand, and the tourists’ and sellers’ perceptions of the attributes of activities or attractions available within a destination area” (Gartner, 1986, p. 636-637), explained by two dimensions: cognitive image and affective image (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997). Cognitive image means that an individual perceives the knowledge and beliefs of a destination’s physical attributes. Affective image refers that an individual evaluates his or her feelings toward a destination (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Past studies have found that destination image is significantly related to outcomes (e.g., destination trust and loyalty) (Chen & Phou, 2013). Specifically, destination image is a crucial determinant of place attachment (Chen & Phou, 2013; Prayag & Ryan, 2012). Place attachment refers as the affective bonds between people and the particular geographical areas (Lewicka, 2008). Place attachment is crucial to understand the destination outcomes such as satisfaction and future behavior intentions (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ramkissoon et al., 2013). Therefore, research on place attachment has been devoted to investigate the determinants of place attachment (Cheng et al., 2013; Hosany et al., 2016).

Accordingly, past studies on film-induced tourism have examined the relationship between celebrity involvement and destination image as well as the relationship between destination image and place attachment. However, the relationship between celebrity involvement and place attachment is under-examined. Additionally, celebrity involvement may influence place attachment through destination image. Hence, this study fills up the research gap by examining the relationship between celebrity involvement and place attachment and by clarifying the mediating role of destination image.

METHOD

The growth and popularity of film tourism in Asia is the phenomena of Hallyu or the Korean
wave (Kim & Nam, 2016), which refers that the Korean culture products (e.g., songs and TV dramas) are popular throughout the Asian areas (Lee et al., 2008). The new wave induces that many international tourists in the Asian countries (e.g., China and Thailand) visit Korea and experience the Korean culture. The famous Korean filmed locations, such as Daejanggeum Theme Park and Nami Island, have received the unprecedented number of international tourists’ interests and visitations (Kim, 2012).

The Korean wave also has reached Taiwan because Korean TV dramas (e.g., Great Jang-Geum and Boys over Flowers) have received Taiwanese people’s attention and induced Korean stardom (Yen and Tseng, 2015). Purposeful sampling method suggested by Fossey et al. (2002) was adopted to identify the qualified respondents, who had visited Korean film places and to maximize the range of representatives. Because fans in Taiwan often visit websites, forums, and bulletin boards (e.g., Kpop and Korea Drama) of famous Korean film stars (e.g., Lee Min-Ho and Song Hye-Kyo), online survey was adopted in this study. We contacted with the online moderators, described our purposes, and asked for their cooperation willingness. After receiving their approval, the online questionnaire and the cover letter were placed on the websites or bulletin boards. Participants received a questionnaire including a measure of celebrity involvement, destination image, place attachment, and demographic variables.

All responses to questions were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree), except for affective image with four bipolar items on a five-point semantic differential-type scale and the respondents’ demographics. Celebrity involvement was measured by twelve items from Lee et al. (2008). Destination image was measured using eighteen items from Baloglu and McCleary (1999). Place attachment was measured using the eight items proposed by Kyle et al. (2004).

Of the 400 questionnaires completed between February and April 2016, we obtained 375 usable questionnaires after deleting 25 surveys that respondent didn’t have complete answers or there were missing data. Of the 375 respondents, men were 94 (25.1%) and women were 281 (74.9%). 31.5% of the total respondents’ age were between 31 and 40 years. Additionally, 53.9% of the respondents identified themselves as married and 72.9% of the respondents received a bachelor’s or higher degree.

**FINDINGS**

The reliabilities of questionnaire items were performed by using SPSS 20.0 software in this study. The individual Cronbach’s alphas in celebrity involvement, destination image, and place attachment were 0.92, 0.91, and 0.92 respectively. Each individual value was greater than the standard of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978), indicating that our questionnaire had high reliability.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to validate the main constructs in this study. The CFA results were shown as follows: χ² = 1619.47, df = 655, χ²/df = 2.47, root mean square residual (RMR) = 0.04, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.07, incremental fit index (IFI) = 0.93, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.93. Therefore, all of these fit indices were acceptable, suggesting that the overall model provided a good fit (Hair et al., 2010; χ²/df < 3, RMR ≤ 0.05, RMSEA ≤ 0.08, IFI ≥ 0.90, CFI ≥ 0.90).

Convergent validity and discriminant validity of the scales were confirmed using the following steps. For convergent validity, we adopted three criteria: standardized factor loadings, composite reliability (CR), and the average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2010). The standardized loadings of all observable indicators loaded significantly on their respective latent variables. The composite reliabilities were 0.94, 0.92, and 0.94 respectively, greater than the standard of 0.6 (Hair et al., 2010). AVE was between 0.53 and 0.79, which was above the recommended value of 0.50. Therefore, these empirical results supported convergent validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). For discriminant validity, the AVE values for all pairs of constructs were compared with the squared correlation of the constructs. All squared correlations were less than the variances extracted by each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Thus, all constructs were distinct and had discriminant validity.

This study performed the structural equation model (SEM) and tested whether significant pathways between celebrity involvement, destination image, and place attachment. The results indicated that the values of the fit indices were high (χ² =
1619.47, \( df = 655, \chi^2/df = 2.47, \) RMR = 0.04, \( \text{RMSEA} = 0.07, \) IFI = 0.93, CFI = 0.93). The results of SEM showed that the standardized coefficients for the paths from celebrity involvement to destination image, from destination image to place attachment, and from celebrity involvement to place attachment were all positively significant. Therefore, celebrity involvement was positively related to place attachment. Additionally, destination image mediated the relationship between celebrity involvement and place attachment.

**CONCLUSION**

Previous studies on film tourism have recognized the importance of celebrity involvement, destination image, and place attachment separately (Lee et al., 2015; Yen & Croy, 2016). However, to our knowledge, no study investigates their interrelationships in a single framework. Therefore, this study examines the relationship between celebrity involvement and place attachment and clarifies the mediating role of destination image. The findings report that celebrity involvement is positively related to place attachment. Furthermore, destination image has a mediating influence on the relationship between celebrity involvement and place attachment. Thus, destination image may be positioned as a referent to investigate how celebrity involvement affects place attachment.

The contributions of this study are as follows. First, scholars have shown that celebrities have an important significant influence on destination awareness and choice (Glover, 2009). One contribution of the current research is that heightened celebrity involvement induces their attachment to the filmed destinations that associated with celebrities. The findings complement the literature that examines the influence of celebrity involvement on outcome variables (e.g., celebrity worship, perceived value, and behavioral intention) (Yen & Croy, 2016; Yen, & Teng, 2015). Second, we have a deep understanding of how celebrity involvement influences place attachment. That is, destination image mediates the celebrity involvement-place attachment relationship. This findings supplement the statements of Wu and Zumbo (2008), which mediators can offer meaningful information on ‘how’ or ‘why’ an independent variable predicts the outcome variable for the advancement of theory development. Finally, from a practical viewpoint, the current research reveals that an understanding of celebrity involvement that induces destination image and place attachment can help destination managers to design effective communication and advertising activities.

Although this study has several theoretical and managerial implications, there are limitations that can be examined in future research. First, cross-sectional research design used during hypotheses testing does not enable confirming causal relationships. Second, the researchers gather data from a single source, indicating a possibility that common method variance may account for the significant findings. Future studies can design multiple data sources gathering.

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PERCEIVED IMPACTS OF TELEVISION–INDUCED TOURISM: 
THE CASE OF “FOREVERMORE” FILMED IN TUBA, 
BENGUET, PHILIPPINES

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INTRODUCTION

Over the years, there has been an increasing number of tourists that visit destinations featured in films and television series that were not directly related to any tourism promotion campaigns (Rewtrakunphaiboon, 2008) resulting to the “film-induced tourism”. Several researchers strove to make a distinction between the cases of films and television series, since then ‘film-induced tourism’ and ‘television-induced tourism’ were used respectively (Hudson & Ritchie, 2006; Rewtrakunphaiboon, 2008; Karadag, 2011). Literature review revealed that several studies have been conducted in the Philippines regarding film and television-induced tourism (Ledda & Perez, 2005; Regalario & Vasquez, 2009; Castillo & Kaufman, 2009; Alcantara & Aquino, 2012; Salazar & Villamora, 2013). However, few studies have been carried out regarding the impacts on the host community. This study examines the influence of television-induced tourism on a small rural-based community in the Philippines.

‘Forevermore’ is a popular drama television series in the Philippines broadcasted on the latter months of 2014 and ended early in 2015. The main setting was a fictional community strawberry farm called Sitio La Presa. In reality, the name of Sitio La Presa is Sitio Pungayan which is located on top of Mt. Kabuyao in Tuba, Benguet (Cruz, 2015). Prior to the popularity of ‘Forevermore’, homes were few and far between each other and the area around had long been used as farm gardens (Guieb, 2015). A few months after the start of Forevermore, various establishments started appearing and selling products related to the show (Cruz, 2015). The television show then gave way to the emergence of various tourism-related jobs and establishments that had brought about significant change in the overall landscape of not only Sitio Pungayan but of the whole municipality of Tuba. Due to the concerns over the continuous degradation of the environment, officials of non-government organizations and representatives from the religious sector applied for a protection order halting tourism activities in the area. The court granted their request and Sitio Pungayan was closed to tourists.

This study identified the economic, environmental, and social impacts of tourism brought by the television series, Forevermore on Tuba, Benguet from the perspectives of the tourism stakeholders and the responses made by the local government and non-government organizations. The goal of the study was to determine whether the filming of the show has negatively or positively affected Tuba, Benguet.

METHOD

The methodology used by the study was qualitative. Selected residents, local government officials and members of non-government organizations were personally interviewed to gather their views regarding the economic, environmental and social impacts of the television-induced tourism in Tuba, Benguet, the changes observed or experienced by the residents and the actions of the local government that came about after these impacts. Impacts after the filming of the television show were identified by direct estimation of selected indicators from primary sources and the use of local secondary sources. Economic impacts were measured by the number of jobs generated related to tourism, volume of tourist arrivals, businesses that were established, and if family income of the residents have increased or decreased. Conversely, environmental impacts were identified with the help of the
stakeholders’ perception (i.e. the amount of pollution they saw in the area with emphasis on solid waste, littering and deforestation). The aesthetic or visual pollution seen was also taken into consideration. Social impacts were measured in terms of how tourism impacted the resident’s way of life in their own words and of the words of other stakeholders. An expounded inquiry into the local government unit’s and the non-government organizations’ respective responses to the social, economic and environmental impacts brought by the television show and the opinions of the residents regarding these responses were conducted. The period of investigation was limited to the year 2014, when the television show started its broadcast until the year 2016, when data for the study was gathered. The conduct of a quantitative survey was not successful because most of the residents refused to participate in the survey because they still have negative sentiments regarding the closure of their place to tourism. Thus, estimates were made based on oral testimony or of published government records and data.

FINDINGS

Drawing upon the primary data gathered from interviews with the stakeholders, it was found that the stakeholders had divided opinions whether Tuba, Benguet was affected positively or negatively by “Forevermore”. Residents said that the tourism brought by “Forevermore” was positive because of the economic merits, but the local government and non-government organization involved were concerned of the environmental repercussions that came with this type of tourism. “Forevermore” enabled the residents to obtain alternative forms of livelihood to address the seasonality of agriculture, the main livelihood in the area. A massive boost in visitor arrivals came after the television broadcast of Forevermore consequently causing a notable increase in the income of the local government primarily gained from the mandatory fees collected prior to entry. Increase in employment and job opportunities offered for residents by both the local government and the newly built tourism business establishments in the area was also observed.

The main environmental change seen was the unrestricted rise of pollution in the area, such as improper waste disposal. Further issues arose when an illegal road construction project came to light which brought about massive logging irrevocably changing the landscape of the area. Bantay Baguio, a non-government organization acting as community watch, was the entity most worried about the ramifications of this issue. Residents, on the other hand, were aware yet rather tolerant to the threat of pollution to the area.

Moreover, residents expressed that the quality of their life improved, giving a sense of financial security. The stakeholders all agreed that Forevermore highlighted the area even after the end of the series broadcast and helped shaped its reputation as a tourism destination. However, it also caused social discomfort such as overcrowding. The huge volume of tourists coming every day caused traffic congestion that the local government failed to address.

A common consensus came about between the involved stakeholders that the local government was not able to perform their duties well leading to continuous environmental degradation up until the permanent environmental protection order was ordered by court to protect the area. It became evident that residents were more in favor of continuing tourism activities due to the massive benefits that they received. The local government and DENR expressed the same but they were more reserved and careful due to potential negative impacts it may bring. The only one who was totally opposed to the idea of continuing tourism activities in the future was Bantay Baguio.

CONCLUSION

Television-induced tourism offers an alternative avenue for the economic and social interests of a host community, yet poses a cautionary tale, as in the case of Tuba, on its massive changes to the surrounding environment. Accumulated findings state that stakeholders of Tuba, Benguet were divided in their opinions regarding whether tourism brought by “Forevermore” had positively or negatively affected Tuba. Views were expressed based on the different categories of impact mentioned,
economic, environmental, and social that in general; there were more positive reception based on the economic merits, but television-induced tourism became a negative impact when environmental effects were the center of discourse. In terms of social impacts, television-induced tourism was perceived as generally affecting the community positively. It was concluded that most of the stakeholders approve of future tourism development but tensions among the stakeholders are yet to be abated and consultations yet to be conducted. It is recommended that further research be undertaken on television-induced tourism, specifically, on its sustainability.

The case study of Tuba illustrates the notion that the involvement of all stakeholders is essential to a sustainable tourism planning and development (Heitmann, 2010). Insufficient communication was evident between all the concerned stakeholders. It is suggested that product identification and tourism awareness programs be part of the consultations for all the stakeholders to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the potential and proper management of tourism products in their area. The film industry, while not a direct stakeholder of the destination, can be considered an involuntary stakeholder (Heitmann, 2010). Recognizing the possible value of a partnership between the film production and the host community early on can all the more maximize television-induced tourism benefits between the two parties (Regalario & Vasquez, 2009).

This study aimed to contribute to the limited literature regarding perceived television-induced tourism impacts by stakeholders on a given destination. Moreover, this study paints a clearer picture for the various stakeholders in Tuba, Benguet on each perceptions of television-induced tourism in their community. The study points out the need for better communication among the stakeholders in all levels of the tourism planning process. A more, open and inclusive environment should be fostered by the local government agencies for community development to flourish and a holistic concern for the state of their community to transpire. Lastly, this study opens a valuable discussion on the rising establishment of television-induced tourism in the Philippines. By spreading awareness of its benefit and effects, with guided knowledge and proper management, television-induced tourism can be a competitive core asset in the continuing development of tourism in the Philippines.

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Asian Institute of Tourism - University of the Philippines Diliman, Quezon City, Philippines.
FILM TOURISM: THE ROLE OF GENRES IN FILM TOURIST EXPERIENCES

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INTRODUCTION

A specific type of tourism-Film Tourism has recently been recognized within the tourism industry. Having approached it in several case-studies and research projects, researchers agree that, in certain conditions, a film may influence the decision of the viewer to travel to the destination that such film portrays, but note the general lack of understanding about the reasons why films may motivate tourists to travel, and the importance of further researching different elements of the film and their possible effects on tourism-related decisions. Indeed, it is possible that films affect tourists via several elements, most notably, visual beauty, plot, actors and genres, among others. This research project adheres to such recommendations and contributes to Film Tourism research by examining the influence of previously neglected “film genre” element and investigating the connection between film genres and tourist motivation factors and the overall influence of the film genre on the tourist’s decision making process.

METHOD

The literature review component of this research consists of two major parts. Firstly, the concept of tourist decision making process is approached and examined. The studies of Bansal and Eiselt (2004), Decrop and Snelders (2005) and Hsu, Tsai and Wu (2009) are used to explore existing theories on tourist behaviour. The motivation element of tourist decisions received additional insight, most notably by reviewing the research of Yoon and Uysal (2005). The second part of the literature review explored the concept of Film Tourism, focusing in greater depth on its definition (Evans, 1997; Grahault, 2003), forms of this type of tourism (Macionis, 2004; Connell, 2012), film tourist profile (Busby and Klug, 2001; Kim, Agrusa, Chon and Cho, 2008) and case study examples (Hudson and Ritchie, 2006; Iwashita, 2006). Finally, film genre theories are reviewed in the studies of Stam and Miller (2000), Grant (2003) and Tudor (2003).

This research adopted a mixed method approach, subsequently, the methodological component is divided into two phases: a quantitative questionnaire survey followed by a series of in-depth interviews. The questionnaire, utilizing both closed and open questions, examined both how the tourists make tourism-related decisions and the influence that films have on such decisions (Wheeler, Shaw and Barr, 2004). The following analysis of the questionnaires was performed by using the SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) tool (Field, 2009). This phase was followed by a series of qualitative face-to-face interviews with a purposive sample of the respondents who completed the questionnaire (Veal, 2011). The interviews focused majorly on four aspects of genres affecting Film Tourist experience: motivation to travel, changes in destination image and destination interest, emotional responses and experiences of the respondents and desired and/or previously experienced Film Tourism visits.

FINDINGS

The results suggest that film genres may affect the motivational factors, such as Excitement and Achievement (Yoon and Uysal, 2005). Moreover, emotions are an important factor in the decisions of Film Tourists (Kim, 2012), and films of specific genres may infuse destination with such emotions, alter the destination image and create an interest in the destination. Indeed, the role of emotions is critical, if not the main factor which dictates the influence of the genres on the decision-making process of the tourist, but not all genres may be able to cause emotions strong enough to affect tourist decisions. Emotion of excitement is found to be most often caused by film watching.
experience, and the most efficient genre to cause it is “adventure”. Similarly, romantic emotions are found to be most interest-causing and have the most positive effect on the image of the destination, which signals that films of the “romantic” genre are more likely to be efficient pleasing destination image constructors.

However, strength and specifics of the emotions, caused by the films, depend highly on the personality of the viewer, his/her educational level, maturity, cultural background, sensitivity, and other factors. Because of this, whilst general processes of genre influence are identifiable, it is much more difficult to predict the exact influence of the genre for a specific viewer, but it is possible to explore the behavior of specific tourist types and use the film genre as a prediction tool to help to identify the type of possible film-affected tourist and his/her possible position on the Travel Career Ladder.

CONCLUSION

This research suggests suggestion that genres, while useful when assisting the film tourist typology and behavior patterns, are but a small element of the overall film influence, which encompasses a wider range of elements such as visual beauty, plot, actors, credibility and the atmosphere. The visual portrayal of the destination is the key element which determines whether the film will affect the decision of the viewer to travel, but the genres of the film may allow the prediction of tourist type and possible travel behavior. In addition, for most tourists, film is an additional and not a primary factor which creates a wish to travel.

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MOANA—WILL THIS MOVIE HELP HAWAI’I’S TOURISM?

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past several years, Hawaii tourism officials have gained a growing awareness of the susceptibility of this industry to losses and variability through increased terrorism, higher fuel and travel costs, and other political, economic and health factors. With 8.94 million visitors to Hawaii spending more than $16.5 billion dollars annually, the success of Hawaii’s economy is inexorably linked to the strength of its tourism industry (DBEDT, 2016). To increase visitor arrivals, strategic “niche” marketing has been implemented to also empower visitor affinity (Agrusa, 1998; Beaton, 2008; Butler, 1990; Chacko, 1996; Park & Jamieson, 2009) to strengthen a closer attachment to the Hawaiian Islands. An important example of this tactic is the use of movie tourism to increase tourism (Busby & Klug, 2001; Iwashita, 2008) to the Hawaiian Islands. This research paper will focus on the impact that the movie “Moana” has on the perceptions of Hawaii as a tourist destination.

The release of Walt Disney’s latest animated movie, Moana takes place in a fictional mystic Oceania island in the South Pacific inspired by the cultures of Polynesia. Many families have viewed the film while countless children are outfitted with Moana gear and merchandise. With the film’s increasing popularity and activity on social media, the movie Moana has potential to create interest in Polynesian (Berman, 2016) and Hawaii tourism. The movie’s impact of Polynesian tourism with a concentration on Hawaii, through the representation of Polynesian and Hawaiian cultures can pose both opportunities and challenges for the Polynesian Islands. Hawaii among many other featured destinations, has experienced an increase in interest and tourism as a result of being featured in past movies.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of representation of Hawaii in Disney’s Moana movie among both residents and non-residents and to identify Hawaii travel motivators. This research paper will also investigate tourism development and cultural impacts to Hawaii that may result from the release of this most recent movie. Popular movies such as Fifty First Dates, Forgetting Sarah Parker, The Descendants, Soul Surfer and the 1961 Elvis Presley movie Blue Hawaii have been featured or has taken place in Hawaii that resulted in an increase in the state’s media exposure (Yuen, 2012).

Moana, Walt Disney’s latest animated feature takes place in a fictional mystic island in Oceania in the South Pacific. Moana, the young princess of the tribe from Motu Nui Island, travels in search of a fabled island of mysterious secrets and adventure. During her journey, Moana teams up with hero and demigod, Maui who navigates the ocean to save her island people.

Released in November 2016, Walt Disney’s movie Moana made a significant contribution at the box office while climbing into the number one spot for the 2016 November Thanksgiving weekend with a gross dollar amount of $81.1 million (Schwartzel, 2016). Moana also earned the second-best November Thanksgiving weekend opening of all time behind Disney’s movie Frozen which was released in 2013 (Schwartzel, 2016). Over the 2016 November Thanksgiving weekend, Moana hit new records for Walt Disney within a week after its opening. Moana took in an astounding $2.49 billion in North America, which is a record for gross dollar ticket sales by a studio in North America (Driscoll, 2016).

Moana has been integrated into Disney parks and resorts around the world including the Aulani Resort and Spa on the island of Oahu in Hawaii, Disneyland in California, and Walt Disney World Resort in Florida (Slater, 2016). Moana has also partnered with the modern-day voyagers of the sky, Hawaiian Airlines, launching an international campaign to market the movie. Exterior art decals of three of the Hawaiian Airlines aircrafts, in-flight
Moana themed items for purchase, and changing of the in-flight welcome video featuring Moana was highlighted on every flight (Munar, 2016). The planes will also be implemented on Hawaiian Airlines’ regularly scheduled U.S. domestic routes as well as to international destinations including Brisbane and Sydney, Australia; Osaka and Tokyo, Japan; and Auckland, New Zealand, through 2017 (ABC Radio, 2016).

Prior to its release in theaters, Disney’s Moana merchandise stirred up controversy shortly after Disney’s release of the movie’s merchandise products (CBS News, 2016; Ngata, 2016). Several items including its Maui demigod Halloween costume and pajama set were pulled from its online and physical stores (Bitette, 2016). These items were brown skinned bodysuits that sparked the concern of many and were compared to blackface or “Polyface” (USA Today, 2016) worldwide audience. Increasingly communication and cross-cultural understanding are at high levels of concern therefore, cultural references must move beyond the surface and better represent the deeper notions of culture to avoid possible generalization of stereotypical myths and misconceptions.

Hawaii has experienced a boost in tourism as a result of movie induced motivation in the past (O’Connell, 2012) and may see similar results from this movie. Additionally, with both of the movie’s main characters having ties to the Hawaiian Islands, Hawaii may prove to become one of the top Polynesian Island destinations among the cultures represented in the movie Moana. Coupled with the integration of new technologies including facial recognition, destination product placement may provide new marketing opportunities in attracting well defined target markets. The Hawaii Tourism Authority test piloted facial recognition software in partnership with Expedia in 2016 to gauge expressions and reactions of potential traveler’s (Stasko, 2016). Furthermore, cognitive computing platforms have developed augmented intelligence to create what was once a traditionally heavy labor intensive process into cognitive movie trailer’s through big data analysis in real time, cloud video technology (IBM, 2016) that can provide efficient high level targeted destination product placements.

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PRESERVATION OF LIVING INTANGIBLE CULTURAL HERITAGE: THE PERFORMING ARTS IN MACAO

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism benefits the preservation of intangible cultural heritage (Tikkkanen, 2008; Xie, Osumare, & Ibrahim, 2007). However, after the successful inscription on UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific, Cultural Organization) representative list of the intangible cultural heritage of humanity in 2009 (UNESCO, 2009), Cantonese opera (Yueju opera) has not yet received much attention from the tourist industry. As a cultural symbol of Cantonese folks, Cantonese opera is a valuable resource for the development of cultural and heritage tourism. Yet its tourism value is not well recognized and thus the attention from the society to its preservation is limited. This study attempts to explore the present development of Cantonese opera and its connection to tourism from the perspective of local government and performing groups of Cantonese opera in Macao.

In fact, the tourism values of cultural heritage have been widely recognized and studied (Santa-Cruz, 2016; Silberberg, 1995). Nowadays, many historical and cultural heritage sites in different destinations are popular tourist attractions and contributing a lot to the tourism economy by attracting many tourists (McIntosh & Prentice, 1999; Timothy & Boyd, 2006). The increasing popularity of heritage sites among tourists urges local government and communities to protect and care about their heritage sites more. A number of studies advocated the importance of preserving cultural and heritage (du Cros, 2007; McKercher, Ho, & Cros, 2004b; Moscardo, 1996; Santa-Cruz, 2016). The inscription on the world heritage list has highlighted the importance and universal value of the cultural heritage of the destination, as well as drawing much attention from the tourism industry (Hede, 2007; Yan & Morrison, 2007). Intangible cultural heritage is different from tangible cultural heritage in terms of management, marketing, and preservation (Ahmad, 2006; Bessière, 2013; Santa-Cruz, 2016). The preservation of intangible cultural heritage needs appreciation, understanding, and support from not only the local government, but also the general public and host communities (UNESCO, 2003).

As the intangible cultural heritage in the form of performing arts, Cantonese opera actually has received limited attention from the society of Macao after its successful inscription on UNESCO representative list of the intangible cultural heritage of humanity in 2009. While the Historic Center of Macao has received much attention from the local society and inbound tourists after its inscription on the UNESCO list of cultural heritage in 2005, Cantonese opera remains unpopular for tourists. Previous studies suggested that cultural heritage was important resource for enriching cultural and heritage tourism experiences and in turn, tourism would help to draw more attention to the preservation of cultural heritage (McKercher, Ho, & Cros, 2004a; Moscardo, 1996). Therefore, tourists’ awareness of and interest in Cantonese opera are likely to draw more attention from stakeholders to the preservation of Cantonese opera. The local government and communities should take the lead to promote this intangible cultural heritage to tourists (Xie & Lane, 2006). Considering the lack of studies in the relationship between Cantonese opera and tourism, this present study attempts to explore how Cantonese opera is being preserved and introduced to tourists from the perspective of local performing groups of Cantonese opera and concerned governmental departments in Macao. The findings will reveal how host community and government preserve Cantonese opera and integrate it into tourism, as well as guide the future research about the beneficial relationship between Cantonese opera and tourism, as well as the sustainable development of intangible cultural heritage attraction with tourism.

METHOD

To meet the research objective of exploring
the present development of Cantonese opera and its connection with tourism in Macao from the perspective of stakeholders, this study took in-depth interviews with the local performing groups of Cantonese opera and concerned governmental departments. Such in-depth interview is well recognized as the appropriate method for capturing insights and subjective aspects of stakeholders’ views of Cantonese opera development (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Three interviews took place with the management staff of Macao museum, Macao Cultural Affairs Bureau, and Macao Government Tourist Office by telephones and emails. Each phone interview lasted about 30 minutes, complemented by their informative documents and written replies to the questions regarding governmental support to Cantonese opera.

In addition, 12 performing groups of Cantonese opera agreed with the interview. A loose semi-structured interview approach was adopted in order to induce interviewees’ actual and insightful thoughts about the development of Cantonese opera, as well as their opinions about the connection between Cantonese opera and tourism. The interview with each performing group lasted from 1 to 1.5 hours. Conversations were audio-recorded with the consent from the interviewees. All audio-recorded interviews with performing groups and governmental departments were transferred into transcripts. The notes taken during interviews were complementary to the transcripts. As suggested by Struss (1987) and Silverman (2011), open coding was undertaken to conceptualize and categorize data, followed by axial coding which aimed to group the codes according to conceptual categories that reflect commonalities among codes. The results are presented in the following section.

FINDINGS

There are three major categories emerged from the interviews: community-based performing groups, governmental support, and connection with tourists. Though Cantonese opera is well recognized as the intangible cultural heritage of humanity, no full-time performing group of Cantonese opera is established in Macao. Local Cantonese opera artists have established over 200 performing groups in Macao on a part-time basis. Interviewees participated in the annual live performances with their performing groups every year, and oftentimes joint hands with other artists from different local Cantonese opera performing groups to stage collaborative performances in Macao. Since there over 200 performing groups of Cantonese opera in Macao, local Cantonese opera artists gradually developed a community-based performing system through which they could easily form a new performing group with different Cantonese opera artists from the local, Hong Kong, and Guangdong cities to stage live performances of Cantonese opera on different scales. The collaboration among local performing groups facilitated resource and knowledge sharing, as well as improving the performance quality of individual performing groups and artists.

One of the challenges for the preservation of Cantonese opera is the difficulty of diversifying audience segments. Since recent years, elderly Cantonese residents have gradually dominated the audience seats of most Cantonese opera performances. Nevertheless, many audiences are no longer as passionate as before for Cantonese opera, and thus resulting in a relatively low box-office rate nowadays. The practice of delivering free tickets to audience is very common but still cannot help much to improve the box-office rate.

Governmental support is evidenced in the sponsorship to the annual performances of most registered performing groups of Cantonese opera in Macao. Local performing groups could apply for monetary sponsorship from concerned governmental department for their annual live performance. However, the governmental sponsorship in general only covers about a half of the total expense of each live performance. Performing groups need to find additional subsidy or sponsorship from private organizations and philanthropists to support their daily operation and the rent of rehearsal venues.

The contact between tourists and Cantonese opera is very limited in Macao, since most performing groups do not particularly promote their live performances to tourists due to their low marketing budget and little understanding of tourists’ interest in watching live Cantonese opera performance in Macao. Macao Cultural Affairs Bureau and Macao Government Tourist Office
invited local Cantonese opera artists to perform as one of the shows in a few annual festivals and events for tourists, but overall, the exposure of live performances of Cantonese opera to tourists is still scarce.

**IMPLICATIONS**

Community-based performing groups benefit the preservation of intangible cultural heritage in the form of performing arts (Bergadaá & Lorey, 2015). The community-based characteristics of local performing groups of Cantonese opera enable frequent and easy interaction and collaboration among over 200 private performing groups of Cantonese opera in Macao, as well as evidence the effectiveness of preserving Cantonese opera with the supportive participation of many local Cantonese opera lovers and artists. The insufficient exposure and weak promotion of Cantonese opera to tourists limited tourists’ awareness and interest in Cantonese opera. The attitudes of host government and community toward integrating such intangible cultural heritage as Cantonese opera into tourism are particularly important for building a mutual beneficial relationship between Cantonese opera and tourism. This study suggested both host government and community re-thinking about their current practice and policies for promoting Cantonese opera to tourists.

**REFERENCE**


EXPLORING MEANINGS AND VALUES OF ABORIGINAL TOURISM EXPERIENCES

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ABSTRACT

Indigenous destination is a tourism space full with ethnic culture attraction. The ways tourists experience indigenous destination are varied; and exotic culture plays different roles in recreation, and reflects distinctive meanings and values. This study intends to explore the nature of tourism experiences in indigenous cultural spaces by exploring the attributes of on-site activities, benefits of participations and pursuing values; further illustrate the meanings by constructing the patterns of experience linkages. Total 58 in-depth interviews were conducted; and the Means-End-Chain method is used to construct hierarchical value maps from visitor’s tribal experiences. The most evident experience linkage indicates that the tribal tourists preferred novelty and like to learn from indigenous culture through participation traditional activities. Study concludes three distinct patterns of tourism experience at indigenous cultural spaces—enjoying nature and simple lifestyle, participating aboriginal style of recreation, and experiencing ethnic culture, which are drove by two noticeable value systems -happiness and enrichment.

Keywords: Ethnic Space, Indigenous Culture, Tourist Experience, Value, Means-end

INTRODUCTION

Tourism involves the movement of people outside of their normal places of work and residence. As such, it provides participants with novel experiences, often bringing them into contact with unknown places and people. Indigenous tourism refers to activities in which indigenous people are directly or indirectly involved either through control and/or by having their culture served as the center of the attraction. Exotic ethnic experiences reveal the special attractions of aboriginal tourism.

Various studies (Dyer, Aberdeen and Schuler, 2003; Butler and Hinch, 2007) have pointed to the mutual benefits experienced in cross-cultural, tourist-host encounters. These benefits include generation of positive attitudes on the part of tourist and host, increased cultural understanding, reduction of ethnic prejudices, and development of pride, appreciation and tolerance.

Perspectives of indigenous tourism, inter alia, have varied from the host-guest nexus of tourism impacts (Butler and Hinch, 2007), to the conflicts and tensions between indigenous culture and tourism encroachment (Robinson & Boniface, 1999) to the debates on authenticity and commodification of cultural performance (Cohen, 1988, 2002). Areas of indigenous tourism, among many, include extensive ethnographic research on the Balinese in Indonesia (Picard, 1996); the challenges and opportunities of tourism development in Northern Territory in Australia (Ryan & Huyton, 2000); the situational adaptation of ethnic performance to re-signify aesthetic forms of traditional meaning in Canada (Mason, 2004); the contested interpretation of Maori identity in New Zealand (Taylor, 2001); and the perceived authenticity of indigenous souvenirs for local tourists in Taiwan (Xie, Wu & Hsieh, 2012).

The existing research on perceived experiences, including motivation, activities, preferences, values and meanings, is centered on quantitative aspects where tourists’ decision making can be explicitly expressed. The intricacies of the cognitive structure, such as perceptions and valuations of the attributes of the good often result in complex choice structures. There exists a fuzzy conceptualization in the process of decision-making. This study addresses this gap by examining a means-end chain approach to identify underlying tourists’ experience of indigenous tourism in the attribute-consequence-value patterns. It explores tourists’ perceived benefits and meanings for visiting indigenous destinations, and further explore how activities participated facilitate
their desired values. Hierarchical value maps were developed to better understand tourists’ value patterns and show a holistic picture of visiting these attractions. The paper starts with an extensive literature review on tourists’ perception of indigenous tourism and introduces the concept of a mean-end chain approach.

**METHOD**

This study intended to target tourists who had visited aboriginal tribe destination in a month prior to interviews. Due to the locations of 14 aboriginal tribes are dispersed in various counties in Taiwan and situated in the remote mountains. Thus, this study sampled bloggers on internet who met criteria of study subjects and agreed to engage 40-60 minutes interviews through internet communications (i.e. SKYPE or MSN) or telephone with approval of recording. A total of 58 subjects participated. We successfully included respondents who had travelled to major tribes (Amis, Atayal, Tsou, Paiwan, Bunun, Rukai, Puyuma, and Saisiyat) in Taiwan as main travel destinations.

The interview began with questioning demographic profiles, following by previous travel experiences, and then focusing on their most recent tribal travels. This study using the laddering procedure, the interviewer first asked the respondent to specify at least three activities participated on the tribal tourism destination; then consecutively asked respondents what benefits/importance they perceived for each activity mentioned until the respondent could not go on. The Means-End-Chain method is used to construct implication matrix and draft hierarchical linkages among (product) attributes, (benefits of consumption) consequences, and values from examining the observable characteristics of activity and psychological perceptions of benefits and meanings.

**FINDINGS**

The interview began with questioning demographic profiles, following by previous travel experiences, and then focusing on their most recent tribal travels. This study using the laddering procedure, the interviewer first asked the respondent to specify at least three activities participated on the tribal tourism destination; then consecutively asked respondents what benefits/importance they perceived for each activity mentioned until the respondent could not go on. The Means-End-Chain method is used to construct implication matrix and draft hierarchical linkages among (product) attributes, (benefits of consumption) consequences, and values from examining the observable characteristics of activity and psychological perceptions of benefits and meanings.

There are 38 terms were generated from tourists’ experiences of tribal travels (Figure 1). Among 13 types of (product) attributes, participating traditional activities (e.g., hunting, or waiving), and contacting with indigenous people (e.g., talking to, or dining with) are most often observed. Among 12 types of (benefits) consequences, relaxing (e.g., escaping from daily life) and novelty seeking (e.g., different and not easy to access) are most often mentioned. Among 13 kinds of values, enrichment (e.g., broaden views, creativity, or accumulating life experiences), and happiness (e.g., pleasant, or well-beings) are two most evident values perceived.
Pleasure from Enjoy Nature and Simple Lifestyle

There are two linkages can be included. The first linkage is to connect enjoying nature landscape (A5) to being positive (V7) or happiness (V9). While tourists enjoy the remote nature landscape, such as forest and streams during their trip to aboriginal tourism destination, they would feel like backing to the nature (C1), relaxing (C11) or broad-minded (C3), and these feelings reward themselves with the value of happiness (V9), and make them be positive (V7) as facing working (or living) difficulties. The second linkage can be observed is to connect tasting aboriginal lifestyle (A4) with cherish (V2), being positive (V7), or happiness (V9). Comparing with the busyness and complexity of modern lifestyle, the lifestyle of aboriginal tribe is less tenses (C11) and self-content (C8) with nature path (C1). While tourists have opportunity to sample such lifestyle, they may feel like coming back to the mother-nature, relaxing and content with less desire. Such feeling of relaxing will evoke people’s value of happiness and staying positive. The induced feeling of self-content with less desire would elicit value of cherishing resources and other individuals. The constituents of these two linkages reveal an evident pattern (with total 88 links) of experience for tribal tourism - ‘pleasure from enjoy nature and simple lifestyle’.

Enjoyment from Experiencing Ethnic Culture

Several linkages in the HVM together can illustrate an experience pattern of tribal tourism – visitors make themselves feel pleasant through experiencing various kinds of ‘ethnic’ activities. Respondents connect participating aboriginal festivals (A12), experiencing traditional activities (A10), having aboriginal cuisines (A7), and appreciating symbols of aboriginal culture (A6) with values of enrichment (V6) and seeking variety (V4). Tourist’s curiosity (novelty-seeking for different experiences) (C2) can be triggered by experiencing ethnic culture such as tasting aboriginal foods (special ways of preparation or food materials) or symbols of aboriginal culture (such as totem, architecture, artifacts, or clothes), and will further reward the values of enriching life and seeking variety. In addition, respondents would link the opportunity to contact with aborigine (A11) and watching aboriginal performance (A2) with freedom (V1), happiness (V9) or, being acceptance (V5). The candid (C10) and hospitality ways of personal communications and interactions (C12) make tourists feel close, pure or sincere in constructing host-guest relationships. The candid and sincere interpersonal relationships would nurture the value of freedom and happiness. Unlike the distanced and detached interpersonal relationships frequently hold in modern society, the warm and hospitality ways by local aborigine would bring tourists the values of acceptance and respectfulness. Among various ethnic culture activities, contacting with indigenous people is most evident activity to nurture this pattern of experience.

Seeking and Learning from Others

The last experience pattern found from this study depicts that seeking and learning aboriginal culture compose a meaningful travel experiences for some tribal tourists. Except for links between experiencing ethnic culture activity (A12, A7, A6, A10) and values of variety and enrichment (V4, V6) found in previous pattern, events and activities, especially visitor can personally involve (A13), featured by the aboriginal traditions can satisfy tourist’s curiosity of seeking novelty (C2) and facilitate their desires of learning aboriginal culture (C7), finally fulfill their terminal desires for caring of others (V8) and enriching their own lives (V6). Those ethnic culture experiences and learning would cater the values of seeking variety, life enrichment, and caring for others (including aborigine).

CONCLUSION

. Knowledge about how tourists experience ethnic culture, what are main attractions, what values/meaning tourists look for during touring aboriginal tribe destination are critical for contemplation of aboriginal tourism issues. The primary purpose of this study is to explore the nature and meanings of tribal tourism experiences. Three important conclusions draw upon study findings – (1) traditional activity, novelty-seeking, relaxing, and enrichment are most critical traits of tribal tourist’s experiences; (2) tribal tourists have various patterns to experience tribal tourism - enjoying nature and simple lifestyle, touring ethnic culture, and seeking and learning from others; (3)
happiness and enrichment are two main values to lead the tribal tourist experiences. Study findings can be used by future researchers and practitioners as they examine, explain, or design tribal tourism experiences/products.

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REGIONAL ORGANIZATIONS’ COOPERATION FOR ONSHORE EXCURSIONS OF CRUISE SHIPS IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION

The cruise industry is growing worldwide, especially in Asia. Between 2012 and 2015, passenger grew from 775,000 to nearly 2.1 million, a 39% compound annual growth rate in Asia (CLIA, 2016). Among those countries in Asia, Japan gained the largest scheduled number of port calls in 2016, i.e. 1526, and China followed it with 850.

Under this circumstance, in March 2016, the Japanese government sets the goal to raise the foreign arrivals by cruise ship to 5 million in 2020, while only 174 thousand in 2013, and has improved port infrastructures and systems which hinder cruise ships’ calling at ports. Alongside it, regional governments have been making efforts to attract cruise ships to their destinations. Thus the Japanese industry of receiving cruise ship is being expanding.

According to Wang, et al. (2014), tourist attractions located near a port are the most important to be selected as a port of call. Regarding these attractions, regional organizations must consider the peculiarity of cruise’s onshore excursions: battalion of tourists depart from and return to the port in a single day. Shibasaki et al. (2014) evaluated ports of call throughout Japan by applying the Analytic Hierarchy Process and concluded that natural resources were crucial for international cruise and ports of call near from the World Heritage site were highly appreciated. Shibasaki also mentioned that ports should be improved by concerning the preferences of cruise customers and the characteristics of onshore excursions. Based on the literature survey, Maeshima (2016) analyzed the characteristics of cruise ships operated by Chinese charterers and indicated future market changes and issues, and also summarized how to deal with regional revitalization policies and environmental problems in accepting cruise ships. Funck (2016) analyzed the case of Hiroshima with questionnaire as to foreign flagged ships and hearing survey to local officials of cruise, and concluded that preparation for onshore excursion for each nationality was important after grasping the demand and cooperation with other touristic activities was indispensable in order to maintain the large economic effect provided by calls of cruise ship. However, these previous studies do not focus on neither onshore excursion by comparing ports nor relationship between organizations relevant to cruise tourism around each port. This paper analyzes the ports of call throughout Japan that have received cruise ships in late years and considers how they made a cooperation with other bodies to plan and operate their onshore excursions.

METHOD

In this research, the ports of call throughout Japan were focused on. Data for the study were drawn from two questionnaire surveys and one hearing survey. First of all, the first questionnaire to the management bodies of port were conducted to reveal the result of port calls over the past five years, the core organization involved in onshore excursions and their policy to receive cruise ships in the future. This survey was to grasp the actual situation of accepting cruise ships in Japan. This first questionnaire was sent out to port management bodies of 84 who participate in Japan Cruise Port Association as of November 1, 2016, and the response rate was 96%.

Based on the first survey, the second questionnaire was conducted on the 82 core organizations to clarify the present onshore excursions including the question about resources and routes uniquely for cruise. The purpose, the tourism resources or routes proposed in the
promotion activity, and cooperating bodies of onshore excursions were asked in this survey, and the response rate was 82%.

Afterward, the hearing surveys to the major organizations and cooperative organizations were conducted in three ports; Hiroshima, Shimonoseki and Kitakyushu. From two questionnaire surveys, they can be considered as the ports that achieved significant increase of call of foreign flagged cruise ships and also significant efforts by the regional organizations related to onshore activities. This survey revealed the regional collaborative framework and unique tourist proposals for the cruise ships.

**FINDINGS**

Actual state of receiving cruise ships at each port and future intention to receive. All the port management bodies who responded to the first questionnaire had experience of receiving a cruise ship, moreover the rate of those who want to receive more cruise ships as this year in the future is 85% and about the same number is 15%. No port wants to decrease in receiving cruise ships.

Purpose and approach of regional organizations working on onshore excursions. The result of the questionnaire survey on cruise tourism and organizations related to cruise tourism shows all the ports are aiming at revitalization of regional economies. It is rare that one of the purposes for receiving cruise ships is to promote of exchange among residents (16%) or infiltration of maritime trade (1%).

This questionnaire also shows that more than half of organizations (61%) propose tourism resources and routes that are unique to cruise onshore excursions in promotion activity. And what is more, with respect to approximately half (46%) of organizations, at least one proposal unique to cruise was adopted in 2016. Table 1 shows what organizations consider for planning such proposals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Things to consider</th>
<th>Duration of stay onshore</th>
<th>Opinion of cruise line</th>
<th>Number of passengers</th>
<th>Nationality of passengers</th>
<th>Class of cruise ship</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>% (N=38)</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regional organizations’ efforts of tourism proposals for foreign flagged cruise ship. The results of the hearing survey are as below. In Hiroshima, the Tourism Promotion Office of Hiroshima Prefecture takes the initiative on promoting onshore excursions from Hiroshima Port. Since there are two World Heritage Sites; “the Hiroshima Peace Memorial (Genbaku Dome)” and “the Itsukushima Shrine” around the port, the Tourism Promotion Office of Hiroshima Prefecture recommends their other tourism resources or routes along with these world heritage sites, and visit to “Hondori Shopping Arcade” was realized as the result of their proposal in 2016. By prefecture’s subsidy, a restaurant ship for the Itsukushima shrine has been also getting popular as a choice of onshore excursion. In planning onshore excursions in Hiroshima, the Tourism Promotion Office takes advantage of the specialized committee for it in cooperating with the port division of the prefecture.

In Shimonoseki, the Port and Harbor Bureau of Shimonoseki City play a leading role in promotion of onshore excursions. Since the onshore excursion does not fall inside of the city, the Port and Harbor Bureau cooperates not only with the tourism division of the city but also with the tourism division of the Yamaguchi Prefecture and other cities to arrange tourism resources and routes. It could be considered as a reason why the Shimonoseki port was able to accept some of 1000 passengers in a time, and it succeeded to direct tourists to the hot springs inside and outside the city.

In Kitakyushu, as in Shimonoseki, the Port Promotion Division in Kitakyushu Seaport and Airport Bureau of the city plays a central role to work on attracting cruise ships and considering its onshore excursions. The Port Promotion division participates in a council named “Cruise Setouchi”
with other ports in the Seto Inland Sea in addition to collaboration with other ports on the coast of the Japan Sea such as Aomori, Kanazawa, Sakaiminato and Kobe. Kitakyushu utilizes those frameworks to appeal in exhibitions and to organize symposiums for domestic and oversea cruise lines. Seminars about cruising are also held for the citizens by the Port division of Kitakyushu City. Although there are tourism resources such as Kokura Castle and Kokura Garden, the Port Promotion Division considers that they are less attractive than other areas, so it proposed a Japanese cultural experience program such as "Kimono Fashion Show" that supported by citizens’ groups. These programs have become popular and established by now as an onshore excursion.

CONCLUSION

This paper aimed to summarize the actual situation of receiving cruise ships in Japan and the ways of cooperation between regional organizations around Japanese ports of call. The first questionnaire survey as to 84 port management bodies who participated in Japan Cruise Port Association was conducted to ask questions about their port calls over the past 5 years. The survey items in the second questionnaire on 82 core organizations for onshore excursions were about the purpose of onshore excursions, tourism resources and courses proposed in promotion activity. The hearing survey was conducted on regional organizations concerned with onshore excursions in three ports: Hiroshima, Shimonoseki and Kitakyushu, and relations with each organizations, unique tourism resources and courses are investigated.

The result of first questionnaire survey clearly shows that almost all of the ports want more calls so it can be desirable to avoid working individually and to make wide-area collaboration among regional governments.

The result of second questionnaire survey indicates that all ports are engaged in onshore excursions for revitalizing regional economy and more than half of ports propose tourism resources and routes that are unique to cruise tourism. Furthermore, about half of ports respond that their proposals have been chosen by cruise liner in 2016. Those proposals are planned taking into account cruise peculiarity, e.g. time limit, number of passengers. Consequently, about half of organizations’ efforts to involve in planning onshore excursion in anticipation of economic effects make sense.

The result from the hearing survey shows that the system of the regional organizations to work on onshore tourism differs according to port. For instance, in Hiroshima, an attraction ship is led by the port division of the prefecture and stakeholders in tourism sector are led by the tourism division while both of them are led by the port division of the city in Shimonoseki. The tourism department and the port department have better to cooperate to establish a framework to clarify the role sharing and it is necessary to consider cruise peculiarity as mentioned above.

If there is a framework which leads tourist attractions at the prefecture level, it will be helpful for formulating strategies in a wide area and offering tourist attractions and routes that can be visited from the port (From the case of Hiroshima and Shimonoseki). It is also shown that the framework beyond prefectures and efforts for citizens also contribute to the appeal of onshore excursions (From the case of Kitakyushu). In concluding, it should be noted that it is important to use different frameworks of collaboration across the city, prefecture and prefectoral boundary depending on current status or future target to adopt the need of cruise ships from various countries.

Receiving a port call of a cruise ship means to accept hundreds to thousands of tourists in a single day and the area to where they can access in less than 60 minutes from the port has a possibility to accept them. Such areas account for a considerable range in an island nation of Japan. Because of this large scale, rapid growth of cruise market in recent years in Asia, and its characteristic that can be influenced by changing social and economic conditions, it has been difficult for ports to collaborate in an existing local frame and they have dealt with accepting cruise ships by their own cooperative organization in each area.

Through the cooperation between near ports and also between the ports in the same sea area with sharing information, it can be said that the
destination ports are able to strategically promote their region’s tourism to the cruise market.

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INvolvement, SPIRITUAL EXPERIENCE, AND BEHAVIOURAL INTENTIONS IN RELIGIOUS TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

This study identified the hypothesised relationships amongst involvement, spiritual experience, and behavioural intentions in religious tourism. A face-to-face questionnaire survey was administered and 400 valid questionnaires were collected during the annual Dajia Mazu Pilgrimage Festival, a 9-day, 8-night pilgrimage walk of up to 12 hr per day, with a parade route across 4 coastal cities in Central Taiwan: Taichung, Changhua, Yunlin, and Chiayi. The results revealed significant positive relationships between self-expression, attraction and spiritual experience, as well as between spiritual experience and behavioural intentions. Moreover, this study suggested that spiritual experience may be an accurate predictor of behavioural intentions, particularly regarding religious tourism.

Keywords: Self-expression, Attraction, Dajia Mazu, Intangible cultural heritage of humanity

INTRODUCTION

Religions impart hope to people, enrich their spiritual life, and also generate tourism through pilgrimages and religious tours (Kasim, 2011; El Hanan, 2013). Amongst the many religions in Taiwan, Mazu, the Taoist goddess, is one of the most popular deities, with more than 500 temples enshrining her throughout Taiwan (Bureau of Cultural Heritage, R.O.C, 2017; Wikipediala, 2017). The Dajia Mazu Pilgrimage Festival has become one of the most crucial religious festivals in Taiwan, having been held every lunar March since the Qing Dynasty (1730 AC). Hundreds of thousands of tourists attend the annual festival for 9 days and 8 nights. Participants trek over 300 km, carrying a statue of Mazu, representing the largest Chinese religious pilgrimage worldwide (Yao, 2010; Dajia Chen Lan Temple Website, 2013).

Many Taiwanese people have strong religious beliefs and involve in Mazu, in both urban and rural areas. People attend temple worship and pray for peace and blessings (Chang & Chu, 2012). The concept of involvement originally derived from social judgment theory, proposed by Sherif and Cantril (1947), and is defined as the degree to which an object or idea is centrally related to the value system of a person. Freedman (1964) believed that involvement emphasises the interest of identity in a particular topic. Zaichkowsky (1985) further suggested that involvement is a psychological concept defined as the level of interest or relevance of a product for people based on their inherent needs, values, and tastes. Hence, understanding customer involvement can comprehensively explain their attitudes and behaviours (Cheung & To, 2011). Tourism studies have defined spiritual experience as the feelings of awareness of self and others, a sense of connection, and intense sensation (Little & Schmidt, 2006). For instance, King (2003) demonstrated that people who attend church more frequently tend to possess deeper spiritual experience, love, and hope. Research on spiritual experience has been scant in travel and leisure before 2010 (Schmidt & Little, 2007; Norman, 2011; Sharpfley & Jepson, 2011; Heintzman, 2012; Kraus, 2012, 2014). Several studies have indicated that a high level of involvement in religion enhances people’s spiritual experience (Seybold & Hill, 2001; King, 2003; Hill & Pargament, 2003). Questions remain as to whether tourist involvement is an accurate predictor of spiritual experience in pilgrimage festivals.

Favourable behavioural intentions frequently represent customer conative loyalty. Customer loyalty is a crucial goal in the consumer marketing community because it is a key component for a company’s long-term viability or sustainability (Chen & Chen, 2010). Few researchers have indicated that spiritual experience and behavioural intentions are positively related in tourism (Van...
Cappellen & Saroglou, 2012; Matheson, Rimmer & Tinsley, 2014). This study focused on the relationships amongst involvement, spiritual experience, and behavioural intentions in religious tourism.

**LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES**

**Religious tourism**

The faithfulness of a religion’s followers usually generates two important activities: religious tourism and pilgrimage. Religious tourism and pilgrimage are similar in the way that they both involve tourists who go on a tour and return home within a certain period of time for a certain purpose, including the religious purpose (Blackwell, 2007). Religious tourism and pilgrimage are still somehow different in some way. “Religious tourism, also commonly referred to as faith tourism, is a type of tourism, where people travel individually or in groups for pilgrimage, missionary, or leisure (fellowship) purposes” (Raj & Morpeth, 2007; Wikipedia, 2017). Rinschede (1992) defined “religious tourism” in the way that “Religious tourism is that form that is exclusively or strongly motivated for religious reasons. One of the oldest types of tourism and a worldwide phenomenon of religious history, it can be differentiated into various forms. The short-term religious tourism is distinguished by excursions to nearby pilgrimage centers or religious conferences. The long-term describes visits of several days or weeks to national and international pilgrimage sites or conferences.

Pilgrimage, however, is “a journey or search of moral or spiritual significance. Typically, it is a journey to a shrine or other location of importance to a person's beliefs and faith, although sometimes it can be a metaphorical journey into someone's own beliefs” (Collins-Kreiner, 2010). Pilgrimage is as well defined as “a journey claimed to be undertaken for reasons involving religious sacrifice, and that applying the word pilgrimage to tourism is only an example of the use of metaphor” (Palmer, Begley, & Coe, 2012). Further research distinguishes “pilgrimage” from “tourism” in the way that “the term ‘pilgrimage’ connotes a religious journey, a journey of a pilgrim, especially one to a shrine or a sacred place, but its derivation from the Latin ‘peregrinus’ allows broader interpretations, including foreigner, wanderer, exile, and traveler, as well as newcomer and stranger. The term ‘tourist’ also has Latin origins, namely ‘tornus’, one who makes a circular journey, usually for pleasure, and returns to the starting point” (Pușcașu, 2015). The differences between “religious tourism” and “pilgrimage,” thus, have a clear identity.

**The relationship between involvement and spiritual experience**

Previous studies have found that a high level of involvement in religion enhances people’s spiritual experience (Seybold & Hill, 2001; King, 2003; Hill & Pargament, 2003). Hinterkopf (1994) indicated that regularly attending religious activities facilitates psycho spiritual growth and enables people to find new life giving connections to their spirituality. Hill and Pargament (2003) proposed that the predominant religion and spirituality measure was a type of global index of religious involvement, most notably, the influence of denominational affiliation or frequency of church attendance on spiritual experience. Koenig, George, and Titus (2004) believed that religious activities, attitudes, and spiritual experiences are prevalent in older hospitalised patients, and the greater their involvement in religion, the higher the spiritual experience they perceive.

**The relationship between spiritual experience and behavioural intentions**

Few researchers have indicated that spiritual experience and behavioural intentions are positively related in tourism (Van Cappellen & Saroglou, 2012; Matheson et al., 2014). Van Cappellen and Saroglou (2012) observed self transcendence to be a primary component that is relevant for regional and spiritual experience connections with, and effects on behavioural intentions in Tibet. Matheson et al. (2014) indicated that visitors who attended the Beltane Fire Festival in Edinburgh perceived a spiritual experience, and that spirituality encourages repeated tourist visits.
The relationship between involvement and behavioural intentions

Some studies have indicated that involvement can influence behavioural intentions in tourism (Lee & Kwon, 2009; Wang & Wu, 2011; Shen, Guo, & Wu, 2014). Lee and Kwon (2009) found that tourists developed high behavioural intentions based on their level of involvement in culinary tourism. The greater their involvement in food and behaviour, the greater their behavioural intention is. Wang and Wu (2011) proposed a relationship between involvement and revisit intention when visiting museums. However, whether the involvement of religious tourists is an accurate predictor of their behavioural intentions remains unclear. Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formulated.

H1: Involvement has a significant positive relationship with spiritual experience in religious tourism.

H2: Involvement has a significant positive relationship with behavioural intention in religious tourism.

H3: Spiritual experience has a significant positive relationship with behavioural intention in religious tourism.

METHODOLOGY

A questionnaire survey was adopted for this study; the target participants were visitors participated “2016 Dajia Mazu Pilgrimage Festival” in Taiwan. The questionnaire was designed by referring to concepts developed based on reviewed literature.

Instrumentation

Involvement. The involvement measurement was based on Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon (2004). Fifteen items, including statements such as “Mazu pilgrimage is important to me”, “I enjoy discussing Mazu pilgrimage with my friends” and “Mazu pilgrimage says a lot about who I am”, were listed and visitors were asked to indicate their levels of agreement, from “strongly disagree (1)” to “strongly agree (5)”.

Spiritual Experience. The participants also completed a self-reported 15-item questionnaire developed by Underwood and Teresi (2002), Schmidt and Little (2007), and interviewed with 8 visitors, including statements such as “I feel the strength of Mazu”, “I feel close to Mazu” and “Attend this festival can change my mood and have positive thinking”, were listed and visitors were asked to indicate their levels of agreement, from “strongly disagree (1)” to “strongly agree (5)”.

Behavioural Intentions. Behavioural intention was measured according to Tian-Cole, Crompton and Willson (2002). Three items, including statements such as “Encourage friends and relatives to go to this festival”, “Say positive things about the refuge to other people” and “Visit the festival again in the future”, were listed and tourists were asked to indicate their levels of agreement, from “strongly disagree (1)” to “strongly agree (5)”.

The sample

This investigation was conducted during the 2016 Dajia Mazu Pilgrimage Festival in Taiwan. The Dajia Zhen Lan Temple’s Mazu pilgrimage in lunar March is recognised as the largest religious activity each year. The Mazu pilgrimage religious event was also recognised by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization as a global cultural heritage of humanity in 2009 (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2017). The pilgrimage commences on 8 April at 23:00, and lasts 9 days and 8 nights, with a parade route across four coastal cities in Central Taiwan: Taichung, Changhua, Yunlin, and Chiayi. The survey was administered at these sites. The onsite survey with the self-administered questionnaire was conducted during the 2016 Dajia Mazu Pilgrimage Festival. The survey was conducted from 8 to 17 April to obtain a comprehensive sample of visitors during the 2016 Dajia Mazu Pilgrimage Festival. A total of 407 questionnaires were distributed and 400 valid responses were returned.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. AMOS 20.0 was used to conduct a two-stage structural equation modelling (SEM) procedure suggested by Anderson and Gerbing.
(1988). First, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine psychometric properties of the measures. Subsequently, a general SEM technique was used to test the validity of the proposed model and the hypotheses.

FINDINGS

Involvement of visitors

The involvement of visitors, most of the involvement assessed on the 5-point scale had a mean score higher than 3. To measure tourist involvement, a factor analysis was performed to reveal dimensions that can be indicative of responses, yielding two factors explaining 72.4% of the variance. Factor 1 consisted of 7 items related to the importance of Mazu pilgrimage to the respondents, and it was named “self-expression”. Factor 2 comprised 5 items, relating to “attraction”. The factor loadings for the 15 items ranged from 0.58 to 0.87. All of the reliability alphas for the two domains and the overall scale were higher than .90. The CFA was applied to test the validity of the questionnaire. After four items were deleted due to high modification indices, indicating that the validity of involvement was good ($\chi^2 = 174.1$, $df = 42$, $p$-value = 0.00, GFI = 0.91, CFI = 0.96, AGFI = 0.89, and RMSEA = 0.08).

Spiritual experience of visitors

Regarding the spiritual experience of visitors, most of the spiritual experience assessed on the 5-point scale had a mean score higher than 3. A factor analysis was also performed to reveal the dimensions that might be indicative of the responses. The results only showed one factor explaining 73.1% of the variance. The factor loadings for the 18 items ranged from 0.74 to 0.89. The reliability alpha for the scale was .90, indicating that the criteria were met (Nunnally, 1978). The CFA results indicated that the validity of the spiritual experience scale was satisfactory ($\chi^2 = 251.5$, $df = 86$, $p$-value = 0.000, GFI = 0.92, CFI = 0.97, AGFI = 0.87, and RMSEA = 0.06).

The relationships amongst involvement, spiritual experience and behavioural intentions

The “self-expression” and “attraction” dimensions of involvement and spiritual experience were significantly correlated, and the Pearson correlation coefficients ranged between .78 and .86 ($p < .01$). The analysis shows that the two involvements of visitors were correlated with behavioural intentions, with the correlation coefficients ranged from .45 to .61 ($p < .01$). Furthermore, the relationship between spiritual experience and behavioural intentions was also found to be positive, since the correlation coefficient was .59 ($p < .01$).

The resulting data were analysed using AMOS software to conduct the structural equation modelling analysis. The multiple indices of model fit, including the chi-square statistic, the comparative fit index (CFI), Bollen’s incremental fit index (IFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), were examined as recommended by a number of researchers (Bollen, 1989; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993; Doll, Xia, & Torkzadeh, 1994; Chin & Todd, 1995; Mueller, 1996; Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996). According to the analysis of results, all the indices of overall fits were acceptable ($\chi^2 = 982.7$, $df = 371$, $\chi^2/df = 2.6$, $p$-value = 0.00, CFI = .93, IFI = .94, TLI = .94, GFI = .85, AGFI = .82, and RMSEA = .06).

Figure 1 shows the standardized path coefficients with associated t-values for all relationships in the structural model. The results reveal significant parameters for the path between self-expression and spiritual experience ($\beta = .32$, $p < .001$) and for that between attraction and spiritual experience ($\beta = .76$, $p < .001$). The results were consistent with the statement of Hypothesis 1. Regarding to involvement and behavioural intentions, the results reveal significant parameters for the path between attraction and behavioural intentions ($\beta = .39$, $p < .001$). However, there was no significant relationship between self-expression and spiritual experience ($\beta = -.02$, $p > .05$). HoHH Hypothesis 2 was therefore partially supported. This study also reveal significant parameters for the path between spiritual experience and behavioural intentions ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$). Thus hypothesis 3 was supported.
CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to examine the relationships amongst involvement, spiritual experience and behavioural intentions in religious tourism. To determine the model fit and the relationships between the two involvement dimensions of spiritual experience and behavioural intentions in religious tourism, we tested self-expression and attraction separately in this research model. The results indicated that involvement and spiritual experience have a significant positive relationship. This finding is similar to those of Hinterkopf (1994), Seybold and Hill (2001), King (2003), Hill and Pargament (2003), and Koenig et al. (2004).

Respondents who exhibited high levels of attraction regarding the Mazu pilgrimage were more likely to revisit and recommend it to others. These findings were consistent with those of previous studies (Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005; Chen & Funk, 2010; Hsieh, 2012). However, this study found no relationship between self-expression and behavioural intention in religious tourism. This finding from respondent observations may explain the result. Each city and county has a regional Mazu temple and local religious activities in Taiwan, and many Mazu sects exist in Taoism. In this study, visitors wore clothes characteristic of their local Mazu temple. Although numerous visitors were highly involved in Mazu beliefs and the Mazu Pilgrimage Festival, they were attracted to the local Mazu temple that was nearest their residence. Therefore, self-expression may not affect tourist willingness to revisit and recommend to others.

This study found positive correlations in the relationship between spiritual experience and behavioural intentions. The correlation result corresponds with those obtained by Van Cappellen and Saroglou (2012) and Matheson et al. (2014). The essence of religious tourism involves miracles and the religion itself, and sites of religious importance often also possess secular importance. Visitor perception of a sense of importance surrounding their religion and positive emotion about their religious belief can affect future behavioural intentions. Hence, the unique Mazu religious identity became the particular attraction of religious itineraries, enhancing future self-expression of the Mazu Pilgrimage Festival. Tourists who participate in and discuss the itinerary characteristics with others perceive stronger spiritual experiences during the journey and have high future behavioural intentions. When religion and religious attractions play critical roles in peoples’ lives and enable them to express themselves, those visitors are more likely to experience the spirituality of religious tourism. Therefore, religious attractions and itineraries should include more activities or interactions to enable visitors to connect spiritually, which will increase their behavioural intentions to revisit destinations.

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TOURISM: A PEACEBUILDER OR A TROUBLE MAKER--AN ATYPICAL CASE OF CROSS-BORDER TOURISM IN HONG KONG

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism, as a serve industry as well as a social phenomenon, has been propelled as a mean for promoting peace, mutual understanding and harmony (UNWTO). The case of Rwanda (Alluri 2009), for example, argued that tourism has been contributing to two major overarching dimensions of peacebuilding: reconciliation and justice; and socio-economic development. Likewise, there are a wealth of literature supporting tourism’s contribution to peace from other perspectives such as social-culture, politics, human rights, social justices, environment and etc. (D’Amore 1988, 2007; Din 1988; Eriksson, Noble, Pattullo and Barnett 2009; Hall 1994; Mihalic 1996; Nielsen 2001; Tarlow 2006; Upadhyaya& Sharma 2010).

Traditional foci were given to the impact of tourism on peace building through pressure on government to cease fire and up keeping security; creation of wealth; and promotion of mutual understanding and respect. These frameworks, however, normally neglected the issues such as the negative impacts on civilian life and living, conflict and confrontation of culture and value; and inequality in wealth distribution. In other words, the hypothesis that tourism development can address the basic cause for violence, inequality, poverty and cultural respect can be challenged.

While there are researches on the possible negative impacts of tourism such as Belisle and Hoy 1980; Bulter 1975; Getz 1977, Frechtling 1978 and Ko and Stewart 2002, the documentation of a real case illustrating the relationship between large scale cross-border tourism and civil unrest has not been available.

The case of cross border tourism development in Hong Kong was a critical case for investigating such a phenomenon. The tension between locals and Mainlanders has escalated to an extend that hate rather than harmony has been promoted. Some people, including press, politicians and academia, has argued that the pressure is coming from the rapid rate of development, which has exceeded the carrying capacity of Hong Kong as a destination. The researcher, however, has a proposition that the issue is more complicated than merely capacity based.

This research attempt to reveal the development of cross-border visitors from the Mainland to Hong Kong and the impacts of such on the stability and well-being of the local community. This paper attempt to investigate the linkage between tourism development and social harmony. The study utilizes the approach of case study which embedded with multiple units and incidents for investigation. Key informants included travel and hospitality trade leaders, local citizens, politicians and academic researchers were interviewed and Delphi method was utilized to generate consensus whenever possible. In order to provide the contextual details of the phenomenon, archival analysis about the cases will be conducted with the critical assessments. The research will also attempt to triangulate the contextual parameters with policies and involvement of politicians in order to identify critical gaps, which could be the underlying factors for the upheaval of social unrest.

Interviews were conducted since late 2014 till end of 2016. Transcripts were processed and analysis by content. Special attention was given to the sentiments of the verbatim.

In term of methodological design, the researcher test implemented constructivist grounded theory approach. The researcher assumed multiple realities and multiple perspectives of realities. Under this assumption, the research utilized a literature review in a constructive and data-sensitive way but not forcing it on data. This design is particularly useful in unveiling a social issue or phenomenon.

The researchers have a three main hypotheses, which include (1) the main reason for
social unrest is related to a complex set of civil issues and tourism is just a trigger for the public actions; (2) the utilities of tourism has not been comprehended by the general public; and (3) the government and administrative bodies have missed some critical windows for rectifying the situation and mitigating the negative impacts on the community. In other words, tourism governance is one of the critical issues for the outbreak of unrest.

The initial results of the study by and large supported all the three hypotheses. According to the informants from civic organization, activists and political bodies, their main frustrations include the perceived incompetence of the government in protecting their rights and interest. Their lack of trust in the central government and CY Leung as the Chief Executive of HK have created strong sentiment. The influx of Mainland tourists, therefore, became a window for those who wanted to air their frustrations. It was not surprising that most of the respondents do not have much idea about what benefits and impacts tourism has been bringing to the community. Although many have expressed that the consumption of the Mainlanders has an impact on general inflation, rarely anyone have concrete understanding. Respondents generally agreed that the government and related bodies should have given them more information regarding the utilities of tourism such as its contribution to GDP and employment to the public in order to enhance their ability to appreciate tourism as a social friendly strategy. Related information is available on the government’s webpage but obviously a passive display of information is not sufficient to enable comprehension. Government’s marketing campaigns such as “be a good host” were regarded as destructive and detrimental. They were perceived as futile in promoting hospitality among local citizen and sometimes regarded as a rip-off of people’s rights.

Regarding tourism governance, respondents were not contended with the existing system of Hong Kong. The Hong Kong Tourism Board as the official body for promoting tourism activities has not been able to plan and develop tourism as a sector for the benefit of the community. Their strong emphasis on increase of arrival number has been regarded as a demonstration of its failure in answering the concerns of the public. It is the general impression that they behaved like a free-rider to optimize their own benefit in the expenses of public welfare.

As a conclusion of the paper, the researchers proposed a framework of assessing and addressing tourism development for concerning administrations with practical tactics. The major areas of concerns include the optimization of utilities of tourism, communication and dissemination of benefits, public education, mitigation of sentiment and control of negative impacts.

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MILLENNIAL’S PERCEIVED VALUE OF MOBILE RIDE-SHARING SERVICES; IN THE CASE OF THE UNITED STATES AND CHINA

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ABSTRACT

Mobile ride-sharing services have drawn attention as disruptive innovations in the tourism industry, but little research has examined how adopters perceive value of new services, particularly among millennials. This paper examines the impact of perceived value on loyalty intentions to use ride-sharing services among college students in the United States and China. Perceived value is conceptualized in terms of price, quality, and relational value. Based on cross sectional survey data, the main finding of the study demonstrates that quality of price and relational value are positively associated with loyalty intentions and that these positive effects remain robust across control variables. The results suggest that millennials negotiate their value in the trade-off between price and quality.

Keywords: Sharing Economy, Ride-sharing, Rides-haring, Peer-to-Peer Market, Customer Perceived Value, Loyalty Intention

INTRODUCTION

Over the past few years, ride-sharing services have risen as an appealing alternative ground transportation modes among travelers (Phocuswright, 2016). It has been discussed under the banner of disruptive innovations (Christensen & Raynor, 2003; Guttentag, 2013) in the tourism industry. Disruptive service sometime underperform, but offers a distinct set of benefits, typically centered on lower cost, more convenient, or simpler (Guttentag, 2013). At the center of change in ground transportation are urban millennials. Millennials have been among the leading adopters of mobile ride-sharing applications (Olson, 2013). They leverage smartphone technology, which offers travelers more convenience and control over their travel experiences.

Millennial travelers are becoming an increasingly important market segment for destinations around the world. Travelers of 15 to 29 are estimated to account for 23% of all international travelers in 2015 (UNWTO, 2015). Most young travelers come from the generation born between the early 1980s and 2000s. They are young, yet an influential group of travelers interested in ‘living like a local’ (Eng, 2016). They tend to pursue immersive experiences, spend directly with local businesses, and make close contact with local culture and residents (UNWTO, 2015). The millennial travelers account for 65% of total leisure travelers in China, while American millennial travelers accounts for 40% (Phocuswright, 2016).

Despite the growing market share of millennials in both emerging and developed countries, little research has focused on the perceived value of the peer to peer services, especially in the purchase and consumption process of ride-sharing services. To date, insufficient empirical work has focused on millennials and tested the determinants of repeated use of ride-sharing services. It signals the pressing need to delve into how young adopters engage in technology-mediated transactions based on the rigorous theoretical framework.

The aim of this cross-sectional survey study is to identify how multiple dimensions of perceived value drive millennials’ loyalty to ride-sharing and to examine how millennials use mobile-sharing services differently among college students in United States and, China. In this study, customer value is regarded as a function of multiple dimensions related to the perceived utility of ground transportation choices. The conceptualization of perceived value is drawn from Sweeney and Soutar (2001)’s definition to reflect the extent to which millennials assess the utility of ride-sharing services.
RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The current estimation model uses loyalty intention as the dependent variable. The dependent variable, loyalty intentions, refers to the level of an individual’s intentions to repeat use ride-sharing services. Among numerous predictors of loyalty intention, the primary reason for using ride-sharing services was found to be the utility obtained from reducing expenses, increasing convenience (Bardhi & Eckhardt, 2012; Möhlmann, 2015) or interacting with service providers and local communities (Botsman & Rogers, 2010). In the extant studies on the sharing economy, the notion of utility opened the door to the underlying reasons why customers adopt new and innovative services. However, the question still remains as to how millennials negotiate different types of utilities and shape loyalty intentions toward use ride-sharing services.

The independent variables consist of three dimensions of perceived value. Perceived value is particularly salient in understanding the grounds on which decisions to grant or withhold loyalty intentions. Perceived value is defined as “the consumers’ overall assessment of the utility of a product or service based on perceptions of what is received and what is given” (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14). Zeithaml referred to the assessment of the utility as a comparison of a product or service’s ‘get’ and ‘give’ components. For different consumers, the following components of perceived value might be differentially important:

Value for Price.

Price value refers to the utility derived from products or services due to the perception about reduced costs (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). It includes psychological costs as well as transaction costs (price) that customers attempt to minimize (Smith & Colgate, 2007). The concept also includes minimizing the personal investment of customers such as time, effort, and energy that customers devote to the purchase and consumption process. Empirical studies on the sharing economy products and services supported that customers sought more value with less cost (Hamari, Sjöklint, & Ukkonen, 2015; Tussyadiah & Personen, 2015). Tussyadiah (2016) argued that economic value is the main driving factor of satisfaction and future intention to use of peer-to-peer accommodation.

Value for Quality.

Quality value represents the utility derived from perceived quality and expected performance of products or services (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Sharing economy products and services have adopted different approaches to ensure quality standards, which may make consumers remain uncertain about consequences of service delivery. First, Uber, Lyft and Didi Chuxing (Chinese ride-sharing business) allow car owners to become a cab driver. There is a high degree of heterogeneity in terms of driving skills, car insurance, or vehicle quality. Arguably, a lack of a service provider’s ability to perform the task properly may influence quality. Next, quality standards of ride-sharing services depend heavily on rating systems and consumer feedback. Heavy reliance on feedback scores raises the concern that anyone can manipulate scores (Mayzlin, Dover, & Chevalier, 2014). Lastly, transactions between service providers and consumers are likely to be one-time transactions and may result in unfavorable behaviors that undermine trust (Cheng, 2016).

Relational Value.

Relational value is derived from building relationship and exchanging information between service provider and customer (Kellogg, Youngdahl, & Bowen, 1996). The mobile ride-sharing applications connect customers to service providers in network of local communities. Relational value is relevant to confidence benefits (Gwinner, Gremler, & Bitner, 1998), which represent benefits from a feeling of confidence in a service provider. Customers engage in providing and seeking information because they want the sense of the trustworthiness of a service provider and to reduce anxiety and risk. Relational value is also associated with the social benefits (Gwinner et al., 1998) that customers receive by offering words of kindness or understanding service providers.

Research Question 1.

Does perceived value on price, quality and relational value, have positive influences on affect loyalty intentions to use ride-sharing services?
Research Question 2.
Are the relationships between perceived customer value and loyalty intentions to use ride-sharing services different across the United States and China samples?

METHOD

Data Collection.
A cross-sectional survey was conducted. The respondents of this study were college students who have used ride-sharing services in Phoenix, United States and Beijing, China. Using a self-administered survey method, 418 questionnaires were collected in total (124 respondents from the United States and 294 respondents from China). Respondents missing more than five items were excluded from the study (68 respondents, 16.3% of the total questionnaires), which generated 350 usable surveys collected from the United States (n=100) and China (n=250).

Measurement.
The survey instrument was applied for the study (Appendix). All items were measured with a 7-point Likert scale measuring respondents’ reported agreement with the statement provided, as follows: 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neutral, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree. The measurement items mostly came from previous research (Kellog, Youngdahl, & Bowen, 1997; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Malhotra, 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) with minor wording modifications to fit this study context. To test the robustness of our proposed relationships and control for extraneous influences, two control variables were included. We controlled the effect of previous experiences with mobile applications. In addition, to ensure that loyalty intentions were not affected by different safety environments of specific countries, incorporated customers’ safety perceptions about ride-sharing as a control variable was in our framework. The original questionnaire was prepared in English and translated into Chinese, using standard back translation (Brislin, 1970).

Data Analysis.
The data analysis procedure followed a two-stage procedure. First, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to examine the underlying factor structure. EFA was conducted to identify the underlying six factors for each sample. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Direct Oblimin rotation was employed to extract factors. A priori dimensions about the factor structure, interpretability of extracted factors and the scree plot were considered to decide the appropriate number of factors to extract. The reliability estimates (Cronbach’s alpha) were also computed. After the underlying factor structure was identified, the composite variables were created to represent each factor. Next, data were analyzed with the OLS (Ordinary Least Squares) estimates with control variables, using the two samples United States and China.

FINDINGS
This study attempted to identify the predictors of loyalty intention to use mobile ride-sharing services. Perceived quality value, price and relational value were found to be key variables to account for loyalty intention in both samples. The coefficients for price and relational values were positive and highly significant at the 99% level across the samples (see Table 1). Consumer safety perceptions about ride-sharing services were found to be critical in determining loyalty intentions in both samples. Quality value was positively related to loyalty intention among US millennials. Prior experience with mobile applications was strongly positively related to loyalty intention among Chinese millennials.
**Table 1. Regression Model Results**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>United States (n₁=100)</th>
<th>China (n₂=250)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standardized Estimates</td>
<td>Standard Error</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Independent Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price Value</td>
<td>0.34***</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Value</td>
<td>0.12*</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational Value</td>
<td>0.20***</td>
<td>0.07</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Control Variables:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Prior Experience with Mobile Apps</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety of Ride-sharing Services</td>
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<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intercepts</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Adjusted R²</strong></td>
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</table>

*Note. Dependent Variable = Loyalty Intentions. *p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.*

Independent-samples t-tests were conducted to examine significant differences between respondents from the United States and China in terms of composite variables (value for price, value for quality, and relational value). No significant differences were found for price, quality, or relational values and safety perceptions. On the other hand, a significant mean difference was found for previous experience with mobile applications (t = 3.17, p < 0.01), with US millennials higher (mean=5.86, SD=1.10) than their Chinese counterparts (mean=5.45, SD=1.07).

**IMPLICATIONS AND DISCUSSIONS**

The findings indicated that price and relational values determine loyalty intention to use ride-sharing services among US and Chinese millennials. The importance of quality was found to be relatively low to predict loyalty intention in both samples. This finding supports that consumers negotiate the trade-off between quality and price (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Zeithaml, 1998). Millennials may perceive value when there is a low price or is a balance between quality and price. In addition, they may build relational value with service providers and provide ratings or feedback to ensure service expectations and performance.

This study has limitations that may provide opportunities for further research. More survey data for American college students needs to be collected to ensure the adequate number of the sample. In the present study, we employed exploratory factor analysis for each sample, but it might be worthwhile to further test the measurement invariance by conducting multiple-group confirmatory factor analysis.

**REFERENCES**


### APPENDIX. Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>United States ($N_1=100$)</th>
<th>China ($N_2=250$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>Factor Loading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value for Price</strong> (3 items adapted from PERVAL scale of Sweeney &amp; Soutar, 2001)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride-sharing brings me reasonably priced services.</td>
<td>5.12(1.46)</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride-sharing brings me value for money.</td>
<td>5.12(1.21)</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride-sharing brings me a good service for the price.</td>
<td>5.35(1.22)</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Value for Quality</strong> (3 items adapted from PERVAL scale Sweeney &amp; Soutar, 2001)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride-sharing provides consistent quality.</td>
<td>5.05(1.49)</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ride-sharing provides an acceptable standard of quality.</td>
<td>5.45(1.53)</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relational Value</strong> (3 items adapted from Gwinner, Gremler, &amp; Bitner, 1998; Kellog, Youngdahl, &amp; Bowen, 1997)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like conversations with drivers.</td>
<td>5.51(1.33)</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I provide ratings or feedback to ride-sharing services.</td>
<td>5.35(1.53)</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I share information about my needs with drivers.</td>
<td>4.14(1.50)</td>
<td>-0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Prior Experiences with Mobile Apps</strong> (3 items created for the context of interest)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I commonly use a lot of mobile apps when dealing with other businesses.</td>
<td>5.32(1.46)</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a lot of experiences using mobile apps.</td>
<td>6.23(1.21)</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use a lot of technology based products and services.</td>
<td>6.04(1.22)</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Safety of Ride-sharing Services</strong> (3 items created for the context of interest)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe ride-sharing services follow passenger safety regulations.</td>
<td>5.26(1.25)</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I expect drivers are trustworthy about delivering ride-sharing services.</td>
<td>5.40(1.30)</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I believe ride-sharing services perform as safely as other transportation modes.</td>
<td>5.33(1.35)</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loyalty Intentions</strong> (4 items adapted from Parasuraman, Zeithaml, &amp; Malhotra, 2005)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to say positive things about ride-sharing to other people.</td>
<td>5.69(1.13)</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would recommend friends and others to use ride-sharing services.</td>
<td>5.89(1.13)</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would consider ride-sharing to be my first choice for future rides.</td>
<td>5.71(1.32)</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would use more ride-sharing services in the coming months.</td>
<td>5.71(1.49)</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EFFECTS OF SOCIAL MEDIA ON TOURISM RECOVERY IN A TSUNAMI HIT RURAL AREA IN NORTHERN JAPAN

Yasuo Ohe, Chiba University

INTRODUCTION

Social media has become increasingly popular. However, there has been little investigation on how to effectively mobilize this newly emerging tool to promote tourism, especially in rural areas. The aims of this paper are twofold. First, among social media we explore the role of Twitter for tourism promotion, especially by focusing on the recovery process of tourism in a rural area affected by the huge earthquake and tsunami, magnitude 9.1, which hit eastern Japan in March 2011. Second, to approach the first purpose we compare two types of tourism: conventional ordinary tourism and “volunteer tourism”. This means that this paper takes a comparative perspective between tourism in an emergency and tourism in an ordinary setting. It was the Kobe-Awaji great earthquake in 1995 when the significance of volunteer tourism in disaster-hit areas was widely recognized for the first time in Japan (Nakao, 2002). Just after the 2011 earthquake and tsunami, a massive number of volunteers came to these areas to help in the recovery work from the devastation such as removing debris and helping evacuees rehabilitate their lives in Iwate prefecture. To approach these aims, by focusing on Iwate prefecture, we employed the text-mining method and econometric time series regression models to explore factors related to these two types of tourism. Finally, policy recommendations were suggested.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The topic of this paper covers areas overlapping three domains, i.e., disaster in tourism, volunteer tourism, and social media. Although these three areas have attracted growing interest in tourism research and there has been a large increase in such studies, the topic encompassing an overlap of areas has been little studied. Firstly, with respect to literature on disaster and tourism, Ritchie (2009) conducted a system-based approach to the crisis and disaster management for tourism and mentioned that tourism organizations should work with media to ensure provision of consistent and accurate information to the public and stakeholders. Scott and Prideaux (2010) dealt with safety and security in tourism and recovery marketing after crises and included interesting chapters related to the topic of this paper. Specifically, Volo (2010) focused on the role of destination marketing organizations’ websites in communicating tourism crises caused by the avian flu in 2006 and evaluated these websites as an effective tool to better share information. Albattat and Som (2014) focused on the impact of natural and man-made disasters on tourism business in Thailand and pointed out the role of media in disseminating correct information.

As an econometric evaluation of the impact of earthquakes on tourism inflow, Mazzocchi and Montini (2001) applied event study methodology to tourist arrivals in Central Italy. It is natural that this paper did not focus on the roles of social media, which at that time was newly emerging. In short, although in crisis and disaster management of tourism many authors stressed the role of media to disseminate correct information to the public, the roles of social media in tourism recovery in disaster-hit destinations have not been studied.

Secondly, studies on social media in tourism have been published recently at an explosive pace. Leung et al. (2013) conducted a literature review on social media in tourism and hospitality and stressed the importance of social media for tourism competitiveness. Minazzi (2015) conducted full-fledged research on social media marketing in tourism and characterized WOM (word of mouth) and eWOM (electronic word of mouth). Nevertheless, eWOM was not fully referred to as
a disaster or crisis communication tool. The main research attention was focused on tourism marketing, e.g., national tourism organizations (Hays et al., 2013), airline companies (Hvass and Munar, 2012; Dijkmans et al., 2015), hotel industry in Hong Kong (Chan and Guillet, 2011) and in the U.S. (Leung et al., 2015), nature-based tourism (Wood, et al., 2013), and recreation and educational institutions (Zehrer and Grabmüller, 2012; Hajli and Lin, 2014). Schroeder et al. (2013) investigated the roles of social media in crisis communications among international tourists and mentioned that social media is increasingly used to communicate with and by tourists in times of crisis while stressing further study of social media as a means of crisis communications. This study fills the gap in this respect.

Thirdly, research on volunteer tourism has been extensively conducted since the 2000s. Wearing and McGehee (2013a) conducted a large number of literature reviews. International volunteer tourism often has been studied from pro-poor perspectives (Wearing and McGehee, 2013b); Borland and Adams (2013) for cases in Central America, Conran (2011) and Mostafanezhad (2014) for cases in Thailand, Coren and Gray (2012) in Vietnam and Thailand, Chen and Chen (2011) in China, and Crossley (2012) in Kenya. As far as the authors’ knowledge, no studies have focused on disaster and volunteer tourism.

METHOD

We employed a text-mining method to find keywords used in the official Twitter account issued by the Iwate Prefectural government, which is one of the top popular official Twitter accounts in this country, and time series regression models to identify factors that promote the two types of tourism and to statistically test whether the tendency of repeat visits exists by considering the time lag of each tourism demand. Data were collected using official statistics of monthly incoming numbers of ordinary tourists and volunteer tourists from January 2010, before the earthquake, to March 2013, two years after the earthquake. Tweeted information was provided by Iwate Prefecture.

We estimated demand determinant time-series models for conventional ordinary tourism and volunteer tourism, respectively. The explained variables were the numbers of incoming tourists to Iwate in terms of conventional ordinary and volunteer tourism that were obtained from different public data sources. As explanatory variables, we considered monthly dummy variables to control seasonal fluctuations, the counted frequency of tweeted keywords related to local tourism resources such as “cultural heritage”, “festival”, and “shellfish”, which reminds people of a local delicacy, and to volunteer-related words such as “recovery/reconstruction” and “volunteer”. We also tested the repeat-visit effect for these two types of tourism by using the number of tourists one month before the present data.

FINDINGS

Before the estimation, we conducted unit root tests, i.e., Augmented Dickey-Fuller tests and Phillips-Perron tests, to confirm the stationarity among variables for the models and found there was non-stationarity, so that we took the first-order-difference models. The results revealed that, first, the number of volunteer tourists compensated for the decrease in the number of ordinary tourists in the disaster-hit coastal area (Table 1). Second, tweeted information on cultural resources and local specialties had a positive relationship with the number of incoming tourists while information on rehabilitation/reconstruction had negative effects. In contrast, third, tweeted information on tourism resources worked negatively toward the number of volunteer tourists while that on rehabilitation/reconstruction and on volunteers worked positively. Fourth, it was revealed that there was a repeat-visit effect for volunteer tourists, which verified the effectiveness of tweeted information for the promotion of repeat visits.
### Table 1. Results of time series estimation model on no. volunteer tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explained variable</th>
<th>Model</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>II</th>
<th>III-1</th>
<th>III-2</th>
<th>III-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta T_{t-1}$ (1st stage lag)</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.52***</td>
<td>0.57***</td>
<td>0.58***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>6983**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4005*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3557*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>-8540***</td>
<td>-8378***</td>
<td>-8109***</td>
<td>-9914***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December dummy variable</td>
<td></td>
<td>-6089**</td>
<td>-4630*</td>
<td>-7354***</td>
<td>-4806**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta$“tourism resources”</td>
<td></td>
<td>-140***</td>
<td>-574***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-143***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta$“Hiraizumi”</td>
<td></td>
<td>-460***</td>
<td></td>
<td>-954***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta$“volunteer”</td>
<td></td>
<td>329**</td>
<td>472***</td>
<td>278**</td>
<td>447***</td>
<td>321***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary Dummy variables of earthquake</td>
<td></td>
<td>9982*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiraizumi world cultural heritage</td>
<td></td>
<td>-3693**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>temporary dummy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-8452**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td></td>
<td>3483***</td>
<td>-678</td>
<td>1158</td>
<td>1338**</td>
<td>954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DW static</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjusted R square</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.4683</td>
<td>0.3511</td>
<td>0.5885</td>
<td>0.7256</td>
<td>0.7216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ***, **, * indicate 1%, 5%, 10% significance, respectively. Other not significant parameters were not shown.

### CONCLUSION

This paper quantitatively clarified by the text-mining method and time series regression models that conventional ordinary tourism was substituted by volunteer tourism in the tsunami-hit coastal areas. Although tweeted information was effective for both types of tourism, necessary information should properly be provided for those tourists with different orientations.

The results of this paper also indicated that volunteer tourism for recovery work in disaster hit areas has various impacts not only on the disaster-hit areas in physical terms, but also for people outside of the disaster-hit areas because this type of volunteer tourism causes people to realize the weakened solidarity among people in every modern society and help them take action to reverse this trend even if temporarily. This paper clarified that modern information technology can help people take action to connect with each other in the time of emergency. At the same time, we should also recognize that interest in volunteer tourism for disaster-hit areas is diminishing as time goes by.

Consequently, it is important to design support measures that enable the local tourism sector to attract incoming tourists after a drop-in volunteer tourism as reconstruction of the disaster area progresses. In this context, our results suggest how to effectively utilize Twitter for this purpose.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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### REFERENCES


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FROM TOURIST OPINION LEADER TO TOURISM OPERATOR: CASE STUDY OF BACKPACKER XIAOPENG IN THE PERSPECTIVE OF ‘FANS ECONOMY’

Qingqing Lin, South China Normal University
Julie Jie Wen, Western Sydney University

INTRODUCTION

Although studies on fans economy and leadership research have grown impressively recently, most of the existing literature on fans economy appears to focus on marketing field, while leadership research focused on the service industry. Tourism research from the perspective of fans economy, especially the exploration between the relationship of social media, tourist opinion leader and tourism operator, is still a novel area.

This research makes use of the famous backpacker Xiaopeng as a case study, in order to elucidate how Xiaopeng, as a backpacker, has evolved from the opinion leader in backpacking travel, gradually he is becoming a tourism operator, within a short period of time.

METHOD

This paper is based on content analysis of Xiaopeng’s books, opinions published on internet and new media, and statistics analysis. The paper attempts to explore elements that influenced the transition of Xiaopeng across different roles, based on comprehensive analysis of Xiaopeng’s transition over years, as well as content analysis.

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Xiaopeng, whose real name is Jinpeng Zhang, graduated from Nankai University, one of the best universities in China, with a major in International Trade. After the completion of his Bachelor’s degree, he continued his study in (Germany or Netherland?) Deutschland for MBA. He has visited more than 80 countries from 2001 while advocating the backpack attitude.

Chinese are familiar with this name “Xiaopeng” because he created a number of popular blogs for travellers by using this name. He also published his books on a series of “Backpack Ten Year “as BACKPACK TEN YEAR, WHY DO WE TRAVEL, DON’T FORGET THE WAY BACK HOME. Sales of his books exceeded one million copies.

He opened his own backpacker hostel ‘Ten Years Youth Park Hostel’ in Lijiang, Yunnan in 2014. This hostel has been so popular among his fans and received very high rating on accommodation booking websites. By the end of March 2016, Shangri-La Branch of Backpack Ten Years Youth Hostel were under construction. Xiaopeng, who used to be poor travel-enthusiasts, has become the owner of a reputable brand of hostels, and a shining star of tourism industry, in the context of fans economy in the era of internet and new media.

The research indicates that: 1) the first stage of the role transition mainly relied on the star economy mode, where tourist opinion leader was the core; 2) IP operation mode became a core based on a series of books Ten Years as a Backpacker, whereas the core business model was rooted in the so called ‘Inn community’. Xiaopeng’s transition reflected the speedy development of Chinese tourism in the past three decades, while providing inspiring directions for further diversification of tourism in the future.

When travel enthusiasts publish their travelogue, pictures and video on internet and new media, they seem to look for recognition and identity of a group of people on social media platforms. Based on similar values, travel experience or their preference to similar destinations, this group of people may pay attention to the published information related to their interest. If a travel enthusiast like Xiaopeng manages to become a key opinion leader and
receives emotional recognition from a large number of people, he may transfer these followers to his fans, leading to significant influence and discourse in tourism industry. What the leader tells may impact on the attitude of their fans and swing the consumption of tourism product or service. When the leader publishes his personal image and products he likes, he usually strikes the values of fans and stirs their emotion, and stimulates fans to follow his suit. His fans will buy the related products recommended by the opinion leader and create huge impact. This is the essence of the so called ‘fans economy’. It is about the opinion leader influencing his fans in their emotions and decision, leading to the expansion and dooms of certain industry and brands. This leader becomes the star and is sought after by producers for marketing.

Backpacker Xiaopeng has undergone different stages of his own life and career due to different development modes in the context of fans economy. Not only did he grow to be a tourism opinion leader from a travel enthusiast, but also he has gone beyond the limitation of economic benefits a tourism opinion leader can bring to him. He has evolved into a tourism practitioner with legal representative and the capacity to create capital in economic, social and cultural perspectives.

This paper identifies a Star economic model, which involves tourist opinion leader as the core. With the Star-making campaign in the mass media era, actors, singers, outstanding sports athletes, business celebrities and web celebrity now can be packaged as shining idols adored by millions of fans. The kind of idol may work magic on fans and lead to unique consuming behavior. They interact with emotions, spirit, and unique obsessions related to complex psychological effects.

Similarly, many senior travel enthusiasts emerged in the field of tourism, they reach more destinations, try more different routes and experience more local customs. Through the dissemination power of mass media and new media, they influenced more tourists and became tourism opinion leader, and it’s possible to package them as star or celebrity. Xiaopeng was an example of this star making process.

CONCLUSION,

Chinese are familiar with this name “Xiaopeng” because he created a number of popular blogs for travellers by using this name. The research is significant in reviewing the role transition of a backpacker, and makes contribution in identifying the possible models and strategies for a backpacker/traveler to grow into a successful business operator through innovation and social media.

Keywords: fans economy, tourist opinion leader, tourism operator, social media

REFERENCES


RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TOURISTS’ PLACE ATTACHMENT, SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY: DIVERSITY PREFERENCE AS A MEDIA

Feng Zhu, Shandong University at Weihai
Jiangze Wang, Fudan University
Wei Chen, Shandong University at Weihai

ABSTRACT

The relationship between tourists’ place attachment, satisfaction and loyalty has been studied thoroughly but the heterogeneity of market was seldom considered. This paper aimed to examine the relationship between the above three variables in a heterogeneous market by introducing Diversity Preferences (DP) as an intermediary variable. Based on a survey of 781 questionnaires in a famous coast city, Weihai in China, this paper finds that tourists are divided into three clusters according to different level of DP: high DP, medium DP and low DP by cluster analysis. Structural equation modelling analysis shows that the relationships between each two of place attachment, satisfaction, repeat visiting and recommendation are significant in low DP cluster; while neither of the relationships in high DP cluster are significant in high DP, the relationships are all but between place attachment and repeat visiting is significant in medium.

Keywords: Place attachment, Satisfaction, Loyalty, Diversity Preference

INTRODUCTION

In the past decade, scholars have found the linear relationship between tourists’ place attachment, satisfaction and loyalty (Yuksel A, Yuksel F, and Bilim Y., 2010). Tourist market is heterogeneous and preferences of tourists are different. Is the linear relationship between tourists’ place attachment, satisfaction and loyalty affected by the Diversity Preferences (DP)? The paper is aimed to examine this.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Tourists with high DP are more demanding for the abundance of services and products provided by tourist destinations and this will reduce their evaluation on destinations (Scoot D., Vitartas P., 2008). So the Hypothesis is proposed as the following.

H1: The positive effect of place attachment on satisfaction is more significant in the tourists group with lower DP than those with higher DP.

Studies have found that higher satisfactions of certain destination do not accordingly lead to a certain amount of repeat visiting (Bello D. C., Etzel M. J., 1985). This is due to repeat visiting can’t meet tourists’ demand of DP on destinations. The higher DP of tourists, the lower intention of repeat visit (Guy A., Vincenzo V., Peter O.,2011; Assaker G., Vinzi V. E., Connor P.,2011). H2: The positive effect of satisfaction on loyalty (intention to recommend and willingness to revisit) is more significant in the tourists group with lower DP than those with higher DP.

Tourists with higher DP tend to chase for more fascinations and excitement, so they will choose different destinations and the rates of repeat visit on the same destinations are low.

H3: The positive effect of place attachment on loyalty (intention to recommend and willingness to revisit) is more significant in the tourists group with lower DP than those with higher DP.

Fig.1. Theoretical Model of the Research
METHODOLOGY

Scope of the Study

Data were collected by means of questionnaire performed by trained postgraduates majoring in tourism management. As 3S (Sea, Sand and Sun) tour is a leading and popular tour product, a coastal city of Weihai was selected as the place of questionnaire. A random sampling of 1000 questionnaires was made during the peak season, August 20-27 and October 1-6. A total of 781 valid questionnaires are obtained.

Measure Tools

According to the Hypothesis, Place attachment, Satisfaction, Loyalty and DP were the latent variables. After a careful examination and comparison with these tools, the present study is based on scales proposed respectively by Williams, Oliver and so on, with the above five variables correspondingly (see in Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>factors</th>
<th>Number of Questions</th>
<th>Origin of scales</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Place Attachment(PA)</td>
<td>Place attachment(PA)</td>
<td>PD (1-10)</td>
<td>Williams, D.R. (1989)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction (S)</td>
<td>Overall Satisfaction(OS)</td>
<td>OS (1-3)</td>
<td>Oliver (1980)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty(L)</td>
<td>Intention to recommend (IR)</td>
<td>IR (1-2)</td>
<td>Jang S C (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversity Preference(DP)</td>
<td>willingness to revisit (WR)</td>
<td>WR (1-4)</td>
<td>Oppermann (2000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Variables and the Origin of the Scales

Exploratory factor analysis was used for the test of reliability of questionnaire and confirmative factor analysis was used for the test of validity of the questionnaire. The total reliability $\alpha$ of place attachment, satisfaction and loyalty is 0.948, 0.913 and 0.908 respectively. The total reliability $\alpha$ of DP is 0.859. The structure validity of the scales is good and each of the test results was showed in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>$x^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$x^2$/df</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard</td>
<td>The less the better</td>
<td>&lt;3</td>
<td>&gt; 0.9</td>
<td>&gt; 0.9</td>
<td>&lt; 0.08</td>
<td>&gt; 0.50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 1</td>
<td>PA</td>
<td>80.608</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.779</td>
<td>0.978</td>
<td>0.959</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2</td>
<td>OS</td>
<td>1.759</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.759</td>
<td>0.999</td>
<td>0.997</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.7601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 3</td>
<td>IR ; WR</td>
<td>32.947</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.995</td>
<td>0.981</td>
<td>0.973</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 4</td>
<td>DP</td>
<td>4.134</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.827</td>
<td>0.999</td>
<td>0.996</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.7112</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. The Result of Confirmative Factor Analysis

Data Analysis

Structure model analysis was used to test the positive effect of place attachment on satisfaction and loyalty, the positive effect of satisfaction on loyalty. Cluster analysis was used to test the alteration of the above effect according to different levels of DP.

RESULTS

The Results of Structure Equation Model (SEM) Test

The fit indexes of the structure equation model analysis results are rather well (Fig 2). The results show that: the standardized path coefficient of place attachment to satisfaction is 0.83, satisfaction to intention to recommend is 0.68, satisfaction to willingness to revisiting is 0.24, place attachment to willingness to recommend is 0.228, place attachment to willingness to revisiting is 0.227. The results of the study indicate that place attachment have significant positive effects on satisfaction and at the same time place attachment have significant positive effects on loyalty. The above coefficients were all established in the significant level of 0.01.
**The Result of Cluster Analysis**

K-means cluster analysis and discriminant analysis were used to analyze tourists. The survey samples can be divided into three cluster groups according to different level of DPs: low DP group, High DP group and the medium group. There was significant positive relationship between place attachment and satisfaction, satisfaction and loyalty, as well as place attachment and loyalty in low DP group (Fig. 3a). And in the medium group, the relationship between place attachment and willingness to revisit gradually weakened, and the relationship between other variables did not change much (Fig 3b). In the high DP group, significant level of effect of place attachment on willingness to revisit was still less than 0.1, the positive effect on recommendation intention was also weakened (path coefficient decreased to 0.1); path coefficient of the positive influence of satisfaction on willingness to revisit was reduced to 0.08, significant level lower than 0.1 (Fig. 3c).

**CONCLUSION**

First, there is no difference of the path coefficient between place attachment and satisfaction in different DP groups. The research hypothesis H1 is not confirmed.

Second, there is no difference of the path coefficient between satisfaction and intention to recommend in different DP group, there are significant differences of the path coefficient between satisfaction and willingness to revisit, the research hypothesis H2 is partially confirmed.

Third, there are significant differences of the path coefficient between the place attachment and recommendation intention and revisit intention in the different DP groups, the research hypothesis H3 is confirmed.

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CHANGING ATTITUDES TOWARD ETHNIC MINORITIES: THE CASE OF A KOREAN NEIGHBORHOOD IN OSAKA, JAPAN

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Kyle Woosnam, University of Georgia

INTRODUCTION

Ethnic attitudes have been described as attitudes held toward a group by non-members of the group (Kalin & Berry, 1982). As Dustman and Preston (2001) claim, such attitudes potentially affect the social and economic integration of immigrant minorities. While ethnic attitudes can be explained by various factors, intercultural contact is considered to be one of the most influential (Techakesari et al, 2015). The idea is derived from the intergroup contact theory (Allport, 1954; Amir, 1969) which postulates that under appropriate conditions (i.e., equal status, intergroup cooperation, common goals, and support of authorities), direct contact with members of the out-group may reduce intergroup prejudice and negative attitudes, ultimately leading to greater mutual understanding. Following previous studies demonstrating the evidence to support this hypothesis (e.g., Brown & Hewstone, 2005; Petchen, 1999), recent research has highlighted the importance of mediators of contacts’ effect (Techakesari et al, 2015). Such identified mediators include, but are not limited to, knowledge, anxiety, empathy, and perspective taking (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008; Vescio et al., 2003).

Tourism, which provides face-to-face interaction between tourists and hosts, has the potential of being a vital force to fulfill the psychological gaps between people of different cultures and change ones’ ethnic attitudes (Nyaupane et al., 2008). Indeed, previous studies (Nyaupane et al., 2008; Pizam et al., 2002) indicated positive changes of ethnic attitudes following overseas travel, while other studies (Anastasopoulos et al., 1994; Pizam et al., 1991) demonstrated negative changes.

While these previous studies have explored attitudinal change through international tourism, ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT), may offer opportunities for intercultural contacts without going abroad. In ENT, tourists who visit an ethnic neighborhood can enjoy unique foods and customs of the minority culture within their country, which may provide travelers with a unique opportunity to improve their attitude toward a specific ethnic group. To date, few, if any, studies have explored attitudinal change through ENT. With this gap in mind, the purpose of the current work is to examine the attitudinal change among Japanese tourists who visited Korean neighborhoods in Osaka, Japan.

The relationship between Japanese and Korean residents of Japan has been sensitive and complex (Hester, 2008). Because of the history of forced migration and severe prejudices, Korean residential areas in Japan were typically segregated from the rest of the urban population, and the interplay between the two groups was limited. The major turning point was the “Korean wave,” the global popularity of South Korean pop culture that took place during the early 2000s in Japan. Interest in Koreans and their culture grew dramatically, especially among the fans of Korean music and soap operas. Soon, the Korean neighborhood of Osaka, which had previously served the needs of the co-ethnics, became a popular tourism destination.

METHODS

Data for this study was collected from October, 2014, to February, 2017, from two groups of Japanese citizens. The first group consists of tourists to the Korean neighborhood (n = 93), recruited from a one-day walking tour. This sample was comprised of 88 women and five men. Such an imbalance is explained by the fact that data were collected during weekdays. Arguably, this sample, however, may represent visitors to the Korean neighborhood given fans of Korean pop culture are predominantly female (Osaka, 2008). Fifty-three percent (n = 49) of the participants reported that this was their visit.
A second sample (serving as a control group) was drawn from Japanese citizens who live away from the Korean neighborhood and have not visited the area before (n = 100). Female participants were purposefully chosen.

The tourist group was surveyed twice: before the tour began and after the entire tour was completed. The control group was surveyed only once. Questionnaires for pre-trip, post-trip, and control group included exactly the same questions regarding attitudes towards Korean residents. To examine the tourists’ ethnic attitudes, 24 items from the Ethnic Attitude Scale (EAS) developed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum (1957) were adopted. Respondents were asked to rate their attitudes towards Korean residents by using a 7-point scale for each continuum.

FINDINGS

To compare the pre- and post-visit responses, and the control group’s attitudes, a series of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests was carried out. A Scheffe post-hoc test was further conducted to examine differences among the three groups. The results showed that scores of all 24 items of the pre-visit group are significantly higher than the control group (p < 0.01) (Table 1). In addition, 14 out of 24 items were significantly higher after the visit (p < 0.01). This means that those who visited the Korean town held positive attitudes towards Korean residents even before the visit, and such positive attitudes were enhanced through the visit.

DISCUSSION

This study examined whether the ethnic attitudes of Japanese tourists towards Korean residents change after visiting the Korean neighborhood in Osaka, Japan. The study is the first of its kind to examine the attitudinal change of a dominant ethnic group through domestic tourism (i.e., ENT). Results indicate that even before the visit, tourists had very positive attitude toward Korean residents. Previous studies (Lee, 2009; Hsu et al., 2010) indicate that people’s attitude is an effective predictor of participation in tourism. Arguably, the positive ethnic attitudes of visitors affected their very decision to participate in the tour to the Korean neighborhood in the first place.

The positive changes of the ethnic attitudes after the participants completed the one-day tour were to some extent surprising, especially when considering that past studies indicate visitors in group tours do not normally change their ethnic attitude in a positive direction due to the superficial level of interaction between the host and the guest (Pizam et al., 2000; Pizam et al., 2002). Indeed, tourists who had positive changes of ethnic attitude are usually long-term visitors who experience intense interaction with local community members (Nyaupane et al., 2008). The contrast with previous studies can be explained by the nature of the walking tour wherein several mediators facilitated possibilities for attitudinal change. For example, having an experienced guide who explain the history, experience, and culture of Korean residents in the area may have contributed to an increase in participants’ knowledge concerning Korean culture and aided in reducing prejudice (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008). These talks also helped reduce anxiety about the new culture, enhance empathy for Korean residents, and encourage participants to adopt a new perspective (Pettigrew et al., 2011). In addition, as part of the tour, participants were encouraged to join cultural activities with Korean shop owners playing the role of instructor. These activities also served as an opportunity for cooperating with Korean residents (Amir, 1969).

Overall, this study indicates that ENT provides a great opportunity for those interested in Korean culture to heighten their positive ethnic attitudes. However, it may not be the correct vehicle to improve the attitudes of those who do not initially have positive attitudes because such individuals are unlikely to visit the ethnic neighborhood in the first place (Hsu et al., 2010).

ENT can contribute most to positive changes of ethnic attitudes when it is used as part of a broader process of enhancing ethnic diversity in Japan and other parts of the globe.
### Table 1. Attitudes towards Koreans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitude Items</th>
<th>Pre-Trip Mean</th>
<th>Post Trip Mean</th>
<th>Control Mean</th>
<th>F Value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cold-hearted-warm-hearted</td>
<td>4.39ab</td>
<td>5.12a</td>
<td>3.18b</td>
<td>58.589</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awful-nice</td>
<td>4.26ab</td>
<td>4.99a</td>
<td>3.38b</td>
<td>49.100</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old-fashioned-modern</td>
<td>4.30ab</td>
<td>4.72a</td>
<td>3.27b</td>
<td>41.993</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruel-kind</td>
<td>4.47ab</td>
<td>5.02a</td>
<td>2.96b</td>
<td>76.366</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad-good</td>
<td>4.39ab</td>
<td>5.09a</td>
<td>2.74b</td>
<td>100.331</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boastful-modest</td>
<td>4.03ab</td>
<td>4.58a</td>
<td>3.50b</td>
<td>20.496</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense-relaxed</td>
<td>4.41ab</td>
<td>4.96a</td>
<td>3.09b</td>
<td>72.527</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishonest-honest</td>
<td>4.38ab</td>
<td>5.00a</td>
<td>3.27b</td>
<td>50.783</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfriendly-friendly</td>
<td>4.71ab</td>
<td>5.22a</td>
<td>4.06b</td>
<td>19.830</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak-powerful</td>
<td>5.13a</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>2.86a</td>
<td>135.026</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive-submissive</td>
<td>4.30a</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>2.88a</td>
<td>52.074</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unreliable-reliable</td>
<td>4.32ab</td>
<td>4.83a</td>
<td>2.95b</td>
<td>71.502</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rigid-flexible</td>
<td>4.44a</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>3.29a</td>
<td>47.377</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid-intelligent</td>
<td>4.42a</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>3.60a</td>
<td>28.436</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy-hardworking</td>
<td>4.58a</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>2.56a</td>
<td>107.603</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at all like myself-like myself</td>
<td>3.91a</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>3.41a</td>
<td>9.209</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illiterate-educated</td>
<td>4.52a</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>3.33a</td>
<td>54.709</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirty-clean</td>
<td>4.31a</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>3.78a</td>
<td>14.261</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slow-fast</td>
<td>4.82a</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>3.18a</td>
<td>78.567</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discriminate against women-egalitarian</td>
<td>4.23ab</td>
<td>4.77a</td>
<td>3.52b</td>
<td>27.214</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very negative-very positive</td>
<td>4.40ab</td>
<td>4.94a</td>
<td>2.70b</td>
<td>103.895</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active-passive</td>
<td>4.03ab</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>3.00a</td>
<td>21.255</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abrupt-polite</td>
<td>4.09ab</td>
<td>4.72a</td>
<td>2.96b</td>
<td>53.749</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immoral-moral</td>
<td>4.29ab</td>
<td>4.78a</td>
<td>2.96b</td>
<td>65.774</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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FRANCHISING AND DYNAMICS OF THE INDUSTRY COMPETITION

Kyung-A Sun, Temple University
Seoki Lee, Pennsylvania State University

INTRODUCTION

Franchising holds a central place among the strategic characteristics of the service industry and it has proven to be a successful contractual mechanism for business expansion (Norton, 1995; Winter, Szulanski, Ringov, & Jensen, 2012). While studies from the diverse disciplines have documented how franchising system benefits individual companies for their business outcomes (e.g., Brickely & Dark, 1987; Combs & Ketchen, 2003; Koh, Lee, & Boo, 2009), limited attention has been paid to the association between franchising and the business environment at large, such as the business environment of an entire industry. Grounded in the resource/knowledge-based point of view (Barney, 1991; Kogut & Zander, 1992), this study posits that franchising helps firms (franchisors) achieve competitive advantages in the market by providing them with opportunities to acquire resources and knowledge from their franchisees. With these resources and knowledge, franchisors become able to outperform their rivals, and bring the dynamics of competition into the market. In this sense, the competitive condition within a market is an important environmental outcome shaped by an individual firm’s engagement in franchising.

The argument of this study lies in the inquiry of how the franchising strategy influences three dimensions of the competition: competition structure, changed in the competition structure, and dynamic competition (Child, 1972; Dess & Beard, 1984; Mintzberg, 1979). First, the resources and knowledge acquired from franchisees improves firms’ (franchisors’) capabilities and enables them to enter a new market at lowered entry costs (Michael, 2003; Pilling, Henson, & Yoo, 1995). The lowered entry barriers will invite a growing number of new firms into the market which will become crowded with large population of competitors and thus less concentrated. Second, franchisors, equipped with the external knowledge from their franchisees, become more able to innovate themselves (Winter et al., 2012). Such innovative actions encourage the entire industry to be more innovative, and consequently produce more changes in the market structure. Last, these innovative efforts create new strategic assets that bring in new streams of cash flow (Irvine & Pontiff, 2009; Schumpeter, 1942; Thomas, 1996). As a result, they encourage firms to introduce diverse strategic assets into markets, which result in dynamic competition among the firms (Bengtsson & Marell, 2006; Irvine & Pontiff, 2009; Thomas & D’Aveni, 2009).

H1: An industry’s involvement in franchising decreases industry concentration.

H2: An industry’s involvement in franchising increases industry instability.

H3: An industry’s involvement in franchising increases dynamic competition within markets.

Since each industry has its unique characteristics, it is possible to assume that the influence of franchising on the industry competition is not uniform across all industries of the service sector. The proposed relationships between franchising and the three dimensions of competitive condition could be more or less important to a certain industry or even the relationships could have different directions in specific industries depending on how franchising is exercised within each industry. This study further hypothesizes that the influence of the franchising strategy on the competitive condition will be stronger for the hospitality industry than other service industries because of the hospitality industry’s unique characteristic of capital-intensity (Lee, Koh, & Kang, 2011; Sheel, 1994; Tang & Jang, 2007). An expansion of hotels and restaurants requires significant amount of capital due to need for construction of buildings and food-production facilities. Understanding this condition of the hospitality industry, it would be
more difficult and expensive for hospitality firms to expand their business with their own capital investment than firms in other service industries. Accordingly, the franchising strategy will have a greater influence on hospitality firms’ business expansion and thereby their market share increase than firms in other service industries. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that the proposed influence of the franchising strategy on the three dimensions of investigating competitive condition will be stronger in the hospitality industry than other service industries.

H4a: The relationship between the industry franchising involvement and the industry concentration is negatively moderated by the hospitality industry.

H4b: The relationship between the industry franchising involvement and the industry instability is positively moderated by the hospitality industry.

H4c: The relationship between the industry franchising involvement and the dynamic competitions within the industry is positively moderated by the hospitality industry.

METHOD

The examination collects data from: (1) the firm annual reports (10K) from the U.S. Securities and Exchange Commission, (2) the COMPUSTAT database, (3) the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics for consumer price index’s (CPI) data, and (4) the U.S. Census Bureau for industry-wide economic data. The sampling period is from 1991 to 2015. To operationalize the degree of franchising involvement of each industry (independent variable), the study uses the proportion of the number of firms, which were engaging in franchising, over the total number of firms within an industry. To measure the industry-wide competition structure for H1, industry concentration is operationalized by using the Herfindahl index, which is defined as the sum of the squared market shares of all firms within a market. To measure the change in the competition structure (i.e., market instability) for H2, the study adopts an instability index, devised by Hymer and Pashigian (1962). The market instability index facilitates the tracking of changes in market share over time. For testing H3, according to Thomas (1996), the nature of dynamic competition is recognized as having a high variance in performance across all firms in the industry. Firm performance is measured by firm value, Tobin’s q (Chung & Pruitt, 1994), and then the study calculates the variance of Tobin’s q within each industry for measuring the dynamics of competition. The moderating variable, the hospitality industry, is employed by an indicator variable, assigned 1 for the hospitality industry and 0 otherwise. Additionally, industry revenue, the number of firms within each industry, industry GDP, and the two other dependent variables of the three are included in the model as control variables. Since the association between firms’ actions and their competitive environment is intertwined, the nature of the propositions in this research presents empirical tests vulnerable to endogeneity issues. To circumvent the problem, the current study employed two-stage least-squares (2SLS) estimations (Greene, 2011). Two instrumental variables of the economic recession period and industry categorization are used to predict the degree of franchising involvement of an industry. Furthermore, to mitigate the unobserved effects among entities and to correct deflated standard errors possibly generating problems in the panel data sets, the study uses the robust standard errors clustered by industry (Peterson, 2009).

FINDINGS

Table 1 includes the findings for hypotheses testing. Results suggest that a negative impact of franchising involvement on the industry concentration ($\beta = -0.426$) is significant at the level of 0.01, and therefore, Hypothesis 1 (H1) is supported. While the coefficients for the relationship between franchising involvement and industry instability ($\beta = -0.793$), and variance of $q$ ($\beta = -2.073$) are statistically significant at the level of 0.01, the directions are opposite to the hypothesized. Thus, Hypothesis 2 and 3 (H2 and H3) are not supported. On the other hand, the tests on the moderating effects of the hospitality industry provide statistically significant coefficients for the relationships between franchising involvement and industry instability ($\beta = 0.876$) and between franchising involvement and
variance of q (β = 2.877) at the level of 0.05 and 0.01, which support Hypotheses 4b and 4c (H4b and H4c). The moderating effect of the hospitality industry on the relationship between franchising involvement and industry concentration is not statistically significant at the level of 0.05, which does not support Hypothesis 4a (H4a).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>CON</td>
<td>-0.426**</td>
<td>(0.084)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>INST</td>
<td>-0.793**</td>
<td>(0.170)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>VAR(q)</td>
<td>-2.073**</td>
<td>(0.412)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<0.01

### Table 1. Main Results for Hypotheses Testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DV</th>
<th>Fr.inv</th>
<th>HOS</th>
<th>Fr.inv × HOS</th>
<th>I.Rev</th>
<th>LGDP</th>
<th>Num. firm</th>
<th>CON</th>
<th>INST</th>
<th>VAR(q)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>CON</td>
<td>-0.426**</td>
<td>(0.084)</td>
<td>-0.000**</td>
<td>-0.000**</td>
<td>-0.006**</td>
<td>-1.177**</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>INST</td>
<td>-0.793**</td>
<td>(0.170)</td>
<td>-0.000**</td>
<td>-0.000**</td>
<td>-0.001**</td>
<td>-0.769**</td>
<td>0.013*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>VAR(q)</td>
<td>-2.073**</td>
<td>(0.412)</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.025**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.082@</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4a</td>
<td>CON</td>
<td>-0.118</td>
<td>(0.086)</td>
<td>-0.379**</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>-0.000**</td>
<td>-0.006**</td>
<td>-1.176**</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4b</td>
<td>INST</td>
<td>-0.556**</td>
<td>(0.197)</td>
<td>-0.629**</td>
<td>0.876*</td>
<td>-0.000**</td>
<td>-0.001**</td>
<td>-0.769**</td>
<td>0.011@</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4c</td>
<td>VAR(q)</td>
<td>-2.752**</td>
<td>(0.503)</td>
<td>-0.394</td>
<td>2.877**</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.025**</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>-0.081@</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fr.inv: franchising involvement; HOS: hospitality industry; I.Rev: industry total revenue; LGDP: industry GDP; Num.firm: the number of firms within each industry; CON: industry concentration; INST: industry instability; VAR(q): variance of Tobin’s q, () contains robust standard errors clustered by industry p>0.1, *p>0.05, **p<0.01

### CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

The empirical results provided evidence that franchising system significantly alters the industry-wide competitive condition with regard to competition structure, market instability, and dynamic competition of an industry. It also found that franchising provides different impact on the market instability and the dynamic competition for the hospitality industry where capital investment can be heavily loaded for business growth.

The conclusions of the study provide theoretical implications to academia. The study supports the resource/knowledge-based point of view (Barney, 1991; Kogut & Zander, 1992), especially by showing that franchising can help firms (franchisors) to become better equipped with resources and/or knowledge from their partners (franchisees) and thereby lowers entry barriers for the firms and produces less concentration for the entire industry. In particular, it may be implied that the role of the franchising system to provide resources/knowledge for creating competitive advantages is more critical for the hospitality industry with respect to the industry instability and dynamic competition, in which small firms (that likely experience a lack of resources) are more likely to survive. The franchising system can encourage small hospitality firms to overcome the high capital requirements needed for market entry.

Practical implications can also be provided to industry executives and/or to policy discussions. According to the findings, the use of the franchising strategy results in a less concentrated market structure, fewer changes in the structure, and fewer new strategic assets within the overall service industries. The results indicate how franchising influences the business environment and specifically what is taking place between the franchise system and competition within service industries, which practitioners find useful for their decision-making process. Also, competition structure is closely related to antitrust policies. Findings can inform policy makers that as firms become more involved in franchising, the service industry has a less concentrated structure. Therefore, policy makers could find the result useful for evaluating each industry’s market condition so that they can pursue their goals to create the perfect competition market.

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THE EFFECTS OF AFFECTIVE AND COGNITIVE ELABORATION IN FORMATION OF CUSTOMER–BRAND RELATIONSHIP

Jiseon Ahn, University of Houston
Ki-Joon Back, University of Houston
Yoon Koh, University of Houston

INTRODUCTION

Many countries and cities have introduced integrated resorts, which include multi-dimensional facilities that offer integrated travel services to global travelers. Integrated resort is a term commonly used to refer properties that include various leisure businesses such as casinos, hotels, food and beverage services, shopping malls, and showrooms (Gao & Lai, 2015). Increasingly, customers are opting to use one-stop casino resorts with various non-gaming facilities, and integrated resort-based destinations such as Las Vegas and Macau have become more popular and important in terms of creating memorable and unique travel experiences. Numerous brands compete over similar or even the same functional characteristics; therefore, marketers and integrated resort service providers need to build a strong customer-brand relationship and take a competitive advantageous position.

The concept of customer-brand relationship refers to the degree to which a brand contributes to an individual’s identity, values, and goals (Fournier, 1998). The relationship between customers and brands is particularly strong in the service sector because of the numerous possibilities of managing customer-brand interaction. In the tourism industry, customer-brand relationship is influenced by multifaceted customer travel experiences, including accommodation, leisure activities, sightseeing, attending events, as well as other emotional influences. Once customers are satisfied with a travel brand (e.g., destination brand, national brand, airline brand, or travel agency brand), they will form the tendency to maintain a relationship with the brand because of the time already invested as well as economic and cognitive resources in the relationship (Fornell, 1992). The quality of brand relationship strengthens the long-term relationship between customers and brands by calibrating general beliefs on the relationship (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992). In studies on the multi-process approach of decision-making, some researchers have argued that cognitive elaboration plays a primary role in the process of attitude formation (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), while others have suggested that affective elaboration primarily influences attitudes (Kim & Morris, 2007). Therefore, efforts to improve understanding of cognitive and affective elaborations on the formation of an attitude toward the travel brand are necessary.

Although topics related to brand management marketing in the tourism sector have been widely studied, customer mechanisms of processing brand experience and its effects on other customer-brand relational constructs remain understudied particularly in the integrated resort industry. The alternative approach of specifying two major dimensions (affect and cognition) is necessary because of importance and complexity of the integrated resort. The purpose of this study is two-fold. First, it seeks to identify the roles of affective and cognitive elaborations in customers’ relational attitude formation process induced by integrated resort brand experience. Second, this study aims to examine the effects of customer-brand relationship on behavioral outcomes toward an integrated resort brand.

METHOD

Data were collected from an online survey. Participants were recruited from the Amazon
Mechanical Turk, which provides demographically diverse samples. To increase the generalizability of results, data were collected via a self-administered questionnaire distributed to online survey panel members who had traveled to an integrated resort. A total of 443 participants were recruited for the main study. The sample characteristics indicated that 53.6 percent were male. The majority of participants (49.1%) were in the 25–34 years age group, followed by the 35–50 years (28.2%) and above 50 years (13.5%) age groups.

Sensory and affective brand experiences were measured using three items each developed by Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello (2009). Behavioral and intellectual brand experiences were also measured using three items each adopted by Brakus, Schmitt, and Zarantonello (2009). Brand relationship quality toward the integrated resort brand was measured to examine the strength of the relationship between customers and brands (Fletcher & Kininmonth, 1992; Fournier, 1998). Items were adapted from Ajzen and Fishbein (1975) research to measure the customers’ behavioral intention toward the integrated resort brand. Cronbach’s alpha for each measure was over 0.80.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted and confirmed the proposed model consists of six factors including four dimensions of brand experience (e.g., sensory, affective, behavioral, intellectual), brand relationship quality, and behavioral intention. Confirmatory Factor Analysis shows that the fit of the measurement model is acceptable based on the four indices with $\chi^2/df = 684.564/192 = 3.565$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.079, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.930, and goodness of fit (GFI) = 0.850. All of the indicator loadings for constructs were significant ($p < 0.01$). Factor loading appears higher than 0.5 which indicates the extent to which the ratings of items depends on the latent variable.

**FINDINGS**

Hypotheses were tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) with AMOS 6.0 statistical packages. Results show showed goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2/df = 679.644/196 = 3.468$, GFI=0.856, CFI=0.932, and RMSEA = 0.078). Specifically, the results (Figure 1) pointed out that when evaluating brand experience. Positive effects of affective ($\beta = 0.46$, $p<0.01$) and intellectual ($\beta = 0.13$, $p<0.05$) experiences existed on brand relationship quality. These analyses indicated that, 48% of the variance in brand relationship quality was explained. The positive coefficient estimates for the paths from brand relationship quality to revisit intention ($\beta = 0.67$, $p<0.01$) were significant. The variance was explained 44% of the variance of the behavioral intention.

**CONCLUSION**

The present research provides a thorough view that contributes to the understanding of customers’ evaluation process of their travel experience. The findings suggest that customers’ affective and cognitive elaborations are elicited concurrently after exposure to integrated resort brand experience. Affective brand experience was a significant predictor of customers’ behavioral decision-making process. For instance, positive and welcoming feelings in the resorts or sentimental and emotional elements of guestrooms are clearly important triggers. This affective brand experience is a key factor that determines a strong customer-brand relationship. Thus, a strong brand relationship quality can be achieved through affective elaboration of emotional brand experiences. Intellectual brand experience was also significant. Among various travel services gaming activities may yield a highly intellectual experience. Slot machines with pay arrangements and casino table games with a dealer or more players stimulate customers’ analytical reasoning and/or divergent thinking. Customers’ relational attitude is in the final stages of mental brand responses and is formed by customer experience. In this study, the effect of brand relationship is also significant in the purchase decision-making process of integrated resort brands. Customers who perceive a high quality of brand relationship are likely to make future behavior intention.
In managerial terms, the findings yield new insights into applying the brand relationship concept in the practice of integrated resorts. Recently, most service marketers have developed strategies to promote behavioral (e.g., long golf course, big swimming pool) and sensory (e.g., innovative interior design, spacious layout) elements of the integrated resorts. However, less focus has been given to affective (e.g., friendly employees and welcome gifts) and intellectual (e.g., video slot machine, bonus table game) brand experiences. The findings of this study indicate that focusing on behavioral and sensory brand experiences alone may not strengthen customer-brand relationship. Instead, enhancing affective and intellectual brand experiences could increase quality of customer-brand relationship, which in turn would lead to higher visit intention.

REFERENCES


EVALUATION OF URMIA ART TOURISM WITH EMPHASIZE ON CREATIVE TOURISM

Mehdi Asadi, Tabriz University

ABSTRACT

In recent studies of urban economies, art tourism is often listed as one of the creative industries, and ‘creative art tourism’ has been taken up by many destinations around the globe. The identity of art could determine the ability to attract visitors to a country through infusing the sense of place and imprint the memories on the visitors. The purpose of the paper is to explore the current development of art tourism in Urmia. The literature review indicated that art tourism is part and parcel of cultural tourism and mainly centered in urban area. These art tourists visit art exhibitions and art galleries, folk life and craft centers, theatres and museums, art festivals and fairs. The paper is the result of an empirical research, an exploratory study that includes literature review, meaning of seeking the good practices reported, and finally a SWOT analysis. In a result, it is normal to move towards a kind of tourism that we can differentiate and attract the interest of those who want to travel and have new, unique and authentic experiences and strongly believe that in Urmia this possible direction can be art tourism. The research suggested that the pursuit of art tourism would not only yield economic spin-off but also set the path in discovering its cultural identity through the expression of the local and modern arts. Further research direction could focus on the structure of the local and modern art sector in order to maximize the economic benefits.

Keywords: Art tourism, Creative tourism, urban economies, SWOT, Urmia

Introduction

Not surprisingly, art tourism has also been caught up in this creative maelstrom. In recent studies of urban economies, art tourism is often listed as one of the creative industries, and ‘creative art tourism’ has been taken up by many destinations around the globe. Creative art tourism has been posed as an extension of cultural art tourism—at once an adjunct and an antidote to mass forms of cultural art tourism and the serial reproduction of culture (Richards & Wilson, 2006). This review article attempts to analyze and explain the developing relationship between Urmia art tourism and creativity, specifically considering the implications of the ‘creative tourism’ in art tourism and examining the ways in which relationship has been approached in art tourism studies and more general economic science literature. It deals with the drivers of creativity in art tourism both in terms of production and consumption, evolving intervention strategies, the development of creative practices in art tourism and the rise of creative art tourism as a distinct field of art tourism development. The gathering critique of creativity is also reviewed, and the potentials of art tourism are outlined.

According to the World Art tourism Organization, Iran is among the world’s top five countries that is bestowed with geographical diversity and is among the top ten tourist-attracting countries which benefits from various historical and cultural attractions (BBC Persian, 2008). This situation can be of great potential in increasing art tourism activities in the two major categories of the art tourism industry, that is - inbound and domestic art tourism. However, an examination of art tourism trends shows that Iran has experienced a serious decline in inbound art tourism in the past decades. In contrast, domestic art tourism in urban areas has increased significantly in numbers. The significance of domestic art tourism from the economic and social perspective is undisputable, and it has remarkable potential to develop local areas, increase gross domestic product and regenerate cities. Therefore, consideration of the urban art tourism market in Urmia is an effective way to achieve the economic and social goals,
create the appropriate urban infrastructure, increase art tourism products and services in virtually all sectors of economic activities, and finally expedite the economic regeneration of the city. The importance of city destinations in Iran is self-generated as urban art tourism became increasingly popular among Iranians. Urmia metropolitan is one of the most important urban destinations in Iran attracting a variety of visitors throughout Iran. However, this process should be organized and managed with an understanding of urban art visitor’s characteristics, demands and desires.

Artistic Craft-based enterprises have a long history and tradition in Urmia and constitute considerable employment opportunities for the work force of the country. In many sectors employment is particularly suited for women and youth and the enterprises exist in rural areas where economic development is generally lacking and increased employment opportunities are particularly crucial.

There is some craft-based sectors: 1. Art works 2. Kilims and carpets 3. Leather, skins, furs 4. Ornaments made of stone (incl. semi-precious stones and gemstones) 5. Rattan furniture, woven mats and similar items 6. Metal items (copper, brass, silver, gold) 7. Wooden items (carved ornaments and furniture) 8. Other products (ceramics and pottery; textiles and embroidery incl. embroidered traditional dresses etc.) (figure 1,2,3,4,5,6 and 7).

Out of the sectors analyzed, art works weaving appears to have the largest potential for contributing to economic recovery and structural changes that provide opportunities to disadvantaged groups within society. Other sectors may have some chance of revival as niche industries or when conditions for art tourism improve to such an extent that it becomes feasible to concentrate on this market.

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* Niche tourism is a form of specialty tourism and has emerged as an antagonist to detrimental developments of mass tourism referring to environmental degradation and socio-cultural disturbance.
Cultural and arts organizations are often wary of marketing to tourists. They believe that when tourists attend the arts they are simply looking for entertainment. Therefore cultural organizations believe tourists have little or no interest in a true cultural experience. Unfortunately cultural organizations sometimes misunderstand marketing as only selling; with the organization trying to convince the tourist to experience culture in which they have no interest without regard to the effect such unappreciative attendance will have on the arts organization. However the definition of marketing is that it is an exchange that satisfies both the organization (in this case the arts organization) and the individual (the tourist). Successful marketing will result in an exchange that will benefit both the cultural organization and the tourist. Fortunately there is a model that can be used by arts organizations to market to tourists while retaining their mission and integrity. This can be accomplished by repositioning the product and branding it as a complete experience that combines the experience of culture with the experience of visiting the city. After all, a product can be a physical good, a service, or an experience. Marketing the arts as a tourist product is unique because it is a product composed of a physical good (the city) tourist services (hotels, dining, etc.) and the experience of the cultural events. Cultural organizations must work collaboratively with the entire community to attract visitors. Of course the packaged art event is an important element in attracting visitors to the city. However, tourists are much less likely to visit a city, even if it has great art, if the physical aspects of the city, such as its buildings, parks and streets, are unattractive. The image of the arts and the image of the city are both important components of the visiting experience.

One of the fastest growing sectors of the travel industry world-wide with annual average growth rate of 15%, which is three times of the average growth of the general tourism, is cultural tourism where arts and heritage are the key components (Sarah Lebski Associates, 2010). Iran, a federation of 31 states, is Middle East’s major art tourist destination and constantly developing new art tourism products and the industry is the second biggest contributor to foreign revenue. Urmia, one of states in Iran, is located in the North West part of it and is a melting pot of many different cultures and traditions, being home to more than 1 million people with more than 5 ethnic groups. It is renown as one of the important mega-diversity sites in Iran with strong sense of culture and heritage. The art sector in Urmia enjoys steady growth with a strong support from the local and foreign art collectors. In recent years, Iran aspires to elevate the status of Iran art as an iconic product, which is desired, pursued and collected worldwide. Rather than focusing on the art sector itself, Iran decided that it should tied in with the art tourism industry where the art community, such as the artists, art galleries owners or managers, art promoters, art critics, art lovers and collectors flocked to and around Iran buying collectible art, which is normally made by Iran artist. In the last three years, Iran promotes art tourism through Art tourism event all over the country including Urmia. Art Festivals is specializing in showcasing the art works and sculpture in the contemporary genre and supplemented by the ‘Art tourism Art Trail’. Tourists can visit the contemporary and traditional art galleries and attending art seminars and talks focusing on the current contemporary art scene. The objective of this paper is to explore and
understand the art tourism in Urmia.

Urmia is the second largest city in Azerbaijan and the capital of West Azerbaijan Province (figure 8). Urmia is situated at an altitude of 1,330 m above sea level, and is located along the Shahar Chay River (City River) on the Urmia Plain. Lake Urmia, one of the world’s largest salt lakes, lies to the east of the city and the mountainous Turkish border area lies to the west. Urmia is the 10th most populated city in Iran. At the 2012 census, its population was 667,499 with 197,749 households. The city’s inhabitants are predominantly Urmiaian Azerbaijanis who speak the Azerbaijani language. There are also minorities of Kurds, Assyrians, and Armenians. Urmia has many parks and touristic coastal villages in the Shore of Urmia Lake. Also Art events kicked off in the city of Urmia in every time of year and so many art and cultural tourists come to visit artistic places, galleries and exhibitions.

Figure 8. Urmia location in West Azarbyjan of Iran

LITERATURE REVIEW

Stylianou-Lambert (2011) suggested a comprehensive exploration on art tourist definitions where she reconstructed and expanded well-established cultural tourist typologies through exploration of the differences on cultural tourists in art museum from the general cultural tourists. Using exploratory research, her study has drawn the experiences, memories and perceptions of art museum local visitors and developed Museum Perceptual Filters (MPFs) with eight (8) different ways in approaching art museums. The eight MPFs identified are professional, art-loving, self exploration, cultural art tourism, social visitation, romantic, rejection and indifference. The study also suggested that the participants that visited art museum in their home will probably do so when they are travelling and those who do not, will also not visiting art museum while travelling. Art tourism is also thought to be able to attract new businesses and residents through enhancing the positive image of the host city (Kolb, 2005). The distinctive difference to the arts as a tourist product is the departure point of the marketing process where it starts with product analysis. This enables the art product to be able to reposition as a tourist activity. This is certainly different with the traditional marketing process that starts with identifying the factors for external environment and decided if those factors such as social, political, legal and technological changes have indicated a potential art tourism market. The literature reviews suggested that art tourism is part and parcel of cultural art tourism and mainly centered on urban area. It is mainly integrated as part of economic development where the incoming flow of tourists hoped to bring more positive impacts while enhancing the local community’s quality of life at the same time. There is a lack of literatures that discussed the issues and the evaluation of art tourism as many studies focused on the current existing art scene and researching them as part of urban development program.

Cultural tourism is not new. The cultural activities and institutions of cities and towns have always been of interest to people. Postcards of city scenes produced in the late 19th century were designed to show Main Street bustling with markets, parades and festivals. In fact when Main Street developed, one of the most important criteria in planning the layout of a building’s site was to maximize each building’s exposure to the traveling publics (Francaviglia, 1996).

The marketing of cities in the US can be traced back to the selling of the Western frontier to American citizens. Once the railroads had connected the populated East with the sparsely populated West, efforts were initiated to motivate people to travel. The ‘See America First’ movement, an early example of such an effort, was started to encourage US citizens to use the new cross-continental railroads to visit the West. While enjoying the natural splendors was the first inducement to tourism, it was only a short time later that experiencing the excitement of the new
cities, including their cultural attractions, also became a reason to travel west. Early promotional messages contrasted the adventure of exploring the culture of US cities with visiting the old civilizations of Europe (Shaffer, 2001).

The idea of using tourism to encourage economic development is now new. The City Beautiful movement, which was influential at the beginning of the twentieth century, believed physical improvements to a city’s infrastructure would in turn help to improve the social relations of its citizens. They specifically focused on cultural and civic improvement projects, such as civic centers, performance halls, parks and town squares. Of course these improvements cost money that taxpayers were not always willing to spend. Therefore those involved with the movement reminded local citizens, particularly those with businesses, that not only would the improvements make the city a more pleasant place in which to live, they would also attract tourists. The movement’s supporters argued that these visitors would spend money which would increase business revenue and therefore indirectly benefit all citizens (Cocks, 2001).

The same argument is still being made today, while cities welcome the money spent by visitors, cultural tourism is not the total answer to improving the economic health of economically troubled cities and towns. However it can be one part of the solution to increase business revenue, provide employment opportunities and even attract both new residents and new businesses. Developing a tourism industry can also change the image of the city, and this new more positive image can be the catalyst for other positive economic changes such as attracting new residents and new businesses (Kotler, 1993). Cities can be described as being in one of three stages of economic health: economically strong, in decline, or in transition. An economically healthy city will have expanding business and industry sectors that result in new residents moving to the city because of employment opportunities. Such a city probably will already have strong cultural institutions that attract tourists. In fact local attendees might even complain about the negative effects caused by the many tourists visiting the institution.

Growth in travel opportunities and improved communication systems has contributed to an increased awareness of global culture. Consumers are now familiar with the art and music of many other countries besides their own. It is natural that they would want to visit cultural organizations to experience these art forms when they travel. Heritage sites and museums, along with theatres and other performing arts venues, are a significant reason why tourists visit the major urban areas (Hughes, 1997). As government funding provided to cultural organizations for operational expenses has decreased, cultural organizations have become increasingly interested in attracting cultural tourists to their venues. Targeting cultural tourists is a means for cultural organizations to earn additional revenue, while still being true to their mission.

The cultural organization faces a unique challenge of providing a worthwhile experience for the cultural tourist. The tourist is traveling to gain both an understanding of culture and is also traveling for enjoyment. Cultural tourists want an experience that is both exciting and memorable, so that they can share the experience with friends and family when they return home. Even so cultural tourists are also interested in education programs – as long as they are enjoyable – that will help them understand what they are experiencing.

The tourist market can also be further segmented by the benefits sought by the tourists (Boniface, 1995). Some cultural tourists seek escapism. They want an experience that is different from what they experience in daily life. Other tourists want their visit to a cultural organization to provide them with a feeling of status. They want a unique experience unobtainable elsewhere, of which they can boast when they have returned home. Some of the benefits desired by tourists visiting a cultural organization may be similar to the benefits desired by other visitors, but cultural tourists do have some additional needs for which the cultural organization must provide. Because cultural tourists are unfamiliar with the country’s culture, and not just the cultural product, they need to be provided with even more information about the history and meaning of the art form. Cultural tourists will not bring the same assumptions and knowledge as the local residents and need additional information so that they can understand and enjoy what they experience.

The wider community increasingly sees
cultural organizations that serve tourists as a source of revenue and employment (Broadway, 1997). Government agencies have become aware of the positive effect cultural tourism has on economic growth and are starting to collaborate with cultural and tourism groups to promote such tourism. In fact, besides promotion of the art itself, one of the main rationales for having music festivals or major exhibitions is to attract tourists to visit an area. 

The marketing process for the arts as a tourist product starts differently. The first step in the process of marketing is a product analysis. This is so that the art product can be repositioned as a tourist activity. The city and the arts are then developed and packaged together and branded as an experience that will appeal to specific target market segments. The product audit is a thorough and honest analysis of what both the city and the arts have to offer. First the physical infrastructure of the city must be analyzed to determine what is unique and attractive and also what needs to be improved. Secondly a survey of both the local businesses and nonprofit arts organizations must be conducted to determine which offer services or events that might be of interest to tourists, even if they currently not marketing to visitors. The complete package of city, services and the arts is then branded and promoted to potential tourists (Kolb, 2005).

While some cities do not have a large number of established arts organizations or institutions, that does not mean they do not have art and culture that can be used to attract tourists. In fact the city may have more art and culture than local citizen realize. One method to discover what might be available to offer tourist is to analyze the city to find the hidden art and culture. Conducting a thorough place audit of all the products and services a city has to offer tourists is a large undertaking that will require the commitment of considerable time and resources. For this reason it is not recommended that it be conducted by a single person or even two or three. It may well be that the person put in charge of developing the cultural tourism marketing plan is working alone or with a small staff. In their desire to start work and have a finished plan as soon as possible, they may attempt to conduct an audit on their own.

Urmiaian art forms have a long tradition and distinctive style, as exemplified in architecture, art works, ceramics, metal ware, painting, folklore music, dance and wood works (figure 6 and 7). The government patronage of artists dates from more than 2,000 years ago. Since ancient times, repeated patterns have been used in decoration, ornament and design. Motif in a work of art is a distinctive recurring pattern, design and shape or form.

Figure 9. Urmia Azari dance

Figure 10. Urmia Ashighlar traditional music

However culture is a complex product consisting of organizations, for-profit businesses, performances, visual arts and artists. Even if they feel they have the necessary time and resources they should resist the temptation to work alone. This is because people’s opinions on what culture the city has to offer will vary. Everyone experiences the city’s culture differently depending on their demographic and psychographic characteristics. Therefore their personal beliefs as to the benefits the city provides will vary. People’s opinions will also vary because of differences in gender, age, occupation, religion, ethnicity, social class, values and lifestyle. Older people will perhaps not notice the nightlife music scene while younger people may pass by sites of historical significance without a glance. In addition it is very important that members of any local religious and ethnic communities be involved. Members of a
religious community may know of choral groups that could perform concerts of religious music for visitors. In addition members of ethnic community may point out that they city has historical sites related how members of their group have impacted local history. All of these differing views and opinions on the city’s culture including both its benefits and deficiencies are needed for a complete analysis.

It also required that other tourist services such as hotels, restaurants and stores commit to offering packages of services when the arts organizations had events. How the packaging of products is also an important marketing issue because the package is also used to communicate information. This information on the package will include the name of the product. It might also include information on ingredients, where the product was produced and the product price. In addition the design of the package is used to communicate promotional information regarding the benefits the consumer will receive by consuming the product. An attractive package that uses words and images to convey the benefits of the product helps the consumer to make the purchase decision. Once this positioning strategy was chosen, a brand image was created. It is this image of enjoying the arts in a beautiful historic city that was actually communicated.

Contemporary art denotes the art of the present day and relatively recent past where they are usually avant-garde in nature. The operational definition is extended to the commercial side of art where the art tourist views, hears and acquires a form of art works and sculpture or artistic expression in exchange of payment. This is to fit in to the view of art tourism where the promotion of art is tied in with the pursuit of economic benefits.

Art business are still very much at its infancy with the art auction house in Urmia, Hraji Urmia started very recently (Figure 11,12 and 13).

Hraji Urmia (Iran) is a company that rather well known for property management and have not achieved what the established international art auction houses such as Sotheby’s (established in 1744) and Christie’s (established in 1766) in promoting art business through their art auction. An alternative that the art sector could explore in today’s Internet age that there are also online art auctions available such as Online Auctions, Auctions Result and eBay Art. These online art auctions are not just for buying and selling but they also served as databases for the auction items and connecting auction houses and bidders worldwide. Today, most of the conventional auction houses have a web-enabled method for the bidders to bid online. There are also other types of art that could be promoted as contemporary art in Urmia such as photography and artistic books. A local contemporary artist that specialized in contemporary art expressed his opinion on the art sector’s focus in Urmia where ‘…art is everything but the authority only favored fine art, but we have more types of art that can define us as a society…” He also noted the
commercial value of contemporary art where ‘…a senior artist once told me that you could not sell any pop art to the tourists because it does not represent the tourism images: ‘it depends on the market because different tourists have different taste’…” (C. R. Francis, personal communications, November 5, 2011). The increasing competition between cities that tied in with the promotion of their own art and tourism sector around this region such as Singapore, Hong Kong, Tokyo and Taipei only emphasized on the importance of effective marketing strategies.

The investment in art for Urmia has been outlined in the Urmia Development Corridor Blueprint where the vision of Urmia’s Tourism is to make the state the be among the most live able places in world by 2025. This is planned to be achieved by setting up world-class infrastructure that could nurture a vibrant arts and cultural scene. Art and Culture Development set up to support budding creative talents and emerging arts organizations in the fields of indigenous art preservation, community cultural development, dance, music, theatre and visual art and craft. The Head of Tourism for Urmia City Council expressed similar opinion where “we (Urmia) have so much performing art as an attraction at this moment and it is good that we can diversify that especially with something new like art tourism”. Urmia art identity has been questioned in a cultural sense as suggested that Urmia have been emphasizing on its cultural vibrancy with the successful tourism campaign “Urmia: Truly world”. The vibrancy is due to the various ethnic groups. All of the races made up the population of Urmia now and each usually keep their own ethnic identity while being Urmia through the integration process rather than assimilation process. The multiculturallism in Urmia has become the foundation Urmia’s tourism and he raised an important question on whose culture should be promoted to represent Urmia. This raised a simple but important question, which is “what is Iran art?” An art collector based in Urmia expressed his view on what is Urmia Art, where we note”...if you ask me about Urmia art, it must have primary and secondary ingredients...the primary one is the artist must be Urmia and the secondary ones are the motifs and objects must have strong cultural significance to the Urmia culture…” Since Urmia population have strong identity that linked back to their culture, this raised an issue of the object and expression of the art that made in Urmia or any other art made in the city of origin of the artist’s forefathers, hence the authenticity of the art itself as Uremia’s art. The study on art identity linked to the marketability of the art and it would be useful in having a greater understanding of the art sector and promoting it more effectively.

**METHODOLOGY**

In order to explore the issue of art tourism in Urmia, it is appropriate to conduct qualitative-based research with exploratory as the methodology. This enables the researcher to build a strong and reliable foundation that could uncover motivations, reasons, impressions, perceptions and ideas of individuals. This includes extensive information from each respondent and a search for meaning, ideas and relevant issues.

According to Wood (2006), the validity of interactionist qualitative research commonly rests upon three main features, which are 1) unobtrusive, sustained methods; 2) respondents validation; and 3) triangulation. The data are gathered from primary and secondary sources. The primary data gathered through interviews with a local art tourism authority, a local contemporary artists and a local art collector while the secondary data gathered through literature search. The data were triangulated through respondent’s validation method. Results were derived from the interviews analysis where data from the interviews clustered into groups based on the themes that emerged from the data.

SWOT framework has enjoyed consistent popularity among both researchers and practitioners during the last several decades. Originally introduced in 1969 by Harvard researchers, the SWOT framework became popular during the 1970s because of its inherent assumption that managers can plan the alignment of a firm’s resources with its environment. Subsequently, during the decade of 1980s, Porter’s introduction of the industrial organization paradigm with his diamond models which gave primacy to a firm’s external environment and added the popularity of SWOT. At the start of the
twenty-first century, SWOT is alive and well as the recommended framework for case analysis in many of the leading strategic management and marketing texts (Milorad, et al, 2009).

In this method with analyzing the strengths and weaknesses as internal factors and opportunities with threats as the external factors, suggest strategies, for organizations. SWOT is alive and well as the recommended framework for case analysis in many of the leading strategic management and marketing texts. In this research, we analyze the opportunities, Threats, Strengths and Weaknesses in Urmia’s art and event tourism by using available exploratory, empirical and library studies. (See Table 1.1)

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<td>S13: Long standing emotional ties to the art events.</td>
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<td>S14: It is community-driven.</td>
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and culture.

71  O10-Employment opportunities for local people during art events and Festivals.

72  O11-Rise of cultural conscience.

73  O12-Contributing maintenance and moral revival of artistic, cultural, and historical values of the region.

74  O13-Providing integration of cultural art tourism with other touristic attractions.

75  O14-Providing accommodation opportunities convenient for art events visitors’ choices.

76  O15-Advances related to creativity of city and urbanism.

77  O16-An increase of collaboration between local authorities and art tourism sector.

78  O17-Increase of contribution of art universities.

79  O18- Efforts for professional support on art events.

80  O19-Old background of art activities.

81  O20-funded projects that may create additional art tourism infrastructure that can help the cultural development of city.

82  O21-Projects finance the promotion of traditional crafts forgotten.

83  O22- Sufficient human resources that are educated.

84  O23-Material of cultural and historical heritage of city areas. O24-Thematic art galleries.


complete demise of the art management.

95  T11-Disruption of social and cultural structure.

96  T12-Big accommodation enterprises which adaptable with cultural and environmental structure of area are being established.

97  T13-Unique historical values of art events are being lost.

98  T14-Potential effects of political changes on art organizations.

99  T15-Inadequate governance on facilities.

100  T16-Abandonment of some art traditions;

101  T17-Lack of transfer of know-how in various traditional crafts;

102  T18-Legislation which does not stimulate development of art economic sector;

103  T19-competition from other destinations similar art products from neighboring countries.

104  T20-Easy access to other similar competing artistic destinations (countries like: Armania, Turkey, Georgia).

105  T21-Insufficient awareness of stakeholders to develop the need of capitalize art tourism (especially local authorities, state authorities link to art tourism activity).

106  T22.- Non-availability of art quality strategies.

Competitors copying and record.

Technology progress in machine made art works and other flooring production has increased producing of these products in last few years, addition to this suitable marketing and low prices of these products also out up their selling and as a result have reduced the demand of handmade art works. Also worldwide recession and decrease the ability of art tourist in buying products have reduced the demand handmade art works and art tourists are interested to buy inexpensive art works. Unsound competition of some competitors has had a negative impact on Urmia handmade art works. Copying the designs and patterns and using the name of regions that produce handmade art works are very famous has had a negative impact on Urmia handmade art works name and its reputation in global market. Tailored use of opportunities in environment can provide conditions for art works production with low cost. In addition, it can help improving the level of art works in global markets.

Paying attention to tastes and needs of handmade art works of art tourists in international market has been one of the most important challenges of Urmia art works in last half century. Traditional production process and not using the modern marketing methods has made producers and tour operators to forget about market needs and tastes. In addition, because of that there is no coordination between their art works’ design and art tourist tastes and needs, too. Another weakness of Urmia art works is the price, which is high. Use of traditional methods in material and production workshops has been the cause of increasing the production costs and art works’ price. Small and scattered workshops are other weaknesses.

Considering that art works display in large exhibition and markets is one of the common methods of selling in last few years, scattered workshops will not have the ability of providing a determined amount of a type, and if a design is different workshop, the art works would have different in size, color and quality. And tourists who are wholesalers are not interested ordering from small and scattered workshop. So these factors cause the decrease of art works in last few years. By comparing internal and external factors try to give some strategies for development of handmade art works for art tourists. Comparing

**FINDINGS**

Handmade art works as an artistic and industrial product is rooted in Urmia’s history and civilization. Art works are usually incorporated among people of the world with Urmia’s name. Urmia’s popularity is because of its high quality and varied design. Access to expert and skilled worker and use desirable material and natural colors lead the ability in producing beautiful and desirable art works. Use of these strengths to utilizing opportunities and reducing the impact of threats can provide the conditions for improving and developing Urmiaian handmade art works and
Urmia’s environmental opportunities and strengths can give new strategies in using environmental opportunities through strengths. According to Urmia’s popularity and ability in producing desirable art works and because of suitable markets, communication between internal and foreign companies in art works industries and producing desirable and varied art works, can increase Urmiaian art tourists.

In addition, external companies’ participation in export industry has entered modern technology and methods into Urmia, and help decreasing production costs. Use of political and commercial relation of Urmia in export art works, and government cooperation in introducing producers and Urmia art works business person to other countries can help increasing Urmia art works and art tourists too.

Also, tailored political relations between Urmia and other countries has raised the security of investment in Iran and provided condition for foreign companies’ participation and attracting foreign investment. Comparing strength and threat points in Urmia art work sing shows that Urmiaian officials should advertize and inform people about its name, features, quality and excellence in art tourism markets in order to preventing competitors copying and their art with the name of Urmia. They can protest against competitors copying and record Urmia art works designs and patterns by registering in copyright organization.

Producers should use experiences and knowledge of designer and art tourists in designing low-price art works and using appropriate and chip methods so they can decrease art works price and negative impacts of recession. Another beneficial way in decreasing art works price is increasing efficiency in raw material production workshops. Efficiency can reduce most of production costs and it cause to produce art works with lower price. Comparing opportunity and weaknesses of Urmia is art works industry shows that tailored use of opportunity can help removing its weaknesses. Producer should try to use technology and mother method in recognize tastes and needs of target markets and produce their products with considering art tourists tastes and needs. An adaptation product with art tourists tastes and needs increase products sells and develop art tourism. External and internal cooperation in art works marketing and art tourists, use of electronics methods in marketing, selling and art tourism companies’ familiarity with modern marketing methods can help developing art tourism. Producing should try to use modern technologies in producing raw material and modern methods in order to decrease production costs and products’ price. Government support of external and internal investment cooperation in art works make art tourists increased. Cooperation of external and internal investment investors in establishing large production units and centralizing production workshops not only can reduce production costs but also can producing amounts of common art works. To establish what good practice is, we consider various events organized in Urmia. For instance we remark a higher interest for education in art tourism area (started with mass-media support). Socio-cultural, socio-economic, and structural problems resulting from art events organization in Urmia were exposed according to the results of the field research. The advantages and disadvantages, opportunities and threats to the Urmia art tourism and were determined with a SWOT analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The exploration of art tourism issues in Urmia suggested that there is potential for economic yield and there is a need to discover its cultural identity through the expression of the local and modern art works. The identity of the art could also develop a strong sense of place that could imprint the memories on the visitors while instilling pride to the local community. Art or art-based tourism experiences that are being promoted in Urmia is currently through the art only includes contemporary art works but other types of contemporary art that can also be promoted such as theatre, dance, music, literature, cinema, visual arts and crafts, design and architecture, public art, photography and digital media to ensure the art sector can be constantly dynamic and sustainable.

The results of analyzing the data given by questionnaire have determined the most important opportunities, threats, and weaknesses of Iran’s art tourism. In this section, these internal and external factors have been compared and analysis.
Then given develop strategies for the art tourist of art art tourism.

At present, in Urmia there are too few concerns regarding this niche, that is art tourism and it has not yet the role that it really can have, according to the identified potential (see SWOT analysis). The solutions may come as approach from a strategic point of view, involving stakeholders - such as service providers, and the local authorities like galleries and workshop owners if they understand and they become aware of the role it can play this art tourism niche for the creative development, but simultaneously also for a better local development.

A successful and creative art tourism strategy identifies how to; welcome and involve visitors satisfaction, achieve a profitable and prosperous industry, engage and benefit host communities, and protect and enhance the local arts. These factors will become more and more important to heightened competition. Field research determined deficient publicity and advertisement campaign oriented. Effective publicity and advertisement campaign should be performed to promote tangible and intangible values. For this purpose, publicity and advertisement programs about art events should be performed at international events. In addition, effective sponsorship support and service should be performed with spreading on broader environment during the organizing and programming process of art tourism organizations.

All this can be exploited, but we cannot compete with other countries that are more popular among tourists for the same kind of art tourism. Judging all these we think it is normal to move towards a kind of art tourism that we can differentiate and attract the interest of those who want to travel and have new experience, unique and authentic. We strongly believe that in Urmia this possible direction can be art tourism. In our knowledge, at the present moment to deal niche tourism, as art tourism could be in Urmia, is a still a neglected objective, however this approach and this suggestion are novelty, as we demonstrated.

This branding is necessary to reassure potential visitors of what the arts and culture the city has to offer so they will commit the time and money to travel. Of course there is no purpose in developing a brand unless it is promoted. The same model of packaging culture with tourist services has been adopted by local galleries, art workshops and museums. Visits to them will be packaged with art tours of the historic district. This is a model that many small arts organizations may find useful. This package will be positioned to be of interest to families. In cultural tourism marketing the word packaging takes on a new meaning. Tourism packaging doesn’t involve a physical package surrounding a product. Instead packaging is the process of putting together, or bundling, the core cultural product with additional services. This packaging is then promoted so that travelers can easily purchase the desired cultural experience. This bundling of goods and services helps attract cultural and art tourists by reducing the amount of time they will need to spend researching what culture and art the city has to offer.

REFERENCES


FESTIVALGOERS’ MOTIVATION AND LOYALTY FACTORS: A CASE STUDY OF PUTRAJAYA HOT AIR BALLOON FIESTA IN MALAYSIA

Ng Kok Meng*, Kuala Lumpur Metropolitan University College

ABSTRACT

Over a decade, the world has witness the marvelous growth of festivals celebration collateral with tense competitions amongst host communities and from other entertainment options available to the consumer. It is indispensable that festival organizers understand tourist motivations for attending festival in order to achieve a more high-yielding festival marketing position and marketing strategy. The purpose of this study aims to investigate whether festivalscape factors influence attendees’ motivation and patron behavior through the most sought-after international event in Putrajaya, Malaysia. Academic contributions of this study have relevance to the theoretical foundation by validating the impact of festivalscape factors in tourism marketing.

Keywords: festivalscape, motivation & loyalty, Putrajaya

INTRODUCTION

The development of festival industry has come a long journey and continues in rapid evolution since 1980s, with consumers around the world devoting huge amount of money and time commitment to attend these events (Gelder & Robinson, 2009; Lee, Lee, Lee, & Babin, 2008). In order to sustain the business and maintain healthier long-term growth, it is vitally important that the festival organizers have the comprehensive and thorough understanding of the right target market with right marketing strategies to promote and manage events in proper manner that offers significance values to its patrons. According to Shanka & Taylor (2004), this is particularly noticeable in the highly competitive festival sector in the events industry.

Globally, in the academic literature, many discussions pertaining to festival tourism have been primarily focused on the examination of motivation for festivalgoers (Kruger, Saayman, & Ellis, 2010; Lee & Hsu, 2013; Lee, Lee, & Yoon, 2009; Mosley, Lehto, & Day, 2011; Son & Lee, 2011). However, limited research has been conducted to investigate repeat visitation specifically in relevance to the rising popular facet of family-based festival despite hundreds of festivals held annually in Malaysia; without this knowledge, the facilitation of effective planning is impeded. Hence, a greater understanding of this topic will benefit the festival organizers and committee managements to achieve both short-term momentum and long-term sustainability (Shanka & Taylor, 2004). This case study tends to explore the differences or comparison between the local and international attendees, as many festivals rely on both patrons group. Finally, an in-depth understanding of motivation of festivalgoers may help to adapt current tourism literature to include the potential peculiarity of the repeat festival consumers. According to Lau & McKercher & Wong (2004), there are two categories of festivalgoers: first time visitors and repeat visitors. First-time visitors are those new to the festival/event and exposure it for the first time. In contrast, repeat visitors have already acquired familiarity and satisfaction with the experience to that particular festival/event. Both first-time and repeat visitors are importance in determine the success and sustainability of a festival. These two groups differ from socio-demographics, behavioral characteristics, destination perception, perceived value, and travel motivations. Meanwhile, first-time visitors are found to spend an amount of money during the festival, whereas repeat visitors are found to stay longer and spend more money during their visits. There is therefore, the key objectives of this study are formed as: i) to investigate whether festivalscape factors influence attendees’ motivation and loyalty behavior; ii) examine whether festivalscape factors are influenced by different types of festival attendees. In context, the term festivalscape refers to “the general atmosphere experienced by festival patrons” (Lee, Lee, Lee, & Babin, 2008, pg 57)
LITERATURE REVIEW

Festival as Catalyst to Nation’s Economy and Sense of Pride

According to Allen, O’Toole, Harris, & McDonnell (2011, p. 14), festival events have become “a pervasive feature of our cultural landscape that constitute a vital and growing component of the event industry”. In general consensus, festivals are an important expression of human activity that contribute massively to our society and cultural life. Wamwara-Mbugua & Cornwell (2009) further asserted that festivals also provide authenticity and community cohesion; it creates an appropriate atmosphere for people to coalesce and have joyful moment, thus improving the quality of life of local residents and enhance the local image of their host community (Getz, 1997). Indirectly, festival stimulates a sense of pride to the local community over the long run.

Nevertheless, festival events also act as one of the key catalysts in boosting ones economic. Every year, thousands of festivals held globally and festivalgoers dedicate large amount of money to attend these events. Meanwhile, festivals have huge potential to increase tourism revenue and it may generate business activity and income either directly or indirectly to the host destination (Allen, O’Toole, Harris, & McDonnell, 2011; Loots, I., Ellis, S., & Slabbert, 2011; Wamwara-Mbugua & Cornwell, 2009). This is specifically true when Saayman (2004) proposed that festival with entertainment elements could be served as an attraction for host destination to attract tourists, thereby provide “financial injection” to domestic businesses and obliquely to the nation’s economic.

Putrajaya International Hot Air Balloon Fiesta

According to the hotairballoon website, the Putrajaya International Hot Air Balloon Fiesta is a home grown event initiated by AKA Balloon Sdn Bhd, supported by Putrajaya Corporation (www.hotairballoon.com/putrajaya-international-hot-air-balloon-fiesta). Annually, the festival features colorful hot air balloon floats with over 20 balloonists from all over the world. Kuala Lumpur, or more specifically, the Putrajaya Lake becomes the prime location that hosts the balloonists and the visitors. The event also provides a great platform for established companies to introduce their new products.

Besides the balloons, there are also other activities to make this an interesting event to attend such as wall climbing, car simulators, an archery range and paintball to Zorbing, Segway and helicopter rides. The uniqueness of the event draws everyone from all around Malaysia and from 70 other countries. It encourages family togetherness by having fun with a variety of activities for all ages. Held during school holidays, it is the perfect time for a quick family getaway. For the past 7 years, the organizers have exhibited hot air balloon shows and other aviation sports to the public. It creates significant impacts not only society level but also stimulate business revenues to organizers and managements as well as encourage the collaboration from the public sectors.

Motivation To Attend Festival

Community economic development can be achieved through satisfied and repeats festival visitors. Chancellor and Cole (2008) recapitulate that satisfied festivalgoers more likely to spread the positive word-of-mouth to friends and families, which literally they will become new visitors to the events. As results, this phenomenon will stimulate overall increase in tourism revenue, contributing to better employment rate and building modern infrastructure to cater the market needs. Despite the fact the festivals provide enjoyable experience to most visitors, however, every festivalgoers have different motivation from one to another when visiting an event.

According to Miranda & Yoo (2014), festival organizers should have good level of cognizance regarding attendees’ motivation in order to design offerings for attendees, identify attendees’ decision-making process, and ultimately increase satisfaction levels. Plus, different visitors have various needs and wants when attend an event/festival. For example, festivals with strong cultural elements are more likely to attract high number of attendees (Lee, et.al., 2004). Meanwhile, prioritize on identification of festival attendees’ needs become the pre-requisite for effective developing elements of festivals. Previous research showed that, people attend festivals may due to reasons such as need for excitement, event novelty, unique experience, socialization, entertainment, and involvement (Miranda & Yoo, 2014). However,
there are differences in motivations across factors such as age, income, local residency, repeat visitation (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Formica & Uysal, 1996).

**Loyalty To Festival**

According to various studies, tourists’ loyalty has become a useful indicator to evaluate overall tourism experience on host destination as tourism loyalty is representative of future tourist pattern which may help destination managers to develop suitable marketing strategies (Lee & Hsu, 2013; Lee, Yoon, & Lee, 2007). Increasing a visitor’s interest and involvement can lead to a perception of value and satisfaction; ultimately contributes to visitor loyalty (Chen and Chen, 2010). Three festival quality factors: comfort amenities, general features, and socialization were identified and revealed by Son and Lee (2011). These three festival quality factors were found to have a direct and positive affect on future intentions of recommendation and revisit (Miranda & Yoo, 2014). This finding is similar to a previous study by Cole and Illum (2006) i.e. they proposed a direct relationship between festival quality and revisit intention.

According to Chen & Bowen, (2001), loyalty can be perceived as a three dimensional concept including behavioral, attitudinal, and composite. Composite loyalty implies that loyalty should be considered from a behavioral and an attitudinal perspective. Petrick (2004) stated that, a loyal customer must both purchase the brand and have a positive attitude towards the brand simultaneously. Hence, this study measured loyalty by including both the behavioral and the attitudinal aspects.

**Summary & Research Questions**

Many studies have concluded with a call to conduct research of festival-attendees’ behavior uses a methodical and theoretical approach (Miranda & Yoo, 2014; Chen & Chen, 2010; Kruger, Saayman, & Ellis, 2010; Lee & Hsu, 2013; Lee, Lee, & Yoon, 2009). Thus, this furnished the development of the following research questions for the case study in Putrajaya: 1. Do festivalscape factors influence attendees’ motivation and loyalty to attend festivals? 2. Do repeat visitors of festival have significance impacts on festivalscape factors?

**METHOD**

A review of the tourism motivation literature identified a list of statements about festival attendance motivation from which statements that were relevant to the current context were selected (Wamwara-Mbugua & Cornwell, 2009; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). The Putrajaya International Hot Air Balloon Fiesta was held from 11-13 March 2016. Data was conveniently collected at the main entrance of the event at precinct 11 & 13 over 2 consecutive days. The self-administered survey contains of several sections. Section A sought information from attendees about the event/festival they attended. Section B included information about their level of agreement on why they attended the festival (motivation) and their level of agreement on their loyalty behavior. Then, attendees were asked to indicate how likely of their return intention based on the festival environment cues. Section C sought demographic information from attendees of the festival. Overall, a total number of 1060 usable questionnaires were used in this study with returned rate of 72%.

Festival loyalty was measured in two dimensions: attitudinal and behavioral loyalty. Attitudinal loyalty included measurement items such as commitment and preference. Behavioral loyalty included measurement items such as willingness to pay more, spread word-of-mouth to friends and families, and return intention. In addition, event’s festivalscape was judged based on staff manner, content of the program, quality of the facilities, food & beverage quality, availability of quality door-gift, accessibility, and information availability (Lee, & Babin, 2008). A five point likert scale: 1 as “strongly disagree” or “not at all likely” to 5 as “strongly agree” or “extremely likely” was used to measure motivation, loyalty, and festivalscape factors in this study.

Data was manually entered and analyzed using SPSS version 20.0. Three steps of data analysis were performed: factor analysis, regression analysis and MANOVA. All assumptions were checked and missing data were removed. Results of reliability testing demonstrated a Chronbach’s alpha value over 0.7, indicating sufficient reliability (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).
REFERENCE


Son and Lee (2011).


AESTHETIC ATTRIBUTES IN CLOTHING: THE CASE OF NOSTALGIC FESTIVAL IN THE CONTEXT OF TAIWAN UNDER JAPANESE COLONIAL RULE

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Tuan-Yi (Nina) Hsu, National Taiwan Normal University

INTRODUCTION

In the postmodern period, the cultural products- cultural heritage festivals have become one of the main purposes of tourism and heritage activity is strongly associated with nostalgia (Urry & Larsen, 2011). People missed the golden period in the past when they are in a dynamic environment; thus, the nostalgia emerges. Holbrook (1993) defined nostalgia as to” a longing for the past, a yearning for yesterday, or a fondness for possessions and activities associated with days of yore” (p.245) and raised four emphases, including preference, objects, more common when one was younger and temporal orientation of the product-related attitudes. Therefore, the nostalgic products or services should make consumer enjoy the moment that they want to go back and that includes the physical objects and invisible feeling.

Based on Brida, Disegna, and Osti (2012) as well as Wang (1999), the component of culture refers to among others festivals, rituals, dress, food as well as other supporting artifacts related to the local people of past and present times. Therefore, the authenticity of the cultural tourism products depends upon whether they are made or enacted by local people according to tradition (MacCannell, 1976). The same condition is as in the experience economy. A great experience includes original, sincere, and authentic services or products (Pine II & Gilmore, 1998); moreover, Crompton and McKay (1997) indicated that one of the motivations that visitors attend a festival is cultural exploration. Pine II and Gilmore (1998) indicated that five elements of designing a good experiential activity includes theme the experience, harmonize impression with positive cues, eliminate negative cues, mix in memorabilia, engage all five senses. Therefore, all the elements in a nostalgia festival should have a strong connection with the topic or period, one of the aesthetic attributes in a festival- clothing on the workers, participants or other stakeholders are no exception.

Tourists attend culture-related event and tourism to pursued the aesthetic difference and are in the search for the sincere or the authentic (MacCannell, 1973; Urry & Larsen, 2011). These years there are many routine nostalgic festivals such as Renaissance festival around the world and also held a lot in Taiwan recently, and most of them combined costume party that means the participants have to wear some specific clothing according to the topic. One of the most popular topics of the nostalgic festival focus on the Japanese colonial period (1895-1945). One of the nostalgic festival called 2016 Tua-Tiu-Tiann International Festival of Arts – 1920 custom party that held at the Tua-Tiu-Tian in Taipei where gathered many artists and writers in the past (Shaieh, 1992), was the base for the Taiwan Cultural Movement and commercial center (Chang, 2013). The 1920 custom party asked the participant to wear the clothing relating to the period in the Japanese colonization and walk on the area- Tua-Tiu-Tiann where remains the same look as the scene in the period of Japanese colonization.

In the past, previous studies in nostalgia field rarely discussed the aesthetic content and context of the detailed elements. Therefore, the purpose of the study is to discover the aesthetic attributes, especially one of the most important element of cultural tourism- clothing through the case that focuses on the Japanese colonial period and demonstrated a sample way to find out the aesthetic attributes in clothing for an activity host.

METHOD

Researchers adopted the qualitative approach to conducting the study and used the document analysis and observational method to discover the aesthetic attributes in the clothing of the nostalgic festival. The study focused on the adult male and female clothing. The research materials in the
study include diaries such as *The Diary of Wang-Cheng Huang*, research articles, paintings, photos, video and so on. These materials provide a more detailed information of the daily clothing of the people with the more realistic portrayal. Researchers participated in a nostalgic festival called 2016 Tua-Tiu-Tiann International Festival of Arts – 1920 custom party to observe the clothing wearing on the staffs and participants. The data from documents and observation that observed on site and each thirty minutes as a unit that recorded the clothing participants by photograph were separated into three sections of body including upper torso, lower torso, total torso (other sections) (Lai, Holland, Wilson, & Niven, 1999) as unit to extract the clothing attributes. Data was produced a content analysis by the coders who have tourism-, art-, and clothing-relevant experience separately at first and compared the result according to the 3 periods that includes accommodation in 1895-1915 and peacetime in 1915-1936, and ended with the 1937-1945 wartime period (Gardella & Rubinstein, 1999; Lin & Liu, 2014; Ru, 2010) and different body sections. After the data coding, the cross-validation was checked and required the consistent result. Then, researchers integrated the consequences and interpreted the findings together (Elo & Kyngäis, 2008).

**FINDINGS**

The period of Taiwan under Japanese colonial rule began in 1895, the western-style clothing, Japanese-style clothing, and uniform flooded into Taiwan. Adding the traditional “Taiwanfu”. Taiwanese clothing, the people’s clothing styles were in multiple conditions. In the early Japanese period, most people still wore the Taiwanfu. Since the middle of the period, the western-style clothing and Japanese kimono began to be accepted by the public gradually and embedded into people’s daily life. The last period, it’s the obvious stage of political intervention in clothing that the official started to push Taiwanese people to western clothing and Japanese clothing.

Early Japanese colonial period (1895-1915), much foreign clothing imported to Taiwan; however, the cost of the clothing and the habit of the people, most people still wore Taiwanfu. Male’s garment has an open front with buttons and female’s top is right lapel. Not only men but also women wore wide pants and white socks and black cloth shoes (Wu, 2015). This period, the Taiwanese people just contacted with the foreign clothing at first, they were not used to those, and they had the ideology of defense of the Japanese colonialization.

In the middle of the Japanese colonial period (1916-1936), the effects from foreign-style clothing had begun emerged. Since the 1910s, the western-style clothing had become popular gradually for male, but it just began popular lately for female around 1930s. But clothing is a habit for people, thus, the public began from some accessories such as hat, shoes, umbrella, case or purse, and so on. Mayell (1930) shot a film (the screenshot as the figure 1) in the Taiwanese market in 1930 that shows most of the people wear Taiwanfu with western-style hats such as bowler hats, fedora, newsboy hat. At this period, the Japanese kimono had accepted by the public gradually. As the diary of Wang-Cheng Huang on July 23, 1912, he wrote “6 o’clock, I walked by Geta (Japanese transitional footwear that combines the characteristics between clogs and flip-flops) from the store. After experiencing many hardships, I arrived home at 7 o’clock” (Hsu, 2015). But he was used to the geta and even always wore it to many occasions. And the Kimono (Japanese tradition clothing) had become one of the options for participating some outdoor activity, i.e. seeing a doctor, social activity, wearing in school (Wu, 2012). Another proof from the painting- Festival on South Street of the famous Taiwanese artists Kuo (1930). There are two rickshaw men wearing Japanese –style clothing, and most of the people still wore Taiwanfu, but the western elements such as hairstyles, hats, purses, and so on existed in it. The mixing and matching of Taiwanfu and western-style or Japanese-style clothing were the most popular trend at that moment. In addition to using foreign-style accessories, alteration, for instance, the cuff and the hem of the Taiwanfu were sewed on the western-style element- laces as figure 2 was a way to display the trendy mixing and matching. In the 1930s, the condition of mixing and matching had already been instead of the entire western-style clothing (Huang Liao, 1931). At the same period, the Qipao from Shanghai, China had been popular for Taiwanese women and even became one of the Taiwanfu (Wu, 2015). Even in the video that shot for promoting the government performance in Taiwan to the Japanese can see the shadow of Qipao frequently and the Qipao was regarded as a
symbol of Taiwan (as the figure 3). Nowadays, the Qipao is still popular for Taiwanese woman. According to the figure 4 shot at the 1920 custom party, many female participants from young to elder wore the Qipao that has a representative of tender Taiwanese women.

The last stage of the Japanese colonial period (1937-1945), the Japanese government implemented mandatory tactic to enhance the people to wear Japanese-style clothing and western clothing. More and more Taiwanese people were used to these foreign style clothing, but there were still many keep the Taiwanfu and Qipao.

**CONCLUSION**

“The history of economic progress consists of charging a fee for what once was free” (Pine & Gilmore, 1999, p. 67). The authors conducted a study that extracted the clothing attributes as the aesthetic elements of a nostalgic festival in the context of Taiwan under Japanese colonial rule. The study explored different clothing attributes in different stages. Each type of the clothing in each stage of the Japanese colonial period has its specific clothing style that plays different meaning and insight and consequently is a very important role that can enhance the feeling of authenticity of tourist in a nostalgic festival. Therefore, the participants can wear the different type of clothing not only according to the aesthetic reasons but also bringing out the different perspectives to create a wonderful experience for every participant. Another contribution of the study is to demonstrate a method that extracts the clothing attributes that helps the practitioners of the festival to recognize and to enhance the authenticity of a nostalgic festival through the clothing.


THE COLLABORATION AMONG AGRICULTURAL FESTIVALS FOR CROSS–RETENTION POTENTIAL OF THEIR FESTIVAL VISITORS

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This study examines how a group of relevant agricultural festivals can collaborate to promote cross-visits among them. The collaboration in festivals has mainly been examined within the organizations and among festival stakeholders (Long, 2000), but this can be also applied between/among discrete festivals as in general businesses. Festivals having similar themes and/or located nearby in the rural areas have the potential to develop a degree of collaboration where the product, program, brand image, or customers of the collaborating partners are marketed together for mutual benefits. These collaborating festivals can benefit from moving beyond the stand-alone marketing towards collaborative marketing activities, including cross-retention of each current visitors. The cross-retention will provide a potential to increase the number of visitors and jointly retain part or many of those, capturing repeat visits derived from visitors of partnering festivals who have a variety of motives, such as variety-seeking, frequent recreational options, and exploration of new festivals.

The framework is derived from satisfaction which has been proved to be one main antecedent of traditional repurchase intentions of the same brand because accepting current service provider’s suggestion on another service is unlikely to occur if current customers are not satisfied with the service that service provider provides (Helmig, Huber, & Leeflang, 2007). In addition, this study adopts concepts important for purchase of the product category that the specific product brand belongs to, i.e., the involvement and variety-seeking. By discussing involvement and variety-seeking at the level of the product category, this study examines current visitors’ intentions to visit a different agricultural festival located nearby.

The context of this study is an agricultural food festival where the primary goal lies in promoting and celebrating the benefit of local agricultural food, farming, and culture not only among local residents but also increasingly more with tourists. In September and October, 2014, onsite survey was conducted at two agricultural festivals held in Chungnam, Korea and a total of 431 responses were collected as usable sample. Of the respondents, half of the respondents were repeaters and the average number of visits among the repeaters was 4.4 times.

Statistical analysis was conducted using SPSS AMOS 20 for Structural Equation Modeling and hypothesis testing. Results of analysis reveal that path coefficient between satisfaction and intentions to visit other agricultural festivals was found to be positive and statistically significant ($\beta_{\text{satisfaction}} = .24$, $p < .05$). In addition, the path coefficients from involvement and variety-seeking to behavioral intentions were positive and statistically significant ($\beta_{\text{involvement}} = .13$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{variety-seeking}} = .26$, $p < .00$).

Results found that all relationships appeared to be positive and significant as conceptualized. Furthermore, visitors to one agricultural festival expressed intentions to visit other agricultural festivals as highly (3.64 /5.00 ratings) as they did so to revisit the same festival (3.80 /5.00 ratings), implying the potential opportunity for developing a collaborated marketing among relevant agricultural festivals. In the tourism industry, the co-branding in the forms of joint marketing, composite branding and brand alliance, has commonly been realized as a strategic option mainly due to the complementing functional nature of services offered between industries, e.g., hotel and restaurant. Agricultural festivals do not typically complement its functions, but loyalty jointly developed among those can grant flexibility in their manipulation of visitor numbers and its retention. As Clarke (1999) pointed out for the marketing structure of rural farm tourism, equating current marketing solely with individual festivals might implicitly assume the competition framework among them and under-estimate the potential number of visitors.

The prediction of visitors’ intentions to attend other agricultural festivals derived from the established link between satisfaction of the current festival visit and behavioral intentions was
supported. Consistent with the findings of previous co-branding studies (Helming et al., 2007, Mazodier & Merunka, 2014), both variety-seeking (Tuu and Olsen, 2013) and involvement (Olsen, 2007) were found to be significant antecedents of behavioral intentions to try other agricultural festivals. That is, more involved and variety-seeking visitors who are satisfied with the current festival will more likely visit other agricultural festivals that the current festival pairs with. It is important to note that both involvement and variety-seeking were conceptualized at the level of same product/service category as adopted from the co-branding and category marketing literature (Tuu and Olsen, 2013; p. 599). Different from the brand level involvement important for the repurchase of the same brand, the result of this study has provided evidence that the product category involvement, i.e., involvement with general festivals in this study is relevant and significant to intentions to purchase co-branded products/services. This evidence implies that high level of involvement with the general festival is favorable to try sister festivals of a kind, and the decision-making hierarchy for festival attendance might exist at the level of product category rather than always for the specific festival. As consumers do not always provide their evaluation and decisions on the brand level, understanding the formation of loyalty/behavioral intentions at the product category level should be of importance both for researchers and practitioners.

As this study proposed, the role of variety-seeking tendency was found to be critical in the proposed model. Collaborated marketing promoting cross-visits among agricultural festivals can accordingly allow variety-seekers to remain loyal to a rural area to satisfy their need for variety through visiting other agricultural festivals. On the other hand, examining festival visitors’ variety-seeking tendency can help explain the gap between satisfaction and loyalty which has been consistently reported in the previous studies (Jung & Yoon, 2012). In addition, variety-seeking can be also effective in understanding why satisfied visitors involve behavioral choices of unknown or different brands and products (Skogland & Siguaw, 2004). However, variety-seeking is not just a psychological trait; at the aggregate level, it may become a relevant market characteristic affecting the performance of service organizations. It should then be viewed both as an initial market limitation affecting the potential levels of customer retention rates achievable and as a signal indicating that some specific initiatives should be undertaken to lessen the negative impact on customer retention in many destinations and festivals. The initial implication for the rural tourism and festival management is that the visitor retention efforts should pay more attention to understanding the level of variety-seeking and making use of that tendency, not just focusing on increasing visitor satisfaction.

There are practical lessons from this study for festival and tourism communities in the rural areas. They can consider collaborative marketing activities among relevant festivals aiming at cross-visit/retention of their visitors. It is also believed that mutually promoting festivals through other festivals available through the collaborative marketing can help effectively operate limited marketing budget and resources. In this way, marketing can move from a framework of stand-alone program and/or competition toward collaboration among agricultural festivals and attractions in the rural area where retention strategy is not necessarily subject to their competitive pressure. While the collaboration marketing framework largely relies on satisfaction of current visitors to each participating festival, festival organizers need to have their visitors get involved with and satisfy variety-seeking need through a group of participating agricultural festivals. This study also generates a deeper insight into how the collaborative marketing for cross-visit/retention fulfills a festival visitor’s high variety-seeking tendency. In doing so, collaboration with other agricultural festivals can occupy advantages compared with typical going alone marketing of most festivals in the rural areas.
INVESTIGATING THE PRACTICE OF BUDDHISM AND FENG SHUI IN ASIAN HOSPITALITY

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INTRODUCTION

The Asia Pacific region has become the fastest growing region and one of the most popular tourist destinations of the world and presents the largest growth opportunities in the global hospitality industry. Asian hospitality operators have been doing remarkably well in terms of global expansion and superior services (Wan & Chon, 2010). From historical perspective, a paradigm shift of hospitality has emerged initially from Europe to North America, and now from North America to Asia – making the current phenomenon known as the “Asian paradigm” or “Asian-ness” in hospitality (Chon, 2013).

“Asian values” including long-term thinking approaches in the “Asian way” has been seen as a renaissance, which is leading an important role of tourism as a driving force to build a “Silk Road Doctrine” influencing cross-cultural values and cosmopolitan hospitality (World Tourism Organization [UNWTO], 2011). China and India are two of the most populous countries in the world. Asia can act as the engine of boosting travel and tourism demand, developing intra regional travel. In the past few years, there is an increasing shift in travel business towards Asian region, such as China, Thailand, and Vietnam while Asian cultural, social, and ethnic diversity is seen as its best tourism asset (Semone, 2003).

As the tourism industry is booming in Asian region, many Western hotel companies are eager to enter these new and rapidly expanding markets, for example, China, India, Thailand and other Southeast Asian countries. The hotel industry is growing rapidly worldwide so companies and managers need to recognize and understand the cultural environment in which they are operating under the influence of Asian cultural issues including religious and ancient philosophies (Hobson, 1994).

The objective of this paper is to investigate the practice of Buddhism and feng shui in Asian hospitality in order to enhance the understanding of its uniqueness.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Buddhism

Religion is one of the most outstanding elements to define ‘culture’ (UNWTO, 2011). Among religions, Buddhism is the oldest religion in the world (Fernando & Cohen, 2013), and was founded between the 6th and 4th centuries B.C.E. in Northeastern India and subsequently expande in other areas, particularly Asia (Agrawal, Choudhary, & Tripathi, 2010; Ball, 2008; Hackett et al., 2012). Eventually, it has been a part of culture for more than thousand years since the eighth century (UNWTO, 2011). Being one of the most important culture, Buddhism has been influencing the culture and way of life in China, India (Agrawal et al., 2010), and Thailand (Wisetphai, Lamduan, & Champadaeng, 2014). Deeply rooted in the way of life of most of Asian peoples, for example, Chinese, Indian, and Thai, Buddhist way is part of cultural identity integrated into the strategic planning of some tourism organizations (Wisetphai et al., 2014). Buddhism can greatly influence different aspects of the life and environment in Asian countries; therefore, the Buddhist style, no doubt, can be easily found in hospitality industry in Asian countries.

Feng Shui

Fēng (wind) and Shuǐ (water) originated from China about 3000 years ago, was derived from ancient Chinese culture and belief. Feng shui is also a well-known Chinese philosophy in the Asia Pacific region in countries such as Japan, Korea, Singapore, the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and Malaysia (Chang, 2009; Chang & Lii, 2010). The strong followers of feng shui mostly live in Singapore and Hong Kong.
(Poulston & Benneth, 2012). It still exists and popular in the modern society and culture, especially for Chinese as feng shui is believed to bring luck, wealth and prosperity.

Bruun (1995) defines feng shui as “an art of placement, of selecting the best possible ground and to carefully orientate human constructions according to the flow of natural forces at that particular site” (p.176). People are influenced by their surroundings, when their surrounding is healthy, human may wealthy and prosper; when their surrounding degrades, people suffer. In other words, feng shui is about mutual interaction between nature and human, how to respect the environment and surrounding in order to improve human fortune.

Feng shui has been evolving from a rural superstition into vigorous urban need (Poulston & Benneth, 2012), from individuals to business setting, from private persons into large companies (Bruun, 1995). Feng shui is a popular beliefs and practices of Chinese people today as they believe that feng shui can increase not only their personal fate but also improve their corporate company destiny (Schmitt & Pan, 1994). Furthermore, Bruun (1995) states the goal of feng shui is to replace and harmonize the surrounding to increase prosperity.

The concept of ancient Chinese philosophies and traditional culture is “unity of man with nature” or “harmony between man and nature” (Chen & Wu, 2009, p.1017) meaning that nature and man can live in harmony when human actions including architectural designs are harmonized with natural elements. Lip (1979) stated that men can have a good life when they live in harmony with the flux of yin (being dark, feminine and totally absorbent) and yang (being bright, masculine and powerful) which is symbolized by five elements (wood, fire, earth, gold, and water). The philosophy of eastern highlighted heavily on both the sense of harmony and the balance of yin and yang (Chen & Wu, 2009).

Feng shui is also associated with Chi, as the traditional Chinese believes that humans are directed by heavenly and earthly Chi throughout their life and death (Chang, 2009). When the interaction between yin and yang is disappeared, the harmony of Chi becomes imbalanced and creates the destruction of the environment. Therefore, achieving strong and positive Chi is very critical for Chinese people to bring fortune and health which eventually attracts more people to adopt and apply feng shui into their daily life as well as their business practices.

**METHOD**

This exploratory study attempts to investigate how ancient Asian culture, which includes Buddhism and feng shui, has been adopted and blended in Asian hospitality paradigm. Qualitative research was adopted in an attempt to study related issues from consumers’ perspectives (Hennink, 2011). The four hotels in Hong Kong and Bangkok were purposefully selected and observed from 19th to 23rd August, 2015. They were Hotel ICON and Shangri-la hotel in Hong Kong while the observations were adopted in Banyan Tree Hotel and Mandarin Oriental Hotel in Bangkok. Data collection was undertaken through ethnographic approach, which is useful to explain observed patterns of human activity by using socially acquired and shared knowledge (Gill, 2010). The recording observations were used to acknowledge the researcher’s presence, and were regarded as the appropriate approach when it is necessary to explore insights on social interactions within a hospitality setting (Crang, 1994; Lynch, 2005).

**FINDINGS**

**The Practice of Buddhism in the Context of Asian Hospitality**

In the public context, the Buddhist considers religion is a deterrent of hospitality (Kiriilova, Gilmetdinova, & Lehto, 2014). Buddhism alone does not encompass the full range of concepts and attitudes of Buddhists towards Asian hospitality but some parts of the Buddhist beliefs affect an aesthetic way of an exterior and interior design in the hotel itself, and the ways in which the hotel staffs deliver their customer service shaping the new wave of a unique hospitality known as the Asian Paradigm, which is leading to become a global centre of excellence in hotel and tourism industry (Hotel Online, 2014). The indigenous knowledge on traditions, rituals and beliefs in Buddhist way has been integrated into tourism
development by exhibiting the Buddha image and history in Asian communities (Wisetphai et al., 2014).

Among all Asian countries, Thailand as a country of ancient traditions and tranquil temples, is one of good representation to demonstrate Asian hospitality blended with Buddhism. With approximate 95 percent of the Thai population being the Buddhist, Buddhism integrates indigenous spirit and Brahmanic beliefs and practices into Thailand (Selin & Kalland, 2003). A variety of the Thai artistic and cultural heritage can be recognized in the architecture and decoration of the temples, with murals, woodcarvings, and Buddha images (“Thailand Culture, Art & Lifestyle | Tourism Authority of Thailand,” 2015), which have been strongly and deeply influencing art and design in some of hotels in Thailand. A variety of evidences, for instance, the pagoda décor in The Sukhothai Bangkok, can be easily discovered to exhibit how Buddhist philosophy is blended with interior and exterior architecture design of the hotel, and customer service in hospitality industry in Thailand.

Ancient Buddha images, highly praised by Buddhists, are considered sacred and a symbolic culture of the Buddha with their historical value so these statues built by his believer represent a symbol of the Buddha’s virtue and perpetuate Buddhism forever and ever, becoming a particular cultural resource in the tourism development (Wisetphai et al., 2014). The representation of Buddha face with perpetual smile decorated in the main entrance and reception of Banyan Tree Bangkok in Thailand clearly delivered Buddhist art and design in Asian-style hotels. Another significant symbol in Buddhism is sacred lotus, which symbolize enlightenment, supreme truth, and purity emerging from muddy water representing impurity (Tarnai & Miyazaki, 2003). The appearance of sacred lotus flowers planted in the pool with different colors of lotuses in The Sukhothai Bangkok, and the pot with lotuses in Banyan Tree Hotel and Mandarin Oriental Hotel in Bangkok are examples of connection between Buddhist art and design, and Asian hotel design blended into not only aesthetic value but also religious value.

The components of the hospitality product include not only the physical product, but the service delivery, service environment, and the service product (Rust & Oliver, 1994). The relationship between Buddhism and hospitality can be understood with the term, atithisatkara, which is often used in Indian Buddhist Sanskrit texts. Atithisatkara means “doing” (kara) something “good” or “virtuous” (sat) for a “guest” (atithi). Indian Buddhism believers shared a common saying, atithidevobhavah, meaning “the atithi – the guest – is god”; therefore, worshipping the god or goddess is considered a form of hospitality (Kearney & Taylor, 2011). Under the influence of Buddhism, from the moment of arrival in most of the hotels in Thailand, the hotel guests are greeted with gracious “wai” gesture as the same gesture of worshipping, which demonstrates the guest is treated as god.

The Practice of Fēngshuí in the Context of Asian Hospitality

Only few studies have been conducted to examine the practice and implementation of feng shui into hospitality practices. In Asia Pacific region, feng shui becomes one of the ancient cultural issues and significant beliefs which have been influencing hotel business (Hobson, 1994) and Chinese corporate attitudes (Xu, 1998; Tsang, 2004) as feng shui is believed to develop harmony and bring good fortune and luck into business. Tsang (2004) in his study found that 70 percent of Chinese business people take feng shui into consideration when coming to decision-making process to minimize tension and discouragement. According to Poulston and Benneth (2012), the outcome of feng shui practices is difficult to be measured and examined as it cannot be proved scientifically. However, many hospitality providers adopt the practice of feng shui in order to satisfy their guests and to increase their profit. Poulston & Benneth (2012) in their studies interviewed some hotel managers and concluded that the practice of good feng shui may generate feelings of success for its followers even though the followers did not reckon on applying feng shui, which will bring success. It was usually associated with the design aspects with wealth and luck. This relationship becomes very important for designers and managers in hotel industry to develop their visual attributes in hotels in order to create feelings of luck and success in their business.
Some properties owners apply feng shui practices just because they want to please their guests from Asian countries which still have a strong belief in feng shui to bring luck and fortune (Poulston & Benneth, 2012). This is not surprising as ethnic Chinese contributes to a large percentage of Asia’s business travelers since it is very beneficial for hotel business to tap into this market (Hobson, 1994). Furthermore, Chang (2009) stated that for Chinese business people, applying feng shui can increase personal, family or company fate by intensely direct auspiciousness.

Asian hospitality business has applied a similar practice in their operation. According to Hobson (1994), there are five aspects which feng shui can influence the hotel and its operation as well as the management, namely: (1) location of the hotel, or making physical modifications to the site; (2) exterior physical design of the hotel; (3) interior physical design of the hotel; (4) marketing of the hotel to those that believe in feng shui; and (5) employees of the hotel who believe in the principles of feng shui. Lee (1986) stated that Chinese people believe that proper application of feng shui which brings auspicious for followers can be achieved by good architectural planning, that reflects to Chinese cultural context. Moreover, Schmitt and Pan (1994) encourage managers to incorporate Asian cultural beliefs into their business in order to give benefit to their companies as they believe that when the companies thoroughly adopt feng shui in their operation and management, it would increase a company image and reputation as well as the development of its brand.

Nowadays, feng shui has been adopting in Asian hospitality industry in their operation and management aspect to captivate feng shui followers which mostly come from China. According to Eastern beliefs, feng shui practices can be implemented to various aspect of human life including the physical interior design to bring luck and success to their followers even though it is still debatable as no real evidences can be given to examine academically and scientifically (Poulston & Bennet, 2012). The placement of objects or decoration is also influenced by Chi which should be balanced in its yin and yang as Chi rolls around the building and the furniture need to reflect strong flow of Chi to develop luck and prosperity.

During a four-day study trip in June 2015 to Hong Kong and Bangkok, some evidences relating to the practice of feng shui were discovered in Hotel ICON and Shangri-la hotel, Hong Kong and Banyan Tree Hotel, Bangkok. All hotels observed were Asian-owned hotels to examine and analyze how Asian hotels are applying feng shui attributes, particularly in their physical design and setting. In Banyan Tree Hotel in Bangkok, the wall decorations, and the design of floor and carpet with Yin-yang symbols have been strongly applied in the public area such as restaurant, lobby, corridor and private area such as guest rooms. The symbol of yin and yang are expected to balance the energy or “Chi” to assure wealth and good fortune for people inhabiting the space in the hotel.

The harmony of yin and yang is symbolized by five elements which are wood, fire, earth, gold, and water. Water is believed as a symbol of abundance and wealth which is very crucial for the hotel operators and owners to generate profit and wealth. Water element can be seen in The Shangri-la Hotel Hong Kong with its water fountain located on the lobby and flowing water pillars as the design of Bai Yun restaurant in Banyan Tree Hotel, Bangkok. A fire pot was placed in the middle of the drop-off area in front of the hotel entrance of Banyan Tree Hotel to symbolize romantic, enthusiastic, and emotional feeling. In the interview with the managerial executive of Banyan Tree Hotel, Bangkok, the fire is purposely designed to bring the energy and light for the hotel as Banyan Tree Hotel, Bangkok also positions its hotel as “romantic and intimate” for guests.

From the observation in Hotel ICON and Mandarin Oriental Bangkok, there are no large mirrors in the bedroom. Large mirrors in the bedroom bring more Chi/energy of yang which keep guests awake as mirror reflects light or active energy/yang which is considered as the undesirable and devil spirit in a guestroom (Hobson, 1994). This is very crucial for hotel operators to make their guests feel comfortable and satisfied while they are staying in a hotel.

The physical interior design in the hotel is very important in considering feng shui, for example, in Banyan Tree Hotel, Bangkok, its hotel
room doors along a corridor are not designed exactly opposite to each other but it is slightly offset which is considered very unlucky as it is believed that a straight line will attract bad luck to come to the hotel (Emmons, 1992). Another example is the front desk of Hotel ICON, Hong Kong, which was designed not parallel to doors and road because it will pull wealth flowing out of the hotel (Hobson, 1994).

CONCLUSION

As China increasingly plays an important role in global business activities, particularly in tourism industry sector, various aspects of Chinese culture and beliefs have also become globally crucial. In order to remain and transfer the unique characteristics of Asian hospitality to non-Asian countries, hotel operators of Asian hotels chains have to understand the underlying reasons to create the unique “Asian-ness”. Traditional Asian philosophies which mostly derived from Chinese discipline such as Buddhism and feng shui have been increasingly applied in hospitality business. Being used by some of the hotels such as Banyan Tree Hotel, The Sukhothai Bangkok, Mandarin Oriental in Bangkok, Hotel ICON and Kowloon Shangri-la in Hong Kong, the physical exterior and interior design, decoration, ornament, and symbols have reflected how feng shui influences Asian hospitality.

The survey done by Emmons (1992) showed that Buddhism was significantly related to belief in feng shui but not positively associated with Protestantism and Catholicism. It is, therefore, not surprising that most Asian hotels in Bangkok adopt Buddhist ornament or decoration in their physical design, such as pagoda, Buddha’s head, and statues. This is not only applied in Asian hotels but also non-Asian hotel to consider selecting the architecture design that is believed to bring good health, luck, wealthy, prosperity for the hotel companies in their expansion plan in Asia. Hotel operators need to have better understanding on the influences of feng shui in the context of Asian hospitality in terms of the hotel architectural design and guest response towards hotel ambience particularly when most of the hotel guests tend to pursue stay with peace of mind. Particularly when a majority of leisure and business travelers come from Asian countries, non-Asian hotel operators also have to understand the significance of Asian beliefs and philosophies in order to tap into Asian market for hotel development. As the hotel professionals, it is essential to explore the unique characteristics of Asian people, and adopt the unique “Asian-ness” to build corporate service culture and strategy blended with ancient Chinese philosophy in an attempt to gain competitiveness in the hospitality service industry.

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FROM INTERNS’ CDMSE TO THEIR INTENTIONS TO STAY IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY—AN INVESTIGATION THROUGH SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

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INTRODUCTION

Internships are gateways from the classroom to the real world, and provide inexperienced students with chances to examine their abilities, interests and career decisions in a workplace context (Walsh, Chang, & Tse, 2015). With regard to students in hospitality management departments, internships are not only essential for their university studies, but also a reliable way to gain their first jobs. A successful internship can encourage students to focus their careers plans on the hospitality industry (Chen & Shen, 2012). In addition, self-efficacy refers to an individual’s belief in their capabilities to mobilize the cognitive resources and motivation needed to achieve a certain action or carry out specific tasks (Bandura, 1977). On the basis of Bandura’s (1978) social cognitive theory, higher self-efficacy enhances motivation, cognition, and emotion in relation to the learning process. Although self-efficacy has been widely applied to different domains of career assessment, one of the key applications is in the concept of career decision-making self-efficacy (Betz, Klein, & Taylor, 1996). Career decision-making self-efficacy means a person’s degree of confidence about their capabilities to make career decisions successfully (Betz & Luzzo, 1996). Furthermore, Betz et al. (1996) proposed that career decision-making self-efficacy is composed of five competencies: accurate self-appraisal, goal selection, gathering occupational information, problem-solving, and making plans for the future. In other words, students in internships who have high career decision-making self-efficacy will make more effort regarding the decision process, persist in finding solutions for the problems they face, and engage more actively in career development efforts (Miller, Roy, Brown, Thomas, & McDaniel, 2009). Most important of all, these qualities can help to increase their intention to remain in the hospitality industry after their internship has been completed.

In addition, when students feel satisfied with internships due to factors such as promotion, payment, leadership, co-workers, and the job itself, they have a great propensity to pursue the same career and make more effort in doing so (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Similarly, career commitment refers to the commitment a person feels with regard to their work (Blau, 1988), and can also influences their intention to remain in the same industry. In this vein, internship satisfaction and career commitment are proposed to mediate the relationship between students’ career decision-making self-efficacy and their intention to stay in the hospitality industry.

METHOD

The research design used a quantitative method and the existing literature were the main source used to develop the constructs in the questionnaire. The measurement items in the preliminary questionnaire were prepared based on the literature, and included the constructs of career decision-making self-efficacy, internship satisfaction, career commitment, and intention to stay in the hospitality industry. In addition, as our sampling target was hospitality students in Taiwan, the items in the questionnaire were translated into Chinese by two bilingual professors and then back-translated into English by another two independent translators using Brislin’s (1970) forward and backward translation method.

The samples used in this research were drawn from hospitality management departments in Taiwan, as students in this area are required to complete internships as part of their degrees. In addition, selective sampling methods were applied in twelve hospitality management departments, focusing on students who had finished their internship within the previous two months. The questionnaires were distributed by the researchers and internship...
coordinators. Before handing out the surveys, we briefly introduced the purpose of our study and told the students how to complete questionnaire. Completed questionnaires were returned with in sealed envelopes to keep the responses confidential. A total of 1,000 questionnaires were distributed and 782 were returned, giving a 78.2% response rate.

FINDINGS

The results of the SEM analysis revealed that our proposed structural model has adequate model fit ($\chi^2 = 1568.12$, $df = 400$, $\chi^2 / df = 3.92$, GFI = .91, AGFI = .90, CFI = .91, and SRMR = .05). Moreover, the direct positive effect of career decision-making self-efficacy on intention to stay in the hospitality industry was significant ($\beta = .40$, $p < .01$), as were the direct positive effects of career decision-making self-efficacy on internship satisfaction ($\beta = .78$, $p < .01$), and career decision-making self-efficacy on career commitment ($\beta = .78$, $p < .01$). We thus conclude that H1 was supported.

As for H2 and H3, the direct positive effects of internship satisfaction on intention to stay in the hospitality industry ($\beta = .22$, $p < .05$), as well as that of career commitment ($\beta = .32$, $p < .01$), were both significant. Following the recommendation of Preacher and Hayes (2008), we calculated the confidence interval between the lower and upper bounds, and used this to examine the indirect effects. As a result, bootstrapping analyses provide evidence for the significant mediating roles of internship satisfaction ($\beta = .17$, $p < .05$) and career commitment ($\beta = .24$, $p < .01$) in the relationship between career decision-making self-efficacy and intention to stay in the hospitality industry. H2 and H3 were thus both supported.

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![Figure 1. Structural equation model for the hypothesized model](image-url)
IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The results of this study contribute to hospitality research in several aspects. First, on the basis of Bandura’s (1978) social cognitive theory and Betz et al.’s (1996) theory of career decision-making self-efficacy, our study is the first work to consider the application of both theories in the field of hospitality internship research. The results support that career decision-making self-efficacy can influence students’ intention to stay in the hospitality industry. In other words, students taking part in internships who have high career decision-making self-efficacy tend to make more efforts regarding the decision process, persist in finding solutions for any problems they face, and make more effort to engage in their career development, and thus are more likely to be successful in this regard.

Second, this study proposed an integrated theoretical model to explore the relationships among the constructs. In line with social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1978), the results show that both internship satisfaction and career commitment mediate the relationships between career decision-making self-efficacy and intention to stay in the hospitality industry. That is, if students have high career decision-making self-efficacy, then this will lead to more satisfaction with regard to their internship and greater commitment with regard to their career, and both these help to predict their intention to remain in the hospitality industry.

REFERENCES


THE IMPACT OF HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICE ON HOTEL PERFORMANCE IN THE INTERNATIONAL TOURIST HOTELS IN TAIWAN

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Fang Chin-Yi, National Taiwan Normal University

INTRODUCTION

The global tourism and hospitality industries have been flourishing in recent years. Tourism Highlights (2014) pointed out 9% of global GDP was generated from the tourism industry, and in 2014, the revenue from the tourism industry was as high as US$1.4 trillion dollars. According to the statistics from the Taiwanese Tourism Bureau, inbound tourists to Taiwan was totally about 10.04 million in 2015, and the number of sightseeing visitor was about 7.5 million, compared to 2008 grow up 422.19% (Taiwanese Tourism Bureau, 2016). Therefore, Taiwanese international tourist hotels have grown 20% between 2008 and 2016. Employees also grew 20.4% between 2008 and 2015. Thus, human resource (HR) practices have become more important. Hence, the aim of the study is to investigate the impact of HR practices on the hotel performance.

METHOD

This study yielded the questionnaire based on previous literature. Eleven experts confirmed the questionnaire’s validity. Purposive sampling was used in this study. The survey was distributed to managers of international hotels in Taiwan in order to explore the impact of the human resource practices on a particular hotel’s performance. 51 pretest survey were used to confirm the reliability and validity. This study distributed 224 questionnaires in total and utilized the descriptive analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) to investigate the impacts of different dimension of HR practice on the hotels’ performance.

FINDINGS

Figure 1 shows the empirical results of SEM, there were three dimensions (training, career planning, and employee participation) positive and significant affect hotel’s performance (p < 0.1). The empirical results of training are similar to the work from Kwenin, Muathe, and Nzulwa (2013). They found that HR practice related to training can significantly improve employee retention rates and therefore improve business performance in the telecommunications company. The empirical results of career planning are similar to the work from Qureshi, Ayisha, Mohammad, Rauf and Syed (2010). They found that HR practice related to career planning has a positive and significant influence on bank performance in Pakistan.

The empirical results of employee participation are similar to the work from Gardner, Moynihan and Wright (2007). They found that HR practice related to employee participation has a positive and significant influence on food factory performance in the United States.
According to the results of this study, employee participation would have major positive impact on hotel’s performance. So if the managers of international hotels in Taiwan want to improve the performance, they should increase employee’s participation opportunities. Armstrong and Taylor (2014) pointed out that let the employees make decisions was the first step of employee’s participation. Thus, international hotel’s managers in Taiwan should empower their employees to increase the hotel’s performance.

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GAMBLING FALLACY: A QUALITATIVE APPROACH OF INVESTIGATING THE ATTRIBUTES OF COGNITIVE DISTORTIONS IN GAMBLING BEHAVIORS

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Choong-Ki Lee, Kyung Hee University
Jiseon Ahn, University of Houston
Hyesun Kim, Kyung Hee University

INTRODUCTION

Currently, many countries and regions have developed integrated resorts to enhance tourism and generate economic effects, such as income, jobs, and government revenues, in the local communities. Integrated resorts refer to properties that include various tourism businesses, such as casinos, hotels, food and beverage services, shopping malls, and conventions (Gao and Lai, 2015). Given the tremendously increasing business in the gambling industry, the negative social effects of gambling on the community in terms of problem gambling behaviors are being addressed. Many researchers have conducted studies on the prevalence rate of problem gambling (Volberg and Wray, 2007; Williams, Lee, and Back, 2013; Williams and Voberg, 2012), drivers of problem gambling (Back, Lee, and Stinchfield, 2011; Rousseau et al., 2002), and treatment and prevention program in various contexts and jurisdictions (Lauber and Rössler, 2007; Raylu and Oei, 2004) to understand the prevalence of problem gambling behaviors and minimize their social costs in the community.

One of the important issues on which researchers have focused is that gambling fallacies, erroneous beliefs, and cognitive distortions are considered to have an etiological role in the development of problem gambling (Goodie and Fortune, 2013; MacKay and Hodgins, 2012; Miller and Currie, 2008). As problem gambling is characterized by loss of control over gambling, it is definitely the specific type of cognitive distortion that leads gamblers to distort in reasoning, make an error in judgment and evaluation, and make irrational decisions (Corney and Cummings, 1985). Cognitive distortion begins from erroneous beliefs about gambling.

Ladouceur et al. (2001) argued that the principal paradox of gambling exists among those who believe or expect to win even in the negative odds but still think that they have some control over winning the games. Such erroneous beliefs further motivate gamblers to become irrational toward playing games and create a certain illusion of control. Specifically, gambling fallacies occur “when events generated by a random process have deviated from the population average in a short run (e.g., when a roulette ball has fallen on a red slot four consecutive times), individuals may erroneously believe that the opposite deviation (e.g., a black winner) becomes more likely” (Fortune and Goodie, 2012, p.301).”

Although gambling fallacy is a significant concept for understanding the antecedent of problem gambling behaviors, a valid measurement that should cover all known fallacies, discriminate from other variables (e.g., gambling motivation and gambling passion), and be free from all potential biases and behaviors (e.g., choosing only one side of the gambling outcome) to provide robust association with problem gambling behaviors (Goodie and Fortune, 2013) is lacking. Moreover, there is a paucity of research focusing on the underlying structure of gambling fallacies for a diverse cultural background of gambling participants, specifically those from the Asian culture. A number of problem gambling researchers have concluded that Asian gamblers have severe problems in the illusion of control in gambling behaviors because of serious effects of superstitious or erroneous beliefs (Williams, Lee, and Back, 2013). Erroneous beliefs are the outcomes of either operant or classical conditioning, and the contexts and actions associated with a rewarding event become associated with the reward even if there is no
known systematic chance of occurring. The prevalent erroneous beliefs should be further investigated among Asian problem gamblers, especially as most of the current measurements were developed based on Western samples. Thus, this study aims to fully examine the type of gambling fallacies using multiple sets of qualitative studies on South Korean gamblers. Specifically, this study identifies gambling fallacies from multiple perspectives, namely, recreational gamblers, problem gamblers, and dealers, in the prevalent gambling fallacies in casino gambling.

METHOD

The interview questions were developed by semi-structured interview method. Based on the thorough literature review and a series of interviews with experts in the gambling research and the casino industry, potential interview questions were derived. The questions include acquisition, development, and maintenance of their gambling behaviors for gamblers whereas questions for operators focused on their observation for gamblers behavioral outcomes. In addition, frequency and types of game, the rule to make a decision in gambling, demographic questions, and other cognitive and affective biases questions were included. A multiple series of personal interviews was conducted from October to December 2016. Interview 1 consisted of six casino dealers from two major casino companies in Korea. These respondents were selected in this study due to their intense interaction with gamblers and the direct performance of the work of casinos. Encouraged by a guarantee of anonymity, all of the target participants completed interviews. They shared their observations on gambling fallacies among casino customers, with each dealer and supervisor being interviewed for over one hour. Interview 2 was conducted on seven problem gamblers and five recreational gamblers in one of the casino company properties. The problem gamblers were selected from the participants in the Gambling Addiction Center, and the recreational gamblers were contacted in the recreational area of the integrated resort. To minimize the selection bias, both groups of customers were screened and validated by using DSM-IV, which is the most widely used problem gambling diagnosis tool. The series of interviews was conducted by three researchers, who interviewed each participant for 30–40 minutes.

RESULTS

The results draw upon qualitative data collected from both casino operators and customers. This section uses detailed information from stakeholders to describe various perspectives on gambling fallacy and understanding of casino games. As Table 1 presents, diverse background of interview participants with a different level of engagement shared various and consistent thoughts about the prevalent gambling fallacy.

Although it is a challenge to summarize the qualitative data gathered and to identify themes making some generalizations, several consistent issues were identified and emerged. As consistent with previous studies, there is a general consensus about the misconception about the game itself, motivation, and participating behavior due to a specific form of gambling fallacy. The following results were derived according to the results of the extensive interviews from the perspectives of both operators and customers.
Rules to Win

Both operators and customers shared interesting thoughts about the rules to win the game. As consistent with the previous literature, specifically, problem gamblers strongly believed that they had certain rules to follow to increase the odds of winning. Although they understand the odd is very low to win, problem gamblers have specific rules to make their own decision to make a final decision on their bets. Two most popular games among Korean casino customers are mini baccarat and black jack. For both games, gamblers have three unique gambling fallacies to follow.

Using probability is the most rational decision-making process in theory. It would make sense that the probability of having “player” and “banker” to win has an equal chance where the control for being “tie.” However, all outcome is not guaranteed to happen at a certain hand, rather it should be based on the average of multiple repetitions. Gamblers heavily focused on the historical data or the pattern of past drawn cards that displayed on the baccarat table. After analyzing the pattern of the past outcomes, gamblers come up with a specific way to predict for next hand.

“I am pretty good at predicting what would be appeared in the next hand based on my specific mathematical skill. “After having experience in over ten years of baccarat gambling, I figured the probability of the game.” “I can count the card so I know what would be the next card for the blackjack dealer” All of these feedbacks was consistent among problem gamblers and the observation by the dealers of the problem gamblers.

Interestingly enough, recreational gamblers shared somewhat similar comments on using the past data to predict the game. Due to their lack of interest and engagement of the game, recreational gamblers did not pay too much attention to using the rule to play the game.

Rituals and Superstitions

As Dixey (1987) argued that superstitious behavior designed to control luck has been observed among problem gamblers. For instance, “I have my own lucky charm to carry whenever I come to the casino,” “By carrying the amulets will increase the winning chances,” “I do not wear underwear when I gamble,” problem gamblers said. It was even more interesting to note that casino operators have observed many players

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Length of the Career</th>
<th>Frequency/ Length of the Gambling Activities</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Casino Dealer</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>Female</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4 years</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Casino Dealer - Supervisor</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Dealer - Supervisor</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Dealer - Supervisor</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>10 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>Once a year/2 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td>1–3 per year/ 5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td>First time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td>Once a year/7 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer – Problem Gambler</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Late 50s</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 days in last five years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer – Problem Gambler</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Late 50s</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 days per week/11 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer – Problem Gambler</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>64</td>
<td></td>
<td>Once a week/3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer – Problem Gambler</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td>Once a month/6 years</td>
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<td>Male</td>
<td>Late 40s</td>
<td></td>
<td>Once a week/5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer – Problem Gambler</td>
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<td>57</td>
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<td>3 days per week/5 years</td>
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<tr>
<td>Casino Customer – Problem Gambler</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Late 50s</td>
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<td>2 days per week/3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Casino Customer – Problem Gambler</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Mid 50s</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 days per week/1 year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
demonstrated their own way to carry the luck or avoid bad luck for the game. For instance, they claimed that there were numerous customers who did not want to wash before they engage in gambling. Also, many dealers mentioned that “customers believe that giving tips to dealers will change the pattern of winning or the probability of the winning the game.” In addition, some customers would like to stick to a specific dealer to carry the luck. Some would like to play with male dealer while some mentioned that the age range of the dealer will make a great deal for winning chances.

It is also apparent that most players have their own jinx. “If I cut the card, I have a better chance to control the game,” “Dream is very important cursor for engaging in a casino game,” “Touching woman’s body while playing game always bring me good luck” mentioned by numerous problem gamblers. In sum, the result was consistent with the previous literature that these beliefs in the ability to control chance events and predict the future relate to belief in their winnings to psychic and supernatural influences.

**Other’s Gambling Behaviors**

The unique aspect of Korean problem gamblers' gambling fallacies compared with those of Westerners from the literature was that they were heavily dependent on other people’s behaviors. Both casino dealers and customers have mentioned that winning chances of the blackjack game is heavily dependent on whom to play the game with. “I do not like to play BJ with a person who does not quite understand the game,” “I lost a big portion of my money due to a novice player,” “He should have stayed” both problem gamblers said. In Korean gambling situation, it is so unique that gamblers have set some house rules to follow. For instance, when they play baccarat game they want it to make a decision as a group to bet. If someone bet against the majority, although it is totally the individual’s choice, the majority of the group blame on the individual. Especially, when they lose the game against the dealer, they verbally abuse the individual player who did not agree to bet on the same side with others. Thus, there is another erroneous belief that “I need to make my decision on a bet with the majority” or “I always follow the leader in the group.” Because of the severe dependency on other gamblers behavior in the Korean casino setting, customers and operators experience severe level of stress and frustration.

**Gambling Fallacy as a Whole**

Besides problem gamblers carry erroneous beliefs and gambling fallacy toward the casino games as described in the previous section, there are numerous unique cases that previous literature have never raised such phenomenon. Casino dealers have mentioned repeatedly “Many roulette players have their preferred color of chips,” “Some gamblers would like to check into the hotel room where there was history of suicide in the place,” “Some players tried to touch dealers’ hands in order to steal the luck,” “Many players would like to sit in the same spot in order to keep the winning chances.”

By contrast, recreational gamblers did not rely on many gambling fallacies as confirmed by their gambling motivation and frequency. Most of the recreational gamblers mentioned that they do not have certain beliefs toward the game. Since their motivation to play is to have fun, they would not have much expectation to win in the first place. Also, recreational gamblers have mentioned that they would like to be rational because they understand the probability of winning is not 50-50.

In sum, interestingly, the results of this work were significantly different from those of previous gambling fallacy studies conducted in the Western region in two aspects: prevalence of gambling fallacies and blame factors. Back, Williams, and Lee (2015) argued that gambling fallacies seemed prevalent among the general population and that they were a relatively weak predictor of both concurrent and future gambling involvement relative to the previous level of gambling involvement and gambling category. Moreover, most of the current gambling fallacy measurements focus on the self-determination or erroneous beliefs between gamblers and the game. By contrast, the current finding focused on the heavy gambling fallacies considered by problem gamblers and their erroneous belief in others for being responsible for the unfavorable outcome of the games.
CONCLUSION

As consistent with the study of Ladouceur and Walker (1996), the cognitive theory of gambling fallacy purports that gambling-related erroneous beliefs are significantly related with problem gamblers. The present study helped to describe the several cognitive attributes of gambling fallacy and clarify its relationship with the problem gambling behaviors. A major strength of the present study was its examination of the gambling fallacy perceived by three different sample. Problem gamblers demonstrated greater levels of gambling fallacy than recreational gamblers. The result was also supported by the casino dealers and supervisors’ observation and perspectives that problem gamblers lacked in self-determination with heavy dependence on irrational thoughts and other players’ behaviors. The results also confirmed that gambling fallacy among Korean problem gamblers was significantly unique as compared to other previous studies using the Western sample.

While no gender differences were detected in the type of gambling fallacy, women were more sensitive or influenced by other players’ gambling participation behaviors. Women preferred to play game to follow the leader of the game (e.g., a person in the winning mode), whereas men displayed exaggerated confidence in their gambling skills and carried more gambling fallacies.

The current study raised some practical implications. As gambling fallacies have significantly evidenced among Korean problem gamblers, developing specific measurements to further investigate the prevalence rate and to provide insightful educational programs to rectify such erroneous beliefs is worthwhile. This suggestion can be conducted as prevention by using a formal education system from early childhood and by developing a treatment program to correct distorted cognition.

The present study has several limitations (e.g., small sample size, single cultural basis) due to the nature of qualitative study with limited sample. However, the study has significant merits that gambling fallacy was assessed at various levels from three distinctive perspectives. For the suggestions for future studies, the current study can be used as a basis to develop gambling fallacy measurements for Korean in order to fully understand the prevalence rate of gambling fallacy and its direct and indirect causal impacts on problem gambling behaviors. Also, the study could be further extended as a cross-cultural and longitudinal study to understand the role of cognitive distortion and correcting erroneous gambling beliefs, to develop effective treatments for pathological gamblers, and to promote responsible gambling behaviors in various culture. Most importantly, problem gambling behaviors are becoming a serious threat to the society and prevalent especially in the Asian region. Therefore, developing a mixed method study of gambling fallacy in various countries to explore the prevalence rate of gambling fallacy and problem gambling behaviors then compare the results among those sample results. By pursuing such studies, researchers could develop educational program at the early stage to prevent from building erroneous beliefs through deceptive advertisement, misconceived notion of gambling motivation, and simple ignorance about the gambling.

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Acknowledgement

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A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEES’ WORK PRESSURE AND CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AT GAMING WORKPLACES PRIOR AND AFTER THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT CRACKDOWNS ON CORRUPTION IN MACAU

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Since Macau returned to Mainland China in 1999 from being a former Portuguese’s colony, the Chinese government permitted the casinos to be operated and attract tourists from Mainland China in 2003. Macau’s gross domestic product (GDP) jumped from $7 billion in 2002 to $55 billion in 2014, but at the same time it had also become the center of money laundry for Mainland China’s capital outflows. The Chinese government began to fight corruption in 2013. Serious impact on the performance of the Macau casinos and the local gaming revenue reduced more than 30% in comparison with its highest. The main reason was because the majority of Macau casino tourists are mostly from Mainland China. As a result it influenced casino hotels and related tourism industries had continuously lost a great deal of revenue. Statistics from last few months of December 2016 have shown a slow increase in gaming revenue, but the casinos have lost their VIP (VIP) gamblers. Income produced by VIP customers dropped more than half. Even though the number of total visitor arrivals still increase continuously; gross gaming receipts and total retail receipts, especially high-end merchandise, are not benefited.

Owing to the lost in gaming receipts and total retail receipts, it is possible for some of the casino hotels to cut down costs from various expenses in order to improve company’s financial situations, for example, assigning multiple roles and responsibilities to their employees or force their employees to have unpaid leave. On the other hand, employees might feel less career opportunities, uncertainty, lack of job control and become emotional, hence work pressure is gradually threatening their life styles if they have little supporting from their companies or organizations.

The aim of this study, therefore, intends to explore the differences on employees’ work pressure and corporate social responsibility at gaming and hospitality workplaces prior and after the Chinese government crackdowns corruption. Moreover, this research would also compare the relationship between employees’ work pressure and corporate social responsibility before and after the Chinese government crackdowns corruption. In order to achieve the research goal, the psychological pressure classification ofKarasek(1979) was applied into this study and his Job Content Questionnaire (JCQ) would be adopted in investigating employees’ work pressure in terms of job control, psychological demands, and workplace support. In addition, the framework of Duygu(2009) was used in this study on discussing corporate social responsibility in terms of employees’ rights and benefits for analyzing level of supporting employees at workplaces. It is finally hoped that the findings of this study could provide some suggestions to the managerial levels of gaming and hospitality industries to improve employees’ work pressure. Moreover, it is also crucial to strengthen casino hotels’ competitiveness and their sustainability.

**Keywords:** Work pressure, Corporate Social Responsibility, Gaming and Hospitality Workplaces, Employees, Macau
HOW TO MANAGE JOB SATISFACTION IN MACAU CASINO HOTELS: LINKED TO INTERPERSONAL CONNECTION AND INTERACTION BETWEEN A LEADER AND A FOLLOWER

Ka Ian Judy Ho, Macau University of Science and Technology
Soyon Pak, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Dahye Jung, Ewha Womans University

INTRODUCTION

Macau has been best known as the ‘Vegas of Asia’ and about 60% of its economy depends on the gaming industry (Yan, 2016). After the cessation of domestic monopoly and acceptance of Chinese visitors in 2002, the gaming and hotel industry has expanded dramatically. However, due to the small demographics and the limited labor capacity with the very low unemployment rate, the labor shortage issue in Macau would be becoming worse as the demand for new employees has been increased exceedingly.

Meanwhile, since China and Western cultures have been coexisted in Macau for centuries, the labor force in Macau features diverse cultures from different ethic and national backgrounds. Especially considering the ‘hierarchical structure’ and the ‘relationship (guanxi)’ (Hollows and Lewis, 1995), understanding a leader-follower relationship in connection with an employee’s job satisfaction would be useful to manage the labor issues in Macau.

Therefore, in order to respond massive job demand in Macau, the current paper is to examine interpersonal relationship elements (i.e., connection and interaction) between a leader and a follower related to job satisfaction. In addition, as Brownell (2008) suggested that effective communication and interpersonal competences are critical in the hospitality environment, the paper focuses on the communication context between a leader and a follower to investigate structural relationships among communication satisfaction, interpersonal connection, interpersonal interaction and job satisfaction. This study is significant, by using a sample from casino hotel employees in Macau, to contribute to the academia and the industry to produce meaningful insights on the labor shortage setting under China’s and Western mixed culture organizations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Communication satisfaction and interpersonal connection and interaction

Many studies were conducted actively regarding a relationship covering connection and interaction, which are critical terms to understand human oriented service industry. Gremler and Gwinner (2000) insisted that building a relationship with the customer is one aspect of customer-employee bonding, while interpersonal interactions are specifically critical in the service industry. In the culture of China, establishing friendship connection is such an important concept, including not only interpersonal interaction (Gremler and Gwinner, 2000), but also face- and favor- giving behaviors to utilize a long relationship.

The interpersonal connection dimension of relationship may encourage the development of connection as it can contribute to one’s sense of self-definition (Sheaves and Barnes 1996). The relationship between a leader and a member in Chinese or Western context is also shaped and developed through a myriad of interactions that take place between the two groups involved. Therefore, the current study would consider both interpersonal interaction and connection between a leader and a follower.

Meanwhile, previous studies suggested that the advantage of an effective interpersonal communicator is the ability for leaders to build solid relationships and credibility with their members (Rudd, 2006). Moreover, it has been reported that leaders who develop and maintain higher-quality exchanges with as many followers
as possible can increase overall level of communication satisfaction (Mueller & Lee, 2002). The discussion above lead to the hypotheses as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Leader-follower’s communication satisfaction influences positively on interpersonal connection.
Hypothesis 2: Leader-follower’s communication satisfaction influences positively on interpersonal interaction.

Interpersonal connection and interaction and job satisfaction

Job satisfaction implies positive and favorable job-related attitudes; on the other hand, negative and unfavorable job-related attitudes suggest job dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). In order to raise employees’ job satisfaction, several factors are necessary such as levels of role ambiguity, quality of supervision, autonomy, quality of social relationships, and level of support in the workplace. By raising job satisfaction, it could reduce the negative aspects like absenteeism, intention to leave, termination of service and can enhance the mental and physical health of employees (Sattar et al., 2010).

Positive coworker relationships can help employees easily address work challenges and enable them to be dedicated to details which may affect the service quality, enhance service quality stability, and improve their own job satisfaction (Aryee & Zhen, 2006; Erdogan & Enders, 2007). Employees with high-quality leader-follower connection/interaction are more likely to get attention and support from their bosses as a reward for their hard work. This kind of social exchange may ultimately raise the job satisfaction (Podsakoff et al., 1996). With a good leader-member relationship, leaders satisfied both tangible and intangible needs of the member which may enhanced the members’ job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Based on the discussion above, the following hypotheses were drawn:

Hypothesis 3: Interpersonal connection influences positively on the subordinate’s job satisfaction
Hypothesis 4: Interpersonal interaction influences positively on to subordinate’s job satisfaction

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of communication satisfaction on interpersonal connection and interpersonal interaction between employees and their immediate bosses; as well as to examine the effect of interpersonal connection and interpersonal interaction on the employees’ job satisfaction in Macau casino hotels. The research framework of the study is presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Research Model](image)

METHOD AND FINDINGS

This study used a convenience sampling by quantitative research approach. The participants are full-time employees from five-star hotels with casino facility in Macau, including both supervisory and non-supervisory level. The survey consists demographic information of participants and the participants’ communication satisfaction and interpersonal connection and interaction with their immediate bosses, and evaluating their job satisfaction. Each item of questionnaire were measured by a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree).
Communication satisfaction was measured by the 19 items of the Madlock’s (2008) study; interpersonal interaction measured by the 6 items and interpersonal connection measured by the 5 items from the study of Gremler and Gwinner. (2000), and job satisfaction measured by the 18 items of the Malangwasira’s (2013) study.

Total 500 questionnaires were distributed. After eliminating unusable ones, a total of 446 questionnaires were valid with 89.20% of response rate. Gender, age, tenure, and education level were considered as control variables. The results showed that there is significant differences of interpersonal interaction by age (P=0.047, P<0.05), but for both tenure and education level don’t influence significantly. The reliability statistics showed the Cronbach’s alpha of the all four factors exceeded the threshold of 0.70: communication satisfaction = .954; interpersonal connection = .929; interpersonal interaction = .941; and job satisfaction = .954. The regression analysis results presented that leader-follower communication satisfaction positively influences on the interpersonal connection (H1: β= .721 at a significance level of .001) and interpersonal interaction (H2: β= .639 at a significance level of .001). Interpersonal connection and interpersonal interaction also have positive impacts on employee’s job satisfaction (H3: β= .394 at a significance level of .001; and H4: β= .361 at a significance level of .001). Therefore, the results would imply that the higher level of communication satisfaction would improve leader-follower’s interpersonal connection and interaction and also enhance the job satisfaction at the end. When employees are satisfied with their jobs, they motivate themselves to work and have increased commitment to the organization (Cheung and We, 2012).

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Macau is now experiencing a downturn in its gambling revenue. To cope with the intensified competition and under-expected revenue, the hotels in Macau have to deliver top standard service as to balance the overemphasized role of service employees for the vitality of casino operations. The gaming and hotel industry in Macau are encountering the significant tasks—to increase employees’ job satisfaction to attract and retain those talented employees. Thus, this study examined the leader-follower communication satisfaction, interpersonal connection and interaction, and job satisfaction elements in the context of the Macau casino hotel industry, suggesting the positive impact of communication satisfaction on interpersonal connection and interaction and in turn job satisfaction. According to Feather and Rauter (2004), job satisfaction is positively associated with productivity within a service encounter.

The subordinate’s job satisfaction would enhance by a good quality of leader-follower relationship. In hotel industry, frontline employees are interacting directly with customers so they are responsible to develop customer perception, satisfaction and loyalty. As such, job satisfaction of frontline employees is compulsory as a feature to deliver high quality service and to satisfy customers (Spinelli and Canavos, 2000) while it is substantially associated with work performance of casino hotel employees in Macau (Gu and Siu, 2009).

This study has several limitations which should be noted for the future study. Firstly, this study investigates the communication satisfaction and the relationship between a leader and a follower while the results suggest that despite different nationalities between leaders and followers, the language and cultural conflict is not inclusive in this study. Researchers may investigate the influence or outcome of different nationalities in term of supervisor-subordinate communication and relationship for the future study.

REFERENCES


ASYMMETRIC TOURIST RESPONSE TO EXCHANGE RATE UNCERTAINTY: NEW EVIDENCE FROM INBOUND TOURIST FLOWS IN SOUTH KOREA

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INTRODUCTION

All past studies that examined the effects of exchange rate uncertainty on tourism demand assumed that the effects are symmetric. This assumption implies that the effects of rising volatility are of the same magnitude as and move in the opposite direction of the impacts of declining volatility. That is, if increased volatility hurts the tourist flows by 1%, decreased volatility should boost them by the same 1%. In this paper, we argue that the effects of exchange rate volatility on tourist flows may not be symmetric. Indeed, tourists could have a different reaction when exchange rates are more volatile as compared to when they are less volatile. They then may decide to travel less when exchange rates become more volatile and travel much more when they are less volatile. It is also possible that the risk-averse tourists react strongly to a large increase or decrease in exchange rate volatility, while they may not respond similarly to moderate exchange rate fluctuations. These nonlinear effects of exchange rate volatility are mostly due to the change in tourists’ expectations and their perceptions of received information when a currency depreciates as compared to a case when that currency appreciates. For example, political and economic uncertainty and instability will be reflected in a currency devaluation and exchange rate volatility, which in turn affect tourists’ behavior. They may cancel, delay or change their destination.

This study aims to assess the dynamic effects of real income, bilateral exchange rate, and exchange rate volatility on South Korea’s inbound tourism demand from five major tourist-generating countries in the Asia-Pacific region (Japan, Taiwan, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand). The main purpose of this study is to investigate the potential nonlinear effects of exchange rate volatility on Korea’s inbound tourism demand. To measure exchange rate volatility, we employ the Generalised AutoRegressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity model (GARCH) proposed by Bollerslev (1986). The GARCH-based measure is widely used in the literature of international trade (e.g., Baum and Caglayan, 2010; Bredin et al., 2003; Byrne et al., 2008). The main advantage of this measure is that it includes the time-varying conditional variance from a time-series model (Chowdhury, 2005). This study then uses the partial sum processes of exchange rate volatility in a nonlinear autoregressive distributed lag (ARDL) framework developed by Shin et al. (2014). The nonlinear ARDL approach model is an asymmetric expansion of the linear ARDL model and allows testing for nonlinearities of exchange rate volatility both in long- and short-run. This cointegration approach can be applicable regardless of whether regressors are purely I(0), purely I(1) or a mixture of both, and thus pre-testing for unit root is not required. Using the nonlinear ARDL framework, the series of exchange rate volatility are split into three partial sums: a partial sum process of large increases (\(v_i^+\)), a partial sum process of large decreases (\(v_i^-\)), and a partial sum process of small increases or decreases (\(v_i^0\)). This study is the first that investigates the potential nonlinear effects of exchange rate volatility in the literature on tourism.

METHOD

The period of this study covers from January 2003 through December 2015 (2003:M1-2015:M12). Monthly international tourist arrivals are used to measure Korea’s inbound tourism demand from Japan, Taiwan, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. The tourist arrival data are collected from the Tourism Statistics of the Korea Tourism Organization (2017). To incorporate the income effect, we use the real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and the
data are obtained from the International Financial Statistics (IFS) database published by the International Monetary Fund (2017). Since monthly GDP data are unavailable, we transform quarterly GDP data into monthly GDP by using monthly Industrial Production Index (IPI). The real exchange rate data are also obtained from the International Financial Statistics (IFS) database. This study uses the generalized autoregressive heteroskedasticity (GARCH) model to generate a measure of exchange rate volatility.

This study assumes that South Korea’s inbound tourism demand from country i is a function of real GDP of country i, the real bilateral exchange rate, and exchange rate volatility. Thus, we start with the following tourism demand function:

\[
visit_{it} = a_0 + a_1 y_{it} + a_2 er_{it} + a_3 v_{it} + u_t, \quad (1)
\]

where \(visit_{it}\) is the number of tourist arrivals from the country of origin i to South Korea time t; \(y_{it}\) is a measure of real income of country i; \(er_{it}\) is the real bilateral exchange rate; and \(v_{it}\) is the measure of exchange rate volatility. All the variables are in natural logarithms.

To investigate if tourists respond asymmetrically to changes in exchange rate volatility, we decompose the series of exchange rate volatility into three partial sums: a partial sum process of large increases (\(v^+\)), a partial sum process of large decreases (\(v^-\)), and a partial sum process of small increases or decreases (\(v^\pm\)). To distinguish large from small exchange rate volatility changes, we use the 60% (\(c_1\)) and 40% (\(c_2\)) quantile of exchange rate volatility changes as thresholds as follows:

\[
v^+_i = \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta v^+_j = \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta v_j I\{\Delta v_j < c_2\}, \quad (3)
\]

\[
v^-_i = \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta v^-_j = \sum_{j=1}^{t} \Delta v_j I\{c_2 \leq \Delta v_j \leq c_1\}, \quad (4)
\]

where \(I\{Z\}\) denotes an indicator function which takes one if the condition is satisfied and zero otherwise. Thus, \(v_i\) is replaced by \(v^+_i\), \(v^-_i\), and \(v^\pm_i\) in Eq. (1) and the error-correction model is specified as follows:

\[
\Delta visit_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 visit_{i,t-1} + \beta_2 y_{it} + \beta_3 er_{it} + \beta_4 v^+_{it} + \beta_5 v^-_{it} + \beta_6 v^\pm_{it} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \lambda_i \Delta visit_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \phi_j \Delta y_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \phi'_j \Delta er_{i,t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \phi''_j \Delta v^+_i + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \phi^+_j \Delta v^-_{it} + \epsilon_t
\]

The Wald test is used to test the null hypothesis of long- and short-run linearity. If the effects of exchange rate volatility on tourist flows are symmetric, the normalized coefficients for exchange rate volatility variables must be the same in sign and size.

**FINDINGS**

Since the nonlinear ARDL approach is a cointegration technique, all the variables must be cointegrated to provide unbiased results. This paper uses the F-statistic to test the null hypothesis of the non-existence of a cointegration relationship. The results show that the computed F-statistics are well above the upper critical bound value, concluding that all the variables are cointegrated. Regarding the sign of the coefficient, both real income and exchange rate variables appear to have their expected signs (+ for income and - for exchange rate). The exchange rate volatility is a statistically significant in most cases, indicating that exchange rate volatility plays an important role in influencing Korea’s inbound tourism demand. However, the magnitude and the sign of exchange rate volatility are found to vary across countries. The results also reveal the short-run and long-run asymmetric effects of exchange rate volatility on the tourist flows. Tourists tend to react strongly to large increases or decreases in exchange rate volatility.

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5) Because the IFS database does not include Taiwan data, we collect the Taiwan GDP and IPI data from the National Statistics Republic of China (Taiwan).
IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The main contribution of this study is to provide empirical evidence of asymmetric effects of exchange rate volatility on Korea’s inbound tourism demand. This study found that exchange rate volatility has a significant negative effect on tourist flows in most cases, implying that tourists are highly responsive to an increase in exchange rate uncertainty, revealing the overall dominance of risk-averse tourists and tour operators in the selected countries. Moreover, this research may help policymakers understand the asymmetric tourists’ responses to exchange rate uncertainty and the potential benefits of exchange rate stabilization in the tourism industry. Additional research is needed to reach the general conclusion on tourists’ risk attitude regarding exchange rate uncertainty.

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SOCIAL NETWORK OF SMALL TOURISM ENTERPRISES AND SUSTAINABLE AWARENESS: A CASE STUDY IN LAO PDR

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ABSTRACT

This study made the first attempt to explore the contribution of small tourism enterprises (STEs) to sustainable tourism, especially in the context of a developing country, Lao PDR, where the relationships of STEs with major stakeholders are emphasized. Data collected in 2016 from 177 STEs were used to quantify the effects of the above relationships on future business intentions of STEs via sustainably tourism awareness. Analyses were done based on a generalized structural equation model (GSEM) for better capturing the features of data. Various findings useful to sustainable tourism policy making are derived.

INTRODUCTION

Being small and locally owned, small tourism enterprises (STEs) were automatically considered to contribute to sustainable tourism development (Roberts and Tribe, 2008). However, little is known about how they adapt themselves in the context of sustainable tourism and their role in helping the overall tourist destination. Considering the contribution of STEs to the processing of sustainable tourism, economic and management dimension of sustainability were the most concerned topics (Elliott, 2005; Moore and Manring, 2009). Currently, the role of STEs and environmental sustainability is also discussed (Revell and Blackbum, 2007). However, there is a noticeably lack between STEs and socio-cultural sustainability. Being the frontline of tourism, STEs are the representatives of local culture and are the receivers of the tourism polices. Like a bridge between the tourism policy makers and tourists, the social network of STEs should not be neglected in the process of destination sustainability. It may influence their awareness and future intentions in sustainable tourism

Social network analysis is one such diagnostic method for studying the mechanisms of communication and collaboration between members in different groups (Racherla and Hu, 2010). In this study, we explore the relationships between STEs with tourists, neighbors/other STEs and government. The communication and collaboration between the three stakeholders compose the majority of tourism operation. The owner-managers’ core attitudes and aims are more likely to be shaped and influenced by social network (Tinley and Lynch, 2001). So, in this study, we assume that the social network of STEs influences their awareness and future intentions to deploy sustainable tourism, especially from the cultural and social perspectives. The purpose of this study is to examine the social network of STEs and its contribution to sustainable tourism.

This paper contributes to literature in two aspects. Firstly, it confirms sustainable value from social network with STEs. Secondly, it demonstrates the usefulness of generalized structure equation model in tourism research. The research offers an integrated approach to capture the characteristics of STEs for sustainable tourism development, which is crucial in terms of business support and sustainable tourism destination policy making.

METHOD

Questionnaire survey

We designed a questionnaire consisting of the following parts by targeting STE operators or their managers.

Part 1 contains the basic information about STEs, their motivations of tourism business and subjective evaluation about local destinations and their business operation. Part 2 measures the awareness and evaluation towards different statements, including the satisfaction of operation and life, the evaluation of local tourism and destination, the awareness of sustainable tourism, the relationship between tourists, government and other enterprises, problems met in policies/operation, and future intentions of
operation. Part 3 asks respondents to report their working mobility histories and the reasons for job changing. Part 4 includes attributes of respondents and their main household members, such as employment status, education level, relationships of household members, and co-living status (whether to live together or not).

We selected two areas of Lao PDR: i.e., Luang Prabang (in the northern part of Lao) and Pakse (in the southern part of Lao). In total, we collected valid data from 177 STEs, among which foreign STEs are 34 and 143 are Lao, in the summer of 2016.

**Analysis approach**

In this study, we assume the following cause-effect structure for systematically capturing the causalities associated with the deployment of sustainable tourism business: “I. Sustainable tourism awareness” (four variables, mainly in cultural and social aspect), “II. Future intentions in business operation” (three variables for the owners’ decision for the future), “III. Relationship with tourists” (three variables), “IV. Relationship with neighbors/other STEs” (two variables), and “V. Relationship with local government” (three variables). We assumed that the social network of STEs influences both sustainable tourism awareness and their future intentions and different awareness results in different future business decisions.

![Figure 1. Cause-effect structure assumed in this study](image)

All variables representing the above five groups of factors are measured based on a 5-point scaling method (1. Fully disagree, 2. Slightly disagree, 3. Neutral, 4. Slightly agree, 5. Fully agree). Traditionally, it is natural to apply a structural equation modeling (SEM) approach with latent variables, which has been widely applied in the tourism literature. However, SEM assumes linear structures, which cannot better reflect the ordinal features of the 5-point scaling value. To overcome the above shortcoming, here, we propose to apply a generalized SEM (i.e., GSEM), where an ordinal logit analysis is performed with respect to each variable in Figure 1. Concretely speaking, we estimated a simultaneous-equation ordinal logit model by using the software STATA 13.

**FINDINGS**

Because of the limited sample size, it is difficult to jointly estimate the whole model structure in Figure 1. Here, we estimated the cause-effect relationship represented by each arrow in Figure 1, separately. In total, seven sub-models were estimated with converged results. Statistically significant parameters are shown in Figures 2–4, where three main relationships of STEs in social network are summarized together (note: *: significant at 10% level; **: 5% level; ***: 1% level).
Based on the estimation results, the findings can be summarized as follows:

1. **Sustainable tourism awareness and future intentions in business operation**

   STEs with higher awareness of training local people skills are more willing to expand their business scale, those with higher awareness of advocating local culture are more likely to hire local people, and those with the awareness to enhancing community participation are more likely to develop its own business brand. In general, the sustainable tourism awareness has positive effect on STEs’ future business operation.

2. **Effects of relationship of tourists on sustainable tourism awareness and future intentions**

   As STEs can get more information from tourists, they are more likely to expand business and hire more local people. And the pleasant communication with tourists is estimated to influence the awareness of STEs on improving employee’s skills and protecting traditional culture. What’s more, the more enthusiastic owners/managers communicate with tourists, the more likely they think about contributing to local
benefits and increasing community participation.
(3) Effects of relationship of tourists on sustainable tourism awareness and future intentions

Keeping pleasant neighborhood relationship is good for STEs to consider community benefit and cultural protection. This implies that good commercial environment is crucial for sustainable tourism development.

(4) Effects of relationship of tourists on sustainable tourism awareness and future intentions

If the STEs are easier to get related tourism policies to guide their operation from local government and if these policies are beneficial to them, they are more likely to build their own business brand. In contrast, if they find that governmental policies are beneficial to everyone, the chance to build own brand is smaller.

CONCLUSION

This study explores the roles of STEs in sustainable tourism development, especially their relationships with tourists, neighbors/other STEs and government. This is the first study in the context of a developing country, Lao PDR, especially by applying a generalized structural equation model (GSEM), which is flexible to treat different types of data within a unified modeling framework. As the first attempt in Lao PDR, collecting data from 177 STEs itself is already a difficult task. The GSEM-based analysis further supports our findings in a more scientific way. Sustainable tourism deployment requires better governance by involving different stakeholders in a more voluntary way. Our analyses support this by examining business owners’ and managers’ attitudes, subjective evaluation, and behavioral intentions. In this sense, various policy implications can be derived from this study, especially from the cultural and social perspectives.

REFERENCES

FORECASTING CHINESE TOURISM DEMAND IN TAIWAN
BASED ON THE GM(1,1) MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Since 2010, China became the largest international tourism source market for Taiwan. However, cross-strait interactions have changed somewhat since the inauguration of the new president in 2016. Consequently, the number of mainland tourists to Taiwan has fallen more than 20 percent just three months in to President Tsai as the island’s leader. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to use the grey prediction model to obtain more accurate forecasts of Chinese tourists. According to the results, there is a trend of decreasing Chinese tourists to Taiwan. This indicates the Chinese policies of the new Taiwan government affected Chinese inbound tourism. Therefore, the suggestions for the government and practitioners were then provided.

Keywords: Chinese tourists, demand, forecasting, Grey prediction model, tourism industry

INTRODUCTION

As tourism involves intangible experiences, the products and services associated with tourism are largely perishable in nature. For instance, airline seats, rental cars, hotel rooms, and other rented spaces cannot be inventoried or accumulated for later use. Consequently, it is crucial for government bodies, private sectors, and investors to have an accurate tourism forecast when planning tourism development efforts and investments (Blake et al., 2006; Chu, 2008; Chu, 2009; Xiankai et al., 2017; Xin et al, 2017; Jaume & Andreu, 2017). Accurate forecasts are necessary in instances such as operational decisions (i.e. scheduling, staffing), tactical decisions (i.e. promotion), and strategic decisions (i.e. investments). Similarly, governmental tourism authorities need accurate data in order to plan and develop tourism infrastructures, superstructures, accommodations, and attractions. Researchers, practitioners and government officials have long recognized the importance of accurate forecasts. The tourist arrivals variable is the most popular measure of tourism forecasting. This variable is measured by total tourism volume from an origin to a destination, and it serves as an indicator of the demand that can provide basis information for subsequent planning and policy making (Chu, 2008; Song & Li, 2008; Chu, 2009). Due to its usefulness in tourism forecasting, it has attracted considerable attention in recent empirical research (Song & Li, 2008).

In recognition of the importance of accurate short- and long-term forecasts to the tourism industry, forecasting techniques have been widely adopted in international tourism flows, as reported in published empirical studies, along with the empirical findings (Song et al., 2003; Min, 2008a). Despite the consensus on the need for accurate forecasting, there appears to be no standard source of tourism forecasts. Song and Li (2008) reviewed the published studies on tourism demand modeling and forecasting since 2000, finding that there is no single tourism forecasting technique that consistently outperforms all techniques. Forecasters should therefore be concerned with the selection of appropriate forecasting techniques under certain circumstances.

1.1 Statement of the Problem and the Purpose of the Study

After the two sides split at the end of a civil war in 1949, Taiwan had severely limited trade and travel with China. Given the anti-Communist sentiments prevalent during the Cold War, the United Nations recognized Taiwan as the official government of China up until 1971. Taiwan had a longstanding “Three Noes” policy towards mainland China: no contact, no negotiation, and no compromise. Over time, however, these doctrines slowly shifted, and the election of Beijing-friendly
President Ma Ying-Jeou in 2008 helped hasten this change. Throughout his term from 2008 to 2016, Taiwan’s President Ma Ying-Jeou actively advocated stronger economic ties with China and direct flights. Taiwan officially opened to Chinese tourists on July 4, 2008, and Chinese tourists began obtaining official permits from the Taiwan government to visit Taiwan on July 18, 2008. This policy was of historic significance, as it indicated a new era in cross-strait relations after several turbulent decades.

Chen et al. (2016) examined how tourism and political conflicts interact and affect each other by focusing on how China and Taiwan have achieved greater reconciliation since President Ma’s term. This can be seen in the friendly policies towards Chinese tourists implemented by the Taiwanese government. For instance, Taiwan officially opened its door to Chinese tourists when weekend charter flights were launched with China on July 4, 2008, resulting in the end of a nearly six-decade ban on Taiwan-China air links. Chinese tourists obtained official permits from the R.O.C. government to visit Taiwan on July 18, 2008. Taiwan’s government took into account tourism expenditures of Chinese visitors in ascertaining the relative contribution of tourism to production, income, and employment through this policy of historic significance. This effort has been successful in developing the emerging mainland China tourism market through the lifting of legal restrictions and a simplification of the application process. In the year 2010, Chinese arrivals to the island reached a peak of 1.63 million, an increase of 67.8% over 2009, and China became the largest international tourism source market, surpassing the number of Japanese tourists, which had long been dominant in Taiwan’s inbound market. In the year 2015, Chinese arrivals to the island reached 4.19 million, which represents 36% of the total inbound tourists for Taiwan. This high growth is likely to be in response to government strategies, policies, and messages.

However, cross-strait interactions have changed somewhat since the inauguration of the new president, Tsai Ing-Wen of the pro-independence Democratic Progressive Party, in May of 2016. Taiwan’s new government refuses to acknowledge the “1992 consensus”, which refers to an understanding in 1992 that for the two sides to continue to talk, they agree there is only one China, and that the mainland insists upon if talks and exchanges between the two are to continue. Consequently, the number of mainland tourists to Taiwan has fallen more than 20 percent just three months in to President Tsai’s first term as the island’s leader. In response to this trend, more than 10,000 Taiwanese tourism operators and workers organized a protest in Taipei on September 12, 2016, demanding that the government work to revive this slumping industry. Therefore, the main objective of this study is to use the grey prediction model to obtain more accurate forecasts of Chinese tourists.

In the process of making forecasts, researchers often have difficulties handling information in such circumstances where the information is considered “partially known,” “partially unknown,” “partially certain,” “partially uncertain,” “partially enough,” or “partially not enough” to predict the future or to make decisions. Therefore, grey system theory is useful at providing accurate forecasting results, even in cases where the information is insufficient, uncertain, or unclear. With a limited data set, and facing changes in the political environment, information is often insufficient or indefinite; in these cases grey theory can thus flexibly deal with the fuzziness of the information, which is why it is used in the current study. The results of this study can provide useful insights to tourism professionals and serve as a foundation for further research in model building for estimation under the circumstances of market uncertainty and limited information.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Professor Deng Julong (1982), a Chinese scholar, published the first research paper on grey systems in an international journal. This theory soon caught the attention of scholars from various academic communities and practitioners of science around the globe. According to Deng (1989), grey information, a kind of uncertain information, refers to information that is “partially known and partially unknown.” In other words, when both “black” information (that which is completely unknown) and “white” information (that which is clearly known) coexist in a system, it is called a
grey system. During the past three decades, the theory of grey systems has developed rapidly. It has been widely applied to model construction, relational analysis, prediction and decision making of systems that are conventionally viewed as incomplete and indefinite. Research studies on grey systems have been cited by many scholars around the globe and have been reviewed by internationally authoritative review periodicals.

Grey system theory has received little attention among tourism and travel researchers, despite its demonstrated usefulness in forecasting, system control, decision making and computer graphics. Among the studies conducted thus far, Xu and Wen (1997) used the grey prediction model to forecast international air transportation passengers, and Hsu and Wen (1998) used a range of forecasting methods to analyze trans-Pacific traffic flows. According to the results, GM(1,1) had greater reliability by posterior checks and more accurate prediction results than ARIMA and multiple regression models. Feng and Wang (2000) used grey relation analysis (GRA) to analyze five of Taiwan’s domestic airlines by selecting representative indicators of performance evaluation processes with financial ratios. The results of this study suggested that airlines can use performance evaluation to be more comprehensive and efficient if financial ratios are considered. A study by Wang (2004) found the GM(1,1) model to be more appropriate than other forecasting models at forecasting tourism demand of Hong Kong and United States arrivals in Taiwan. Similarly, Wu et al. (2008) assessed the performance of 56 international tourist hotels in Taiwan and found GM(1,1) to be the best model for predicting output value. Wang (2008) also compared the accuracy of models by using a fuzzy multi-criteria decision-making (FMCDM) method to examine the financial performance of three domestic airlines in Taiwan and using grey relation to find representative indicators from financial ratios. Min et al. (2009a) evaluated Taiwan’s outbound tourism demand by generating a forecast model using grey system prediction. In addition, Min et al. (2009b) used GRA to assess and prioritize the emotional intelligence (EI) training needs of undergraduate tourism and IT students. The same authors (2010) focused on air passenger movements and compared the accuracy and predictive power of four forecasting models: GM(1,1), GM(1,1) rolling model, Autoregressive (AR), and Exponential smoothing. In their study, the GM(1,1) rolling model proved superior to the other methods.

From the time he took office in May of 2008, Taiwan’s President Ma Ying-Jeou was a strong advocate of closer economic ties with China and direct flights. This was a historic change of course, indicating smoother cross-strait relations after decades of turmoil. Seeing this trend, Min and Tang (2011) used the grey prediction model to forecast Chinese tourist volume with limited data, arriving at useful insights for further research in model building for estimation, especially in situations with limited information and market uncertainty. Concerning the rapid expansion of the Chinese tourist market, Tsaur and Chan (2014) adopted a new grey support vector regression (GSVR) model to improve the tourism infrastructure in Taiwan with a better forecasting performance on Chinese tourists. In response to the limitations in collecting relevant data of international tourism demand in Taiwan, Nguyen et al. (2013) compared two models, the conventional Grey model and FGM (Fourier residual modification with traditional Grey model GM (1,1)), to see which represents better based on their accuracy indicators. The results indicate that FGM (1,1) shows a higher accurate forecasting on the international tourism demand in Taiwan.

Therefore, in this paper, the grey system model GM(1,1) is applied to predict the Chinese tourist visitors for Taiwan. According to the results, the suggestions can be proposed for the government and business bodies to formulate responsive policies on tourism quickly.

METHOD

3.1. Data Collection

Grey system theory was first proposed by Professor Deng in the 1980s. To supplement the inherent defects of conventional statistical methods, grey system theory only requires a limited amount of data to estimate or measure data collected from an uncertain system and obtain a good performance (Hsu, 2003; Wang & Lim, 2005; Min, 2008b), it is thus suitable for the data set characters of Chinese travelers, which is
characterized by a limited amount of data as well as information uncertainty.

In this study, yearly movements for the period from 2010 to 2016 are used to show Chinese tourist demand for Taiwan (see Figure 1). This set of data is received from the Monthly Report on Tourism published by the Tourism Bureau of Taiwan (Tourism Bureau, 2017).

![Figure 1. Chinese tourist arrivals for Taiwan from 2010/01 to 2016/12](image)

3.2. Grey GM(1,1) Model

Grey system theory is adopted mainly to research uncertainty model systems, resolve inter-system relations, establish models and forecast trends for decision making. Deng developed the grey-forecasting model (GM), which forms the core of the grey system theory and facilitates accurate predictions (Deng, 1982). However, the GM(1,1) model is one of the most important parts of grey system theory pioneered by Professor Deng Julong (2002), and it is widely employed in different fields. The formula of GM(1,1) model is presented below:

**Step 1:** Assuming \( x(0) \) as the original data sequence, means:

\[
x(0) = (x(0) (1), x(0) (2), \ldots, x(0) (n))
\]

**Step 2:** Obtain 1-AGO (one-time accumulating generation operation) sequence \( X(1) \), which is monotonically increasing and expressed as

\[
x(1) = (x(1) (1), x(1) (2), \ldots, x(0) (n)) \quad k=1,2,3,\ldots,n.
\]

where \( x(1)(k)=x(k), k=1,2,3,\ldots,n \).

**Step 3:** =MEAN

Generate \( =, \) by calculation

\[
=0.5(k=1,2,3,\ldots,n).
\]

**Step 4:** Estimation of developing coefficient \( a \) and \( b \)

Establish GM(1,1) model as as \( x(0)(k)+a\cdot x(1)(k)=b, k=2,3,\ldots,n \). The whitening differential equation of GM(1,1) is Let \( T \), by the least squares method, we have

\[
(BTB)\cdot B=-BYN, \quad \text{Where} \quad B=, \quad \text{and} \quad YN=
\]

**Step 5:** White response equation of GM(1,1)

\[
(1)(k+1)=(x(0)(1) - ) x(1)(1)=x(0)(1)
\]

**Step 6:** recuperation value

\[
, \quad \text{and} \quad (1)(1)=x(1)(1)=x(0)(1)
\]

**Step 7:** Precision rate

\[
e(k)=\left[\frac{x(0)(k)-x(k+1)}{x(0)(k)}\right] \times 100, k=1,2,\ldots,n
\]

Precision rate= 1-e(k)

**Step 8:** Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)

\[
MAPE=\frac{1}{k-1} \sum_{k=2}^{n} \left|\frac{x(0)(k)-x(0)(k)}{x(0)(k)}\right|, k=1,2,\ldots,n
\]

**FINDINGS**

The minimal amount of data needed to perform series grey prediction, establish on the GM (1,1) procedure, should be more than four observations without jumping points. The data of Chinese tourism population collection took place between 2013 and 2016 year by the Tourism Bureau in Taiwan. Procedures adopted to get the
predicted output for Chinese tourists are listed in Table 1. The comparison of the real value data and grey predicting result is as displayed in Figure 2.

4.1 Grey GM(1,1) model

1. Assume x(0) to be the last four sets, indicates: x(0)=(2874702, 3987152, 4184102, 3511734)

2. AGO
   x(1)=(2874702, 6861854, 11045956, 14557690)

3. =MEAN
   =((4868278, 8953905, 12801823)

4. the least squares method, we have B= , and YN=

5. Obtain recuperation value
   =(1-)

6. Relative error test and MAPE (see Table 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2016</th>
<th>2017</th>
<th>2018</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The real number</td>
<td>2874702</td>
<td>3987152</td>
<td>4184102</td>
<td>3511734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The prediction value</td>
<td>2874702</td>
<td>4124723</td>
<td>3889131</td>
<td>3666996</td>
<td>3457548</td>
<td>3260063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision rate</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=4, the =0.4, hence, the interval a needed for the developing coefficient a of effective GM(1,1) model (Deng, 2002) is the interval (-0.4, 0.4), obviously we get 0.058813(-04, 0.4), which displays the developing coefficient a=0.058813 that we have obtained satisfies the situation a, Furthermore, from Table 1 it derives that eachMAPE is under 10% (Lewis, 1982). Therefore, the GM(1,1) model is applicable.

![Figure 2. Chinese tourist demand from 2013 to 2016 and predicated result in Taiwan](image)

CONCLUSION

This study used a GM(1,1) interval prediction model to increase the predicted accuracy on forecasting Chinese tourism demand in Taiwan. The method of grey system theory differs from the present forecasting practice in the tourism demand literature. According to the results, there is a trend of decreasing Chinese tourists to Taiwan. This indicates the Chinese policies of the new Taiwan government affected Chinese inbound tourism. The government and practitioners therefore need to devise more effective marketing strategies to attract tourists from other countries or markets such as South Asia to respond to the declining Chinese inbound tourism. Moreover, the research findings can act as a reference for tourism authorities, practitioners, and policymakers to devise the
adequate strategies under similar circumstances.

The current study has certain limitations which should be used as a guideline for further prediction studies. First, the study, while limited to a univariate approach, took into consideration only Chinese inbound tourist and did not attempt to include travelers’ motivations for traveling as a determinant factor. Further research on tourism can investigate possible factors that might affect Chinese inbound travel demand. In addition, forecasting of travel demands is valued for its potentiality in assisting tourism authorities, key stakeholders and policy makers to reach operational, tactical and strategic decision. Thus, comparative studies are needed to determine whether grey prediction yields better predicted outputs of Chinese tourist movements than other forecast techniques often adopted in tourism demand literature. Such analysis can be achieved when more observations are obtained. Model testing is an everlasting task for those seeking the precisons of predicted values for the purpose of planning ahead for the future.

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THE DETERMINANTS OF ETHNIC FOOD CONSUMPTION

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INTRODUCTION

Food has been considered an ethnic and cultural bridge that connects groups of people from different cultures to each other. Due to immigration the United States is ethnically and culturally diverse, which may be one major reason for American consumers’ increasing interest in ethnic foods. Consumers’ expectations and perceptions about the ethnic foods would be different from their home food. Accordingly, it is essential for the ethnic restaurateurs to understand how consumers choose the ethnic foods and what factors influence their attitude toward ethnic foods and behavioral intentions regarding ethnic food consumption.

This study will apply the theory of planned behavior (TPB) to understand consumer behavior in the ethnic food consumption situation. The theory of planned behavior (TPB) has been received considerable attention from many researchers with the utility of behavioral intentions to predict actual behaviors (McMillan et al., 2005; Groot and Steg, 2007). The general constructs of the TPB are attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, intention, and behavior. Attitudes consist of behavioral beliefs – the product of the perceived likelihood of particular outcomes and the evaluation of those outcomes. Subjective norms are seen as an individual’s perception of social normative pressure or significant others’ beliefs that a person should or should not perform certain behaviors. The concept of perceived behavioral control as a predictor of behavior is on a basis of the rationale such that the greater perceived control may increase the likelihood that the behavior is successfully performed, and also perceived behavioral control will directly influence one’s actual behavior control (Ajzen, 1991; Armitage and Christian, 2003). Based on the TPB, this study will consider attitude toward a particular ethnic food, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control to understand how people determine to consume the ethnic foods.

In order to better understand the consumer decision-making regarding the ethnic food consumption, this study will use the extend the TPB model by adding other variables such as consumer values, familiarity with a particular ethnic food, and affective country image to the existing TPB model. Consumer value is a critical concept for better understanding consumer behavior (Heskett, et al., 1997). Woodruff’s (1997) conceptual model proposed that desired value guides customers when they form perceptions regarding the performance of an organization or the quality of products/services. Consumer familiarity with a product or service has received attention from various marketing researchers because familiarity can play a vital role in consumers’ decision-making processes (Desai and Hoyer, 2000; Johnson and Russo, 1984). As consumers use a product more frequently, they are more familiar with it, which reduces uncertainty in future purchase situations (Flavián et al, 2005). An affective country image refers to one’s feelings and emotions regarding a place, which is a significant concept that has been extensively studies in several research fields such as tourism, international marketing or international relations, and consumer research (Brijs et al., 2011; Alavares & Campos, 2014).

This research aims to examine how people choose ethnic foods based on the theory of planned behavior (TPB) and consumer value concept to uncover factors that influence consumer decision-making in the ethnic food consumption situation. More specifically, this study will examine how consumer values, familiarity with a specific ethnic food, and affective country image influence consumers’ attitude toward the ethnic foods. Also, the study will investigate the effects of consumers’ attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control on consumers’ intention to consume ethnic foods based on the TPB. This study will make theoretical contributions to the literature of ethnic food consumption behavior by suggesting the extended theory of planned behavior model including other
variables, consumer value and familiarity. The findings of this study will provide managerial implications for practitioners as well. The ethnic restaurant operators will better understand how consumers choose the ethnic food and which factors influence consumers’ attitude toward the ethnic foods and intention to consume those foods.

METHOD

A self-administered questionnaire will be developed for this study. The measurement items for consumer value will be adopted from a previous study (Ha and Jang, 2012). The items for consumer value will include convenience value, economic value, quality value, social value, motional value, epistemic value, and aesthetic value. The food familiarity will be measured by asking how much familiar with a specific Asian food. The items for affective country image will be adopted from the previous study (Alvarez & Campo, 2014). The measurement items for the attitude toward Asian food experience will be adopted from the previous study (Armitage & Conner, 1999). The items to measure subjective norm and perceived behavioral control will be adopted from the previous studies (Rhodes & Courneya, 2003) and somewhat modified to fit the restaurant setting. The behavioral intention will be measured by asking the intention to have Asian food experience in the near future. The items for consumer value, food familiarity, affective country image, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, and behavioral intention will be measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1- strongly disagree to 7- strongly agree).

For data collection, a research company will be hired to conduct a web-based survey. The survey questionnaires will be distributed online to the panel members of an online research company in the United States. The company will send an invitation email including the online survey link to their panel members to recruit the participants. The participants will be asked to respond to questions regarding Asian food based on their most recent past dining experience at an Asian restaurant within the last three months. To test the hypothesized relationships among variables, this study will conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and a structural equation modeling (SEM).

EXPECTED IMPLICATIONS

This study will make some theoretical contributions to the literature of ethnic food consumption behavior by suggesting extended TPB (Theory of planned behavior) model considering other variables. This study considers other variables influencing attitude toward ethnic food, such as consumer values regarding ethnic food consumption familiarity with ethnic food, and affective country image. Through the extended TPB model, this study will uncover the significant effect of consumer values, familiarity, and country image on consumers’ attitudes toward ethnic food. The study will also test that subjective norm, attitude, and perceived behavioral controls as predictors of consumer’s behavioral intentions regarding ethnic food consumption based on TPB.

The study will have some managerial implications as well. As consumer values regarding ethnic food consumption are considered in this study, the role of each significant consumer value in forming attitude toward ethnic food will be identified. The findings of the study will allow the ethnic restaurant operators to understand what consumers seek through dining experience at the ethnic restaurants. Also, the study will uncover how consumer’s familiarity with a particular ethnic food influences their attitude toward the food. If the familiarity is a significant factor influencing consumer’s attitude toward the ethnic food, the marketing efforts such as free samples or participating in the local ethnic food festivals can be made to make people more familiar with their ethnic food and create better attitude toward ethnic food.

REFERENCES


WHY DO MOBILE APP USERS CONTINUE TO USE THE TRAVEL APP?

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INTRODUCTION

There are more than 2.1 billion smartphone users globally (Statista, 2015). These individuals are now able to obtain their desired information easily and conveniently through the use of mobile applications (apps). At the same time, estimated travel bookings via mobile apps are expected to grow from 44% of all bookings in 2015 to 70% by 2019 (eMarketer, 2015). With the increasing use of mobile apps, travelers are now supported in many areas of their travel activities, and they enjoy convenient mobility and network accessibility (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2013). According to a recent study, roughly 50% of travelers deleted all downloaded mobile apps for travel activities following their trips (Linton & Kwortnik, 2015). Moreover, 88% of travelers with smartphones would switch to another app if the used app does not satisfy their needs (Research, 2016). Therefore, understanding how travelers build their continued use intention for mobile apps is critical for tourism business to develop strategies to attract and retain mobile app users. This study is intended to explore the factors that affect travelers’ decisions regarding the use of their apps for future travels and to develop a conceptual framework to enhance our understanding of the continued use of travel apps by adopting the expectation-confirmation model (ECM) by Bhattacherjee (2001) as the theoretical foundation, which posits information system (IS) users’ continuous intention was determined by their satisfaction with IS usage, perceived usefulness and confirmation of expectation (expectation fulfilment) of IS usage.

METHOD

This study seeks to explore the mechanisms that shape the continued use intention of mobile apps after they are adopted for travel, based on the assumption that the salient factors influencing on travel app users’ intention to continue using the app are different from one of its initial acceptance (Bhattacherjee, 2001). Thus, this study was designed using both qualitative and quantitative methods that enable rich descriptions of how people actually perceived their app usage for travel. Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 22 travel app users who have downloaded and used travel apps on their portable devices—that is, smartphones or tablets—for a particular travel-related purpose within the past 12 months. Following the interviews, open-ended questions were asked by conducting an online survey of 118 students and staff in an Australian university to in order to strengthen results from the interviews. In summary, this study was conducted using two data collections approaches: face-to-face interviews and an online survey in order to generate a generalizable conceptual framework by obtaining direct responses about participants’ insights from a different and larger population.

FINDINGS

Factors influencing the continued use of the mobile apps for travel. The following seven factors were identified for the continued use of mobile apps for travel based on their performance and the travelers’ experience: ease of use, usefulness, trust, incentive, and ubiquity as cognitive beliefs; and familiarity and fun/enjoyment as affective beliefs from the interview. Examples of direct participant quotations are presented in Table 1.
Table 1. Factors Influencing the Continued Use of the Mobile Apps for Travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Example of Quotations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ease of Use</td>
<td>“Because using the app was much easier to me. There is too much information on the sites, but on the apps, their information is simple, detailed and easy to search. But simple doesn't mean not detailed. Their information explains in full.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usefulness</td>
<td>“[… app] logged you in and gives you all the details of flights. Booking, managing my flights, looking at when my next flight is and what time and so on. It's a lot more useful than logging in all the times. It’s very practical. It suited my needs.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Beliefs (5 items)</td>
<td>Trust on provided information</td>
<td>“When I was in France, they advertised one of the rooms with complimentary access to the lounge, but when I got there, it was not provided. So I called […] app and they backed me up 100% and I could get an access. I would say it's reliable, so I am happy to book through them again.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive</td>
<td>“I will definitely use […] app again. They provide the best deal for hotels I think. I booked the hotel once and it was last-minute booking. I got a room with the best price ever.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ubiquity</td>
<td>“Before, I didn't really like using apps. I have big hands and fingers, I thought using apps might be difficult and mobile screen is too small to see something as well. But once I have used […] app, I found they have really great information and I could use it anytime, anywhere I want.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective (2 items)</td>
<td>Familiarity</td>
<td>“I am familiar with their services what they offer because I used it before many times, so I know how to use it and what I can get it from them. It made me very comfortable with using it; I mean I am familiar with using the […] app. so.. I will use it again.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoyment / Fun</td>
<td>“I really like it, I will use it again.. for fun.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reasons for the discontinued use of the mobile apps for travel. 18 participants were not willing to use it again for their future travels. Participants reported that their discontinued use intention of an app for travel was strongly associated with the failure of their expectation-fulfillment. During the actual performance of using the app, inconsistent services and less effective functionality of the app led to fail to meet their expectations and caused unsatisfactory experience. For example, one respondent explained that he would not use the app again because the provided search results of the app did not fulfill his expectations that the app would provide the best deal which is formed from the previous experience:

“[…] app] used to be a very reliable and useful app when I used it before. But, now, when you click on a flight, it tells you that the price has increased, and it expects you to pay $300-$400 more for your flights. This has happened to 2 friends and me, so it is definitely not a unique experience, so I don’t think I will use it again.”

IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study provide the basis for a conceptual framework that enhances our understanding of the continued use of travel apps. Specifically, seven factors are identified as driving the continued use of mobile apps in the context of travel: perceived usefulness, ease of use, incentive, ubiquity, trust, familiarity, and enjoyment/fun. Significantly, all seven factors are shaped by a set of direct and indirect relationships. Participants cited these factors in describing and explaining their continued use of mobile travel apps. In addition, the continued use of the travel app is shaped by expectation-fulfillment that formed after the adoption of the app. As described by the participants, expectation is largely confirmed by cognitive beliefs and affective factors.

Although the direct factors are largely consistent with the ECM and its extensions, this framework clearly posits that continued use of travel app is affected by post-adoption
expectations. The findings of this study suggest that continued use of travel apps is driven not only by the individual’s cognitive beliefs and affective factors but also by the degree of expectation-fulfillment. These findings provide further evidence of the close association between post-adoption expectations and continued use intention of the mobile app for travel.

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e-Devices/1013248


CUSTOMER RESPONSE TO MISBEHAVING OTHERS: A CROSS CULTURAL STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

Ranging from fighting with crew members on airplanes to using abusive language towards other customers in restaurants, there is substantial evidence in media exposing misdeeds of customers that annoy other customers across hospitality and tourism industry. Indeed, whereas companies in this industry constantly strive to impress their customers, misbehaving customers often ruin the efforts by detracting other customers’ consumption experience. More importantly, such dysfunctional customer behavior happens far too often to ignore and is found to be responsible for multitudes of dissatisfying incidents reported by customers (Bitner, 1990; Grove & Fisk, 1997; Harris & Reynolds, 2003).

Dysfunctional customer behavior refers to the “actions by customers who intentionally or unintentionally, overtly or covertly, act in a manner that, in some way, disrupts otherwise functional service encounters” (Harris & Reynolds, 2003, p. 145). Despite the fact that dysfunctional customer misbehavior can also be directed to service providers, and company property (Fullerton & Punj, 2004), this paper will focus solely on its impact on other customers sharing the same servicescape. Especially in hospitality and tourism industry, customers are co-producers of the service experience and constantly receive services simultaneously with other customers. They are particularly susceptible to the influence of misbehaving others. In a study of Bitner (1990), the potential negative influences of customers on their fellow customers have been revealed. Furthermore, Grove, Fisk and Dorsch (1998) found that dysfunctional customer behavior in the tourist attraction context is accountable for the largest proportion (30.95 percent) of dissatisfied incidents.

Notwithstanding the pervasiveness and undesirability of the phenomena, this area of research remains largely underdeveloped. Whereas consumer research has long been recognizing the important implication of cultural differences in customer responses to service failures (Chan & Wan, 2008; Furrer et al., 2000; Hui, Ho, & Wan, 2011; Laroche et al., 2004), very few research has investigated the cultural impact on customer reactions to other customers’ misbehaviors.

When other customers misbehave, the focal customer may suffer losses of economic resources (i.e. time, money) and/or social resources (i.e., social-esteem). In this study, we propose there are two types of dysfunctional consumer behavior, namely, non-social misbehavior and social misbehavior. Non-social misbehavior refers to an inappropriate act of another customer that induces the focal customer to suffer mainly from losses of economic resources (i.e. time, money) during the service consumption process, whereas social misbehavior is an inappropriate act of another customer that induces the focal customer to suffer mainly from losses of social resources (i.e., social-esteem) during the service consumption process. In a situation of waiting in a queue at the self-ordering kiosk in a restaurant, for example, a non-social misbehavior occurs when a customer cutting in line (i.e., a longer waiting time). However, when a customer shows impatience and is rude to other customers during the waiting process, it is a social misbehavior (i.e., a lack of social respect).

In individualistic cultures, people tend to perceive themselves as independent entities and to define themselves in terms of their unique characteristics apart from others, while in cultures where collectivism prevails, people tend to prefer an interdependent relationship and define themselves in relation to others. Past research has shown that people in individualistic cultures emphasize more on economic resources whereas
those in collectivistic cultures put more emphasis on social resources (Chan & Wan, 2008). Therefore, we argue that collectivists, who have been found to be more sensitive to losses of social resources, would take more serious offense when disturbed by social misbehavior and thus be more dissatisfied in such circumstances. On the contrary, individualists, who are believed to be more concerned about their losses in economic resources, would be more dissatisfied when encountering non-social misbehavior. Theoretical and practical implications for managing dysfunctional customer behavior are drawn.

METHOD

A 2 (dysfunctional customer behavior type: social versus non-social) × 2 (cultural orientation: individualist versus collectivist) quasi-experimental design will be used. We target to recruit 160 participants from China and the United States.

We predict that Asian participants would be more dissatisfied than Western participants when they encounter other customers’ social misbehaviors. However, Western participants would be more dissatisfied than Asian participants when they encounter other customers’ non-social misbehaviors.

IMPLICATION

Previous research has been negligent on the cross-cultural perspective of consumer responses to dysfunctional others sharing the same servicescape. The current research will fill this gap by looking into how individualists and collectivists react to other customer misbehaviors. This study will advance our understanding of cross-cultural consumer behaviors in service consumption.

In addition, this research will help the service providers/firm to better understand and cope with customer misbehaviors. Specifically, since it is noted that customers with a collectivistic cultural background are more dissatisfied with social misbehavior, service providers in the society where collectivistic cultural prevails should pay extra attention to social misbehavior and take initiative to recover affected customers. More importantly, since collectivists are found to be more reluctant to use direct responses (Chan & Wan, 2008), identifying and recovering such incidents rely, to a greater extent, on service providers in collectivist cultures. On the contrary, in the society where individualist culture prevails, service providers are advised to pay greater attention to non-social misbehavior (e.g., cutting in the line). For example, service managers should think proactively to maintain a smooth operation to reduce consumers’ waiting time. This could avoid serious confrontational incidents between fellow customers.

REFERENCES


AIRBNB IN THE PHILIPPINES: THE INFLUENCE OF USER-GENERATED CONTENT ON THE PURCHASE DECISION OF URBAN FILIPINO MILLENNIALS

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INTRODUCTION

As an emerging concept that challenges existing business models used by traditional hospitality brands, Airbnb is earning itself the title of a revolutionary start up in the sharing economy market. In the Philippines however, the home-sharing giant has yet to establish a strong foothold in the local lodging industry. What started out as a humble business idea in a small apartment room has since expanded into a billion-dollar enterprise as Airbnb continues to become an innovator in the global lodging industry. The company utilizes a consumer-to-consumer (C2C) marketing strategy that involves the consumer in its efforts to build the brand. Consumer-to-consumer interactions are made possible through user-generated content (UGC) on the company’s website. User-generated content is any digital material produced by the consumer about a brand or product. As a form of content strategy, the use of UGC grants the consumer a role in marketing the brand through digital media, among which photos, videos, and texting are the most common forms. This study focused on the role of UGC as a medium of C2C marketing employed by Airbnb and how this affected the purchase decision of urban Filipino millennials. User-generated content in this study only refers to the following forms found on the company’s website: (1) profile picture/s of the host, (2) personal description of the host, (3) photo/s of the listing, (4) description of the listing, (5) guest reviews about the listing, and (6) guest reviews about the host. The following were the main problems addressed by the study: (1) What forms of user-generated content do Airbnb users consider in making a purchase decision? (2) What are the underlying factors of user-generated content that affect consumer purchase decision? (3) How much do these underlying factors influence consumer purchase decision? The study aims to evaluate the the effectivity of the C2C marketing strategy of Airbnb in terms of purchase decisions made by urban Filipino millennials based on C2C interactions via UGC. Furthermore, its specific objectives are: (1) to study the effectiveness of UGC as a content marketing strategy utilizing the C2C platform, (2) to analyze the association between UGC and consumer purchase decision, and (3) to determine whether Filipino online consumers are responsive to Airbnb.

METHOD

Figure 1. The Influence of User-Generated Content in Airbnb on Consumer Purchase Decision

This study is exploratory in nature using a descriptive research design. The C2C marketing strategy utilized by Airbnb provides the platform where consumers interact with one another through user-generated content such as reviews and photos. The conceptual framework works on the premise that consumer purchase decision is affected, either positively or negatively, by social influence factors yielded by user-generated content which is the
medium of C2C interactions online. The given criteria for each form of UGC and the social influence factors that affect consumer purchase decision were based on results from the literature review and pilot study. Through this framework, we attempt to identify both quantitative and qualitative elements of user-generated content and its ability to impact purchase decision through social influence based on the likelihood of consumers to book a listing in the Airbnb site. A nonprobability sampling method was used for this study, as the questionnaire required the respondents to provide some descriptive comments for answers.

Purposive sampling was done to select a homogeneous group of urban Filipino millennials because they have a shared characteristic of being aware of Airbnb’s brand and/or being Airbnb users themselves. A total of 82 Filipino respondents, all residents of Metro Manila at the time of data collection, were surveyed, 53 of which were Airbnb users. They have either browsed through the Airbnb website or are consumers who have booked a space using the platform by means of the survey method. The respondents were divided into two groups: the Up and Comers refer to the younger half of the sample, those who are aged 18 to 24 years old, and those who are 25 to 34 years old were labeled as the Mavens (Interbrand, 2015). The online questionnaires were disseminated through the use of social media channels (e.g. Facebook) to reach a wider audience. The self-administered online questionnaire was circulated with the help of social media platforms. The questionnaire was divided into five parts: (1) Respondent’s Profile; (2) Usage of Airbnb; (3) Factors Affecting Consumer Purchase Decision of Airbnb; (4) Evaluating User-Generated Content on the Airbnb Website; and (5) Perception of Airbnb. Qualitative analysis was used to manage the data due to the study being heavily driven by concepts. In addition, quantitative analysis was done to organize the numerical data collected from the use of a Likert Scale. The data were presented as graphs, means and charts using descriptive statistics.

FINDINGS

Half of the respondents learned about Airbnb through word-of-mouth with 28.3% from social media posts such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and blogs. Seventeen percent learned about it from online advertisements such as video ads and search engine results. Word-of-mouth recommendations from consumers remain as the most effective form of advertising for Filipinos (Rappler, 2015). Urban Filipino millennials are generally rare users of Airbnb as validated by more than 90% of the respondents who use it between two to three times or only once a year. Respondents also use Agoda, Booking.com Metrodeal, TripAdvisor, and Couchsurfing. Majority book listings through the Airbnb website using web browsers such as Google Chrome, Mozilla Firefox, Safari, etc. More than half have booked an Airbnb listing that is based in another country while over a quarter booked both through local and international listings. Montecillo (2013) quoted Airbnb co-founder Nathan Belchaczryk that Manila is not just a growing travel destination but Filipinos are also travelling internationally at increasing rates. However, the “lack of available inventory and connectivity issues” which particularly include security problems, hinders the utilization of local Airbnb according to Jones Lang Lasalle, Philippines Research Head Claro Cordero Jr. (Talavera, 2016).

About 81% of young urban millennial users are from the up and comers millennial segment. They are easily attracted and influenced in terms of purchase decision by social media and word-of-mouth. This explains their high inclination to using Airbnb. On the other hand, older millennials or mavens, all married, comprise about one-fifth of the respondents, are well-educated and mostly full-time employed. While into adulthood, they are still always on the go and recommendations from peers have a huge influence on their purchase decisions (A New Perspective on Millennials: Segmenting a Generation for Actionable Insights, 2015). The study also shows that single people are more predisposed to travelling. Solo travel has been growing significantly popular with 37% recorded across 25 different countries, a steep rise from 16% in 2013 (Rosenbloom, 2015). This supports the study’s result where majority of the respondents are single and female. However, Rosenbloom adds that while the stereotypical traveler is single, married individuals and those
who are in relationships are just as predisposed to solo traveling. Since a significant number are college undergraduate respondents, a big percentage are still studying and unemployed. The data therefore showed no pattern nor correlation between employment status and frequency of Airbnb usage. Since respondents are mostly students, their monthly income and allowance are less than P10,000. About 20% of the survey sample earns P20,001 to P30,000 per month while equal number earns more than P50,000 and, from P10,001 to P20,000. Due to insufficient data however, no correlation was established between monthly income/allowance of Airbnb users. In booking an accommodation through Airbnb, safety and security was still the guests’ priority (3.75). This result supports Kaplan and Nadler’s findings about the platform’s regulatory issues. Absence of permits and licenses to operate is a cause for concern for both hosts and guests as if any suspicious activity transpires. Accessibility ranks second because travel within the country also includes rural locations. Cleanliness came in at third as users are still concerned about staying in a place that may or may not have the same standard of cleanliness and maintenance as traditional accommodations like hotels (3.71).

Results also show that all UGC forms in Airbnb influence users but in varying levels. Findings showed that the quantity of reviews about the listing is the topmost priority ahead of the quality. Photos of the listing is what users look at next and the number of photos depicting the description of the place accurately is of great importance to them as well. Airbnb markets its brand as an experience more than just a form of alternative accommodation. While the company has built a community of users who help each other out in finding a temporary place of stay, data showed that information about the host is not what users look at first. The focus is still on feedback and details about the listing.

**IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION**

The results gathered suggest that UGC does hold some influence on how Airbnb as a service is perceived by consumers. Through the use of UGC, Airbnb is able to engage the role of the target consumer by serving as a platform where both frequent and first-time users can interact. This is especially important for a brand that is quickly gaining traction in the lodging industry because it helps non-users to receive information about the service from those who have already experienced it. As a community-driven brand, interaction among Airbnb users is essential in spreading information about the brand which could help attract more visitors to the company’s website and further promote its services. While Airbnb continues to grow internationally, use of the service is still not very common for users in the Philippines mostly due to security issues. Increased marketing efforts must be set in motion to help users in the country understand what and how Airbnb works.

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THE EFFECT OF THE CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY OF FRANCHISE COFFEE SHOPS ON CORPORATE IMAGE AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTION

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Mina Jo, Suwon University

INTRODUCTION

Despite the global economic recession, the coffee industry in Korea has witnessed continued growth in the last decade. The Korea Health Statistics conducted by the Ministry of Health and Welfare in 2013 reported that one adult consumes 298 cups of coffee a year, thus indicating coffee is consumed more than kimchi or rice. In 2006, a total of 92,000 tons of coffee volume was imported, and it significantly increased in 2014 to 139,764 tons (Korea Customs Service, 2015). Franchise coffee brands are also making rapid growth with the popularity of coffee. The industry of franchise coffee records over 25% growth every year, with the number of chains reaching 19,000 shops as of May 2014—a three-fold increase from 6,000 shops in 2008. In addition, the top-selling brands, such as Starbucks, Caffe Bene, Coffee Bean, Hollys Coffee, and Angel-in-us Coffee, have over 3,000 chains (Korea Fair Trade Commission, 2014). As a result, the coffee industry is confronted with intense competition and extreme changes, and hence the emerging importance and need of corporate philanthropy for franchise coffee brands to have a differentiated marketing vehicle aside from the usual profit-chasing activities. Consequently, a number of franchise coffee brands have set to establish positive brand image by implementing corporate social responsibility (CSR) in order to enhance employees’ pride and consumer preference. Consumers prefer products from companies that are committed to CSR activities when products are in tough competition (Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000). CSR positively influences corporate image, and such company’s products and brands have an impact on customers’ behavior throughout their behavioral intention (Assael, 1998; Brown & Dacin, 1997; Ross, Paterson & Stuffs, 1992). In Western countries, ample research has been conducted on CSR in the coffee industry. However, in Korea, one of the East Asian countries, only a limited number of research is focused on CSR in coffee companies (Park, Lee & Kim, 2011; Kim & Lee, 2016; Yoon, 2016; Baek, 2016).

The purpose of this study is to understand the impact of the corporate social responsibility activities on the corporate image and the influence of the corporate image on the customer’s behavioral intention by targeting the franchise coffee companies.

METHOD

Onsite survey has been conducted based on self-administered survey targeting the customers at the franchise coffee shops in Seoul and Gyeonggi area from October 5, 2015 to October 26, 2015. A total 300 copies were distributed and 285 copies were used for the final analysis. Frequency Analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analysis(CFA), Reliability Analysis, Correlation Analysis and Structural Equation Model(SEM) were adopted for the study.

The corporate social responsibility has been categorized for measurement in four factors as economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities in accordance with the investigation studies by Maignment & Ferell (2001) and Carroll(1979). This study has adopted 16 items for measuring the corporate social responsibility activities by Park, Kim & Lee (2010). The corporate image was measured in terms of 7 items, implying the measurement of Winters (1986) and Barich & Kotler (1991). The customer’s behavioral was measured by 6 items, implying the measurement of Ekinci & Riley(2003). Each measured item bases on five point Likert scale from “do not agree at all” to “agree very much”.

...
FINDINGS

Among the corporate social responsibilities, aside from the ethical responsibility, the economic, legal and charitable responsibilities were discovered to leave meaningful impact on corporate image statistically. For that reason, hypothesis #1, #3 and #4 were supported. In addition, the influence of corporate image on consumer’s behavioral intention was found to be meaningful in terms of statistically. For that reason, the fifth hypothesis was supported with the investigation hypothesis (see Table 1).

Table 1. Scale Items and Construct Evaluation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1 Economic Responsibilities → Corporate Image</td>
<td>0.317**</td>
<td>0.132</td>
<td>3.134</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 Ethical Responsibilities → Corporate Image</td>
<td>0.176</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>1.737</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 Legal Responsibilities → Corporate Image</td>
<td>0.216*</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>1.974</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 Discretionary Responsibilities → Corporate Image</td>
<td>0.218*</td>
<td>0.106</td>
<td>2.362</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5 Corporate Image → Behavioral Intention</td>
<td>0.867***</td>
<td>0.075</td>
<td>12.936</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

χ²(308) = 234.668; p > 0.05, GFI = 0.947, AGFI = 0.925, NFI = 0.955, RFI = 0.941, TLI = 1.000, CFI = 1.000, RMSEA = 0.000, RMR = 0.022

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

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Based on the key findings of this research, we suggest a couple of theoretical and practical implications. First, CSR is a critical factor in establishing positive corporate image. The companies should recognize the importance of CSR to acquire credibility over their company. Especially, the companies should highlight the importance of economic responsibility from the first place. As proposed by Carroll (1991), the companies should first complete the economic responsibility, then take on with their legal responsibility, ethical responsibility and discretionary responsibilities. Second, it has been proven that the corporate image affects the customer’s behavioral intention. The direct relationship between the corporate image through the CSR and the customer’s behavioral intention has been proven. In fact, the social responsibility activities, with the corporate image as a vehicle, lead positive feedback from customers and
increase the product preference (Jeon, 2015; Jung & Yoon, 2008). Such results could provide a
guideline to the franchise coffee brands as to how much the efforts for certain social responsibility
activities are important for managing the corporate image and the customers. In particular, it is critical
that the companies need to establish detailed activation plans, considering that such activities
would promote the social sustainability and would be a genuine investment for the better life of the
next generation. Third, it has been proven that the
companies that implement social responsibility activities will have their customers’ behavioral
intention enhanced since their corporate image is improved. Thus, it is comprehensible that when the
CSR is in place to promote the corporate image, the customers will display behavioral response that includes revisit, positive
word-of-mouth (WOM) spread and recommendation. Fourth, as a part of the survival strategy in the new era of changes, the companies
need to develop itself as a corporate citizen that promotes corporate image by placing social responsible activities and generating long-term
profits. The companies should be aware that the CSR is a business practice that they need to take voluntarily with sincerity for their sustainable
growth along with the social development. The future direction of investigation and the limits as
to the investigation for this study are as follows.
This research has measured the CSR features with four factors proposed in the preliminary research,
but more factors could be found to impact the corporate image in the later studies. And, there is
limitation to generalize the research findings on franchise coffee brands’ social responsibility activities, because it targeted the customers at
particular franchise coffee shops. In the future researches, a comparative research on the domestic
franchise coffee companies and multinational ones’ social responsible activities should be conducted to provide an insight on promoting
domestic companies’ social responsible activities and establish strategic approach for globalization of these companies.

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FACTORS INFLUENCING CONSUMER SATISFACTION FOR *KELULUT* HONEY AS AN AGRO–TOURISM PRODUCT IN MALAYSIA

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Muhammad Helmi, Universiti Putra Malaysia  
Siow May Ling, Universiti Putra Malaysia

INTRODUCTION

Agro-tourism is an integral part of rural tourism in tourism-related fields. It gives rural people the opportunity to increase their revenues and also develop their agricultural and livestock activities, as mentioned by the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2002). In Malaysia, the agency in charge of promoting these activities in Malaysia, and internationally, is the Malaysian Agro Exposition Park Serdang, or better known as MAEPS. MAEPS’ mission is to promote Malaysia as a destination that is rich and unique with world-class knowledge and to make the agro-tourism industry a significant contributor to local socio-economic development.

Recently, Malaysian government identified the stingless bee farming industry as one of the new and rapidly growing potential industry in this country. The environmental conditions in Malaysia, provides it with an abundance of natural resources, and it is also appropriate as a habitat for stingless bees. The stingless bee species population in Malaysia is large, if compared with other countries. According to (Kelly, Farisya, Kumara, & Marcela, 2014), there are apparently 17 to 32 known species of stingless bees in Malaysia, however, Honly *Trigona itama* and *Trigona thoracica* were mostly used in meliponiculture.

METHOD

This study employs a quantitative approach. Survey is as a data collection technique. The sample size was calculated in order to get the ideal number of respondents, which can represent the overall population. According to (Suresh and Chandrashekara, 2012), to provide a more accurate study, it is important to determine the representative sample size. The number of visitors to Syamille Agrofarm & Resort was taken within a period of 150 days, and saw 5255 visitors. The average number of visitors per day are 35. The size of visitors’ population in ten days was approximately 350 people. The sample size formula by Yamane (1967) was used to determine the accuracy of the the sample needed, - the number of the sample size was 186. So, the minimum number of questionnaires to be distributed and answered was 186; at least 35 questionnaire-forms were distributed daily.

FINDINGS

Multiple linear regressions model was used to determine the relationship between dependent and independent variables. The level of satisfaction towards “Kelulut” Honey at Syamille Agrofarm & Resort was treated as a dependent variable while benefits of “Kelulut” Honey, bachelor degree, and type of honey texture were treated as independent variables.

The regression analysis found that there were three independent variables affected levels of satisfaction towards “Kelulut” Honey at Syamille Agrofarm & Resort. These were benefit of “Kelulut” Honey, bachelor degree, and type of honey texture because the p-value are significant at the 5% level.

According to the model summary, only three independent variables were predicted to have significant influence on the dependent variable. The $R^2$ value meant the variation in dependent variable explained 99% of the independent variables. It meant that only 29% of the independent variable influenced the dependent variable in this study. The adjusted $R^2$ value for predictors, which was 0.294, derived from the same value obtained by $R^2$. The final model, included all predictors that made up the most significant factors, which influenced the prediction of the dependent variable.
Table 1: Factors influencing satisfaction towards Kelulut honey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CONSTANT</td>
<td>1.379</td>
<td>4.880</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Quality</td>
<td>0.474</td>
<td>6.070</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor Degree</td>
<td>0.225</td>
<td>2.960</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefit of “Kelulut” Honey</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>2.860</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:  
R square (r²) = 0.294, Adjusted R² = 0.280  
F-value =20.273

The estimates of the model coefficients showed in Table 1 for B₀ constant are 1.379 and B₁ (0.474), B₂ (0.164), and B₃ (0.148) respectively for perceived quality, bachelor degree, and benefit of “Kelulut” Honey. The value of B for perceived quality towards “Kelulut” honey is 0.474 and the significant value (p-value) is 0.000. This value indicates that the respondent who concern more about the quality “Kelulut” honey have better preferences compared to those who has less concern about quality of honey. For the Bachelor Degree, the value of B is 0.164 and the significant value (p-value) is 0.004. This value indicates that the respondents with bachelor degree education levels have more knowledge and information about “Kelulut” honey compared to other respondents. The value of B for benefit of “Kelulut” honey is 0.402 and the significant value (p-value) is 0.005. This value indicates that the respondent who more beliefs on the benefits of “Kelulut” honey had better perceptions than the respondent who had less beliefs.

CONCLUSION

This shows that the “Kelulut” Honey produced by Syamille Agrofarm & Resort has the potential to become a successful Agro-Tourism product. The information and findings gathered throughout the study shows that consumer satisfaction for “Kelulut” honey in Syamille Agrofarm & Resort are affected by significant factors. In the descriptive analysis, it was found that the level of satisfaction of consumer was high as the “Kelulut” honey was known to give additional energy in the body. Moreover, buying the “Kelulut” honey from trustworthy sellers also gave consumers satisfaction as the honey was perceived as fresh.

REFERENCES


READY, SET........WAIT APPREHENSIONS AND EXPECTATIONS OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS AFTER GRADUATION

Olivia B. Tabucol, Department of Education Division of Quezon City

ABSTRACT

This is a qualitative research that aimed to determine the expectations and apprehensions of senior high school students after graduation. Using focus group discussion, the participants were composed of 25 Grade 11 students who are enrolled under the TVL Home Economics Track. Results indicate that the students are certain on the importance of pursuing a college degree, securing a national skills assessment certificate and participating in immersion programs as possible means to land a job. The respondents emphasized their expectations on the availability of the needed resources in their school to anchor the effective delivery of learning enabling them to further improve their knowledge and competencies to meet the demands of future employment in the hospitality industry.

Keywords: K-12 program, expectations, apprehension, post-secondary transition

INTRODUCTION

The role of education in any society is to prepare young people to meet the requirements and expectations that the society holds for its citizens (Prince Edward Island, 1998). In earlier societies the role of education was easy to define because life was centered on the struggle to survive and meet essential physical needs (Oteyza, 2012). Today, we can find an almost limitless amount of informed discussion about what a formal public school education should or should not do. The role of education has not changed; but, the society in which our youth are developing has the reality of many more choices, challenges and opportunities than at any other time in human history (Prince Edward Island, 1998). Many in our civilization still equate work with worth and as long as this continues one of the primary roles of the education system is the preparation of students with the knowledge, skills and attitudes that will enable them to become productive and contributing members of our society (Kohler & Field, 2003). We cannot begin to imagine what the work expectations will be for workers in the mid-21st century so we must respond to present and short term future expectations (Bangser, 2008).

In June 2016, aside from the additional two years of Senior High School (SHS),the K-12 program totally restructures the basic education system in the Philippines, aiming to provide some solutions to the widespread unemployment of the youth (Oteyza, 2012). The two years of SHS consists of two parts: Track Subjects - covering the development of skills for immediate employment or entrepreneurship, and Core Subjects - to ensure college readiness of K-12 graduates (Department of Education, 2010). It also facilitates four career tracks for students to choose from: Academic, Technical-Vocational-Livelihood, Sports, and Art & Design. The four different career tracks provide flexibility (Department of Education, 2010). Depending on the goals of the student, as well as the community and industry requirements in a particular region, the Track Subject Curriculum enhances the value and relevance of the high school diploma (TESDA, 2013). Equally important, the Core Subject Curriculum, remaining invariable for all schools, provides an opportunity for everyone to be equally well-prepared for a college education academically (SEAMEO Innotech, 2016). Likewise, by integrating the awarding of TESDA National Certificates at the high school level, K-12 students now of employable age upon graduation would already qualify for decent entry-level jobs (Baldoz, 2015). This also increases the financial capabilities of high school graduates who desire to pursue advancement through higher education (SEAMEO Innotech, 2016).

Transitions from high school to postsecondary education and employment can be
particularly challenging for senior high students, thus this research aims to identify the students’ apprehensions and expectations as well as their future plans being part of the first batch of senior high school graduates in the Philippines.

METHOD

This is a qualitative research which used focus group discussion in collecting the data. The protocols used for this study were approved by the School Head of Judge Feliciano Belmonte Sr. High School prior to data collection. Judge Feliciano Belmonte Sr. High School is a public high school under the Division of Quezon City. To be eligible, the focus group participants had to be Grade 11 Home Economics students under the TVL Track of this school and are currently enrolled in the Food and Beverage Service subject. Three focus groups sessions were conducted in January 2017. Each group lasted for about one hour and was recorded and transcribed verbatim. An informed consent form was provided, and the students reviewed the objectives of the study and guaranteed confidentiality before signing the consent form. Before each session, the participants were asked to complete a short survey of demographic information. An identical set of questions were asked during each focus group and the participants continued discussing each topic until no new idea was generated.

FINDINGS

A total of 25 participants attended the focus group sessions, which merely composed of Grade 11 Food and Beverage Service students of Judge Feliciano Belmonte Sr. High School. As to their future plans, the students mentioned that they would like to take a college degree that is somehow related to their chosen Senior High School Track which is the TVL Home Economics Track. According to them, the purpose of enrolling in college is to further improve their knowledge and skills as well as to enhance one’s traits and work attitudes. Most of them are interested to work in hotels or restaurants. The students are certain that the hospitality industry would prefer to hire college degree holders than senior high school graduates. They perceived that having a college degree, can somehow qualify a person in meeting the expectations and demands of the industry in terms of educational qualifications. On the other hand, due to possible financial constraints in pursuing a post-secondary course, they plan to run a small scale business like a food eatery. Otherwise, they plan to take the TESDA National Skills Assessment to qualify for the minimum training requirements set by some companies. They have the apprehensions on the hiring qualifications standards of the hospitality industry, thus they are expecting that the TESDA National Skills Assessment Certificate would serve as a passport, for them to land a decent job. The students are also expecting that their academic immersion programs in hotels and restaurants can be possible avenues for future employment. Likewise, the participants are convinced that the additional two years in high school would help them acquire the necessary skills and understanding enabling them to become competitive individuals in the future. Also, they mentioned that they are expecting for the availability of all the needed facilities in their school, motivating them to foster enthusiasm in learning hospitality industry competencies among themselves while engaging in worthwhile classroom activities that could bring opportunities for them to become successful front liners of food and beverage service in the future.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study identified the apprehensions and expectations of senior high school students after graduation. Although, it is a fact that the K to 12 program in the Philippines has just started, the implications of this study suggest that there should be initiatives among public school authorities to introduce and establish extension programs that would cater the needed assistance of their graduating students in terms of preparing them for successful transitions to post-secondary education and employment. Policymakers and administrators should face choices in structuring interventions to promote successful transitions from high school. A number of promising approaches are available to support students’ preparation for the educational and workplace demands of the new economy. To maximize the effectiveness of these approaches,
special attention should be paid to increase the rigor, relevance, and engagement of the high school curriculum with the needed resources, making them available for students who would face barriers during post-secondary transitions in the future.

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SUSTAINABILITY OF HERITAGE RAIL TOURISM IN TAIWAN:
APORTER’S DIAMONDMODEL PERSPECTIVE

Ka Leong, Chong, Sunway University

ABSTRACT

Rail tourism is currently well promoted by the Taiwan government. However, the sustainability of this sector is questionable due to high maintenance cost, lack of resources and fierce competition from other safer, faster and cheaper mode of transportation leading to tourist destination. The study aims to assess the sustainability of heritage rail tourism by using the Porter’s Diamond Model as the assessment criteria. The data was collected through a variety of methods inclusive of interviews, observations, and review of documents pertaining to planning, execution and performance of Taiwan heritage rail tourism. This study found that despite the popularity, financial subsidies and extensive promotion effort by Taiwan Railways Administration, the heritage rail tourism in Taiwan is still facing difficulties in remaining sustainable in the long-run due to inefficient firm strategy, poor pricing strategy, and non-user-friendly online ticketing system. Furthermore, with the lack of support by related industries such as hotels, travel agencies and transportation agencies would not able help the heritage rail tourism product to reach out to more visitors, especially to foreigners.

Keywords: Heritage Tourism, Rail Tourism, Taiwan Tourism, Porter’s Diamond Model.

INTRODUCTION

Rail tourism refers to vacations that involve transportation that is conducted by railway which allows better experience of tours (AffordableTours, 2016). Rail tourism is currently well promoted by the Taiwan government, it allows tourist to visit sceneries that are hardly accessed by other transports (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2015). Taiwan rail transport consists of double track rail, electrified rail, high-speed rail, and heritage railway (Taiwan Railways Administration, 2016).

Taiwan railway act as one of the links for tourists to travel to places and brings tourists to different attractions in Taiwan. Thus, Taiwan government puts a lot of effort in promoting rail tourism in Taiwan. Yet, most of the promotions made by the government are more towards the Taiwan High Speed Rail than the Taiwan heritage railway. Currently, there are only 4 branch lines that uses traditional trains in Taiwan, with some of the lines being one of the most popular tourist attractions (Tourism Bureau, 2015). However, more attention and effort are being put on HSR instead of heritage rails in Taiwan, as more HSR stations are being built, with a total of 12 stations as of today (Wang & Lee, 2016). The increase of HSR stations have raised the question of whether heritage rail would be able to sustain in the future.

Based on recent studies by Shelley (2015), the sustainability of the heritage railway is questionable, whereby it is essential to incur high cost in maintaining the heritage railways in Taiwan. As such, the cost refers to track maintenance cost, labor cost, and operation cost. For example, it could cost as high as NT$18.355 billion to maintain, and renew the tracks that reached fatigue and replacement level, as the tracks disintegrate through time (Taiwan Railways Administration, 2016). As a result, this has led to a great challenge to the TRA.

Furthermore, the heritage rail is facing sustainability issue due to strong competition. Direct competition causes heritage rail to be viewed as low speed, time consuming, and low accessibility. One of the direct competitors of heritage rail is Taiwan’s high-speed rail (HSR). HSR was introduced in 2007, and it mainly depends on imported technology as well as hardware from Japan’s Shinkansen line. Additionally, HSR was supported with the European (Train à Grande Vitesse and Intercity-Express) traffic management system (Andersson, et al., 2012). With all the advantages, HSR is able to shorten the travel time compared to the heritage rail. In addition, the HSR route was planned to prevent the occurrence of earthquake and soft grounds in order to ensure safety for passengers.
(Andersson, Shyr, & Fu, 2010). Hence, the high accessibility, safety, and convenience brought by HSR is strongly capable in lowering the demand for heritage rail.

According to the news from the Taipei Times, TRA aimed to replace the heritage rail by purchasing 1,307 new trains within the upcoming 10 years (Shelley, 2015). As the TRA launched the 10 years plan in replacing the heritage rail, it has proven that there is an issue on the sustainability of the heritage rail tourism in Taiwan. Thus, the objectives of this research are to explore the sustainability of heritage rail tourism in the long-run, and to determine the degree of competitiveness of heritage rail tourism in Taiwan.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Past studies and Gap

Past studies on rail tourism related to market behavior were found to be the most researched area. These researches (e.g. Cheng, 2010; Lyons, Holley and Jain, 2008; Lyons, Holley and Jain, 2007; Beirão and Cabral, 2010; and Watts, 2008) have examined customers’ behavior and their appreciation towards rail tourism. These studies aimed to understand customer’s needs, the appreciation of travelling time for different type of passengers and the factors that influence passenger’s choice of travelling mode. Findings have shown the factors like anxiety, travel time, service provided and purpose of travelling are the main determinant that drives the intention to travel with rail.

Besides that, research on the potential of rail tourism was carried by Jain and Lyons (2008) and Brons, Givoni and Rietveld (2009). Both researches focused on future potential of rail tourism and aim to introduce new concepts that could increase the appreciation of travelling with rail. Their findings revealed that positive perception and experience could improve satisfaction. Other than that, future investment, marketing, refurbishment and railway accessibility would potentially increase the use of railway.

On the other hand, the impact of rail tourism has also caught the attention of Chan, Lau, Lee and Chan (2002) and Nieuwenhuijsen, Gomez-Perales and Colville (2007). Their studies aimed to investigate on the level of air pollution, chemical composition and respirable particulates that the commuters are exposed while traveling on public transportation and the potential of affecting the environment (Chan, Lau, Lee & Chan, 2002; Nieuwenhuijsen, Gomez-Perales & Colville, 2007). Their findings have indicated that non-air-conditioned and tram has the highest level of exposure. The dust found in the railway is considered to be even more toxic (due to high iron content) compared to ambient airborne particulates.

These past studies have shown certain gaps. Firstly, most of the researches are conducted in the context of European country. The focus mainly on high-speed rail, express rail, and electric rail with little known of heritage rail. Besides that, past studies seem to reflect more of consumer-centric where emphasis mainly on the customers consuming behavior and also the structure of the railway industry. These studies have overlooked the importance of the supply-side of the railway industry in particular to the sustainability for rail tourism.

Rail Tourism in Taiwan

Rail tourism is when people takes rail to travel around the country. It is especially popular in Europe and India where the railway networks are well developed and promoted. Railway tourism in Taiwan is gradually gaining back its popularity in recent years. The history of rail tourism in Taiwan dates back to 1992, when President of Republic of China, Mr. Lee Teng Hui whom took the round-island train trip after the round-island network is completed gave instructions to TRA to promote railway tourism in Taiwan (Hwang, 2010). Tourism is one of the major industry in Taiwan. According to reports by Taiwan Tourism Bureau (2016), the number of visitors travelling to Taiwan showed positive growth every year with approximately 72% percent of the total number of visitors visited Taiwan for recreational purposes. In 2010, out of 3,235,477 visitors, more than 710,000 tourists visited Alishan railway, which is one of the most popular tourist attraction in Taiwan (Taipei Times, 2011). The statistics shows that rail tourism is still significant in boosting Taiwan’s tourism industry.

Porter’s Diamond Model in Assessing Sustainability

In this study, the adoption of Porter’s Diamond Model enables the research on how does heritage rails remain its competitiveness when HSR is con-
stantly being developed in Taiwan and the booming of the usage of HSR compared to heritage rail since its introduction to Taiwan (Ministry of Transportation and Communication R.O.C., 2016).

There are 4 elements in the Porter’s Diamond Model, which are factor conditions, home demand conditions, related and supporting industries and firm strategy, structure and rivalry. Factor conditions refer to the local country’s production factors such as manpower, natural resources, capital resources and infrastructure that enables a specific industry to create a product or service within the country or region (Ozgen, 2011). Resources are particularly important for the determination of the competitiveness of a specific industry as resources are the “raw materials” and “facets of production” that leads to the development of the industry (Zhang & London, 2013). Taking infrastructure in the rail system as an example, if the heritage rail system does not have the fundamental facilities such as the availability of online ticket purchasing, it will lead to the HSR which provides the service of e-ticketing having higher competitive advantage than the heritage rail systems and thus reducing the competitiveness of heritage rail system in Taiwan.

Next element is the home demand conditions, which refers to the local demand for the product or services that is given by a particular industry or country (Ozgen, 2011). The domestic demand of the industry can be one of the aspects of competitive advantage of a certain product or service (Johnson, Whittington, and Scholes, 2011). When there is a high domestic demand, it will induce the industry to innovate and produce more advanced products or services in order to strive within the industry (Zhang & London, 2013). For example, if the demand of tourists for HSR in Taiwan is high, it would cause the heritage rail company to create or introduce new services to the tourists in order to attract more tourists and sustain their business.

The third element of Porter’s Diamond Model is the related and supporting industries, which are the existence of the competitive supplying and supporting industries (Ozgen, 2011). The support of the other industries enables the building of network across other industries, such as connections between the local suppliers and the industry itself. When an industry gets strong support from other industries, it would lead them to being more competitive in terms of resources, costs, technological transfer and so on. Using travel agencies as one of the supporting industries for instance, if the travel agencies include heritage rail tour in most of their travel package for tourists, it would create an impression to the tourists that going for a heritage rail tour is a must in Taiwan and it would lead to higher usage of heritage rails. Hence, the presence of the supporting industries plays a major role in aiding the product or services to develop and improve in order to remain competitiveness in the industry.

Lastly, the firm strategy, structure and rivalry refers to the strategies and structures used by a firm that would influence the competitiveness of a certain industry as well as the intensity of competition in the industry itself (Zhang & London, 2013). Strategies and structures of a firm such as the ability to react to changing environment can be one of the main source of competitive advantage as it differs itself from other competitors through the strategies imposed and the structures used. The ability of firms to come out with strategies and structures that are able to tackle ever-changing conditions and environment in the industry is hard to be imitated by the competitors and thus can be the competitive advantage of the firm to be successful in the competitive industry (Ozgen, 2011). For example, if the heritage rail organizations which are being threatened by the newly launched HSR is able to come out with differentiation strategies in order to remain competitive in the rail tourism industry and reorganize the structure of the organization to tackle the problem of the declining numbers of tourists using heritage rails, it could be the competitive advantage of the Rail Tourism in Taiwan.

**METHOD**

**Research Approach**

In order to measure the level of sustainability of heritage rails in Taiwan, factual information, thoughts, views, and preferences by the rail operators as well as users are required to be investigated. Therefore, qualitative research is used in this research, which the research was carried out in the natural setting and open-ended questions are asked based on the interviewee’s experience, perception and meanings towards the issues (Hammarberg, et al., 2016). Other than that, case study approach was used to obtain a comprehensive understanding of a complicated phenomenon within its real-life con-
text (Yin, 2012). The deteriorating heritage rails in Taiwan requires an in-depth understanding on its competitiveness as compared to other competitors such as HSR in terms of demand and costing. The data was collected through a variety of methods, inclusive of interviews, observations, and review of documents.

**Sampling Plan**

The tourism bureau of Taiwan is promoting seven heritage railways (Neiwan Line, Western Line, Jiji Line, Alishan Forest Line, Pingxi Line, Eastern Line, South Line). However, this research will only focus on Alishan Forest Railway because of its popularity and it is the only heritage railway that is highly promoted by the local government (Taiwan Railways Administration, 2016). Collection of data like interviews and observation will be done throughout the visitation to Alishan Forest Railway Administration as well as railway line leading to Alishan namely the Main Line, Zhushan Line, Mianyue Line and Shuishan Line (Taiwan Railways Administration, 2016). Shuishan Line which is previously known as Dongpu Line has been reconstructed by the Forestry Bureau in the year of 2003, however it hasn’t start its operation after the restoration, therefore it was excluded from the study. Other than that, the Taiwan Forestry Bureau was also interviewed to explore the obstacles of their operation pertaining to rail tourism development.

**Table 1. Data Collection Approach**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area of Assessment</th>
<th>What To Assess?</th>
<th>How?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factors Conditions</td>
<td>• The popularity of heritage rail among the locals and tourists.</td>
<td>• Primary data was collected through onsite observation at the railway station and interview with TRA and Taiwan Forestry Bureau.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The effort of TRA in promoting heritage rail.</td>
<td>• Visual materials such as photographs and videotape were captured pertaining to the resources at the railway station and the evidence of TRA in promoting heritage rail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The significance of advanced technology and the capacity of heritage rail.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The cost incurred for maintenance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demand Conditions</td>
<td>• The demanding nature of the consumers/government/regulators towards the heritage rail.</td>
<td>• Interview with the Alishan Forest Railway Administration and TRA with regards to demand and supply.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related and Supporting</td>
<td>• The role of travel agencies, accommodation and TRA in promoting and supporting the heritage rail tourism.</td>
<td>• Review of tourists statistic from the Taiwan Railways Annual Report.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Firm Strategy, Structure,</td>
<td>• The effectiveness of the strategies on promotion, ticketing system and the development of HSR.</td>
<td>• Experiential audit on the online and onsite purchasing ticket system at the railway station.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivalry</td>
<td>• The support from non-profit organization.</td>
<td>• Interview the TRA management on the strategic planning of the heritage rail.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• The competition between heritage rail and HSR.</td>
<td>• Review of Taiwan Railways Annual Reports and Taiwan High Speed Rail Annual Reports on current performance and future development.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data Validity**

Triangulation was the approach used in this study to ensure that the data collected and the interpretation of the data to be valid and trustworthy. Triangulation is the combination of two or more data sources, researchers, methodologic approaches, theoretical perspectives, and analytical practices within the same study (Thurmond, 2001). The four types of triangulation that promote the validity and credibility of qualitative research are methods triangulation, triangulation of sources, analyst triangulation, and theory triangulation (Patton, 1999).

Methods triangulation refers to viewing the same phenomena, event, or research questions, from more than single source of material (Golafshani, 2003). For example, the sources of information are observation, interview, recording, secondary data such as journals, newspaper, and books. The particulars coming from diverse point of view can be adopted to verify, elaborate, and elucidate the re-
search questions. It helps in restricting methodological and personal biases, as well as improving the study’s generalizability (Decrop, 1999). Triangulation of sources indicates comparing the consistency of information obtained from different sources through the same method (Patton, 1999). For instance, this can be done by interviewing variety of sources such as the tour agency operator, person in charge of heritage rail ticketing counter, and TRA officer.

In addition, analyst triangulation will be employed in this study by having multiple analysts to construe the same data collected in order to prevent personal prejudice during interpretation of data (Hussein, 2015). For example, several peer researchers will interpret the data collected from interview session together to avoid potential bias, and to enhance the reliability of data.

Theory triangulation denotes the researchers approach the data obtained with various concepts and theories in order to have a comprehensive understanding about the data (Reeves, et al., 2008). For instance, according to stakeholder theory, a strategic and direct objective that explains the mission will help the administrations such as TRA to avoid managerial conflict, confusion, inefficiency, as well as to be more competitive in the industry (Jensen, 2001). This is strongly supported by the global theory whereby the field of strategic management highly depends on strategic objectives in achieving efficiency (Ghoshal, 1987).

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of interpretation and analysis of the data collected (Creswell, 1994). Content analysis is used throughout the analysis of data, whereby it is a method used by researchers to analyze data and make valid and replicable judgement through interpretation and text data coding (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005)

FINDINGS

Factor Conditions

a. Popularity and future development

The heritage rail has remained its popularity mainly due to routes leading to Alishan station. Other than that, the partnerships between Taiwan’s iconic Alishan Forest Railway and Swiss railway operator Matterhorn Gotthard Bahn (MGB), along with its subsidiary Gornergrat Bahn are expected to induce product development, promote tourism in Asia and Europe, and increase the popularity of heritage railway (TaiwanToday, 2016)

![Image 1: Tourist crowd in Alishan station](source: Ang (2016))

This situation indicates that the popularity of heritage rail would remain strong due to continual effort shown in improving the rail related facilities. Product development strategy is believed to be an important source of competitive advantage. Product development that involves innovation, or modification is a necessary process for success and survival (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1995)

b. Effort in promotion

The observation results and email response had shown that TRA helps in promoting heritage rail (Image 3 and Image 4). Furthermore, the interview session had revealed that FBT also helps in promoting heritage rail (Appendix 2). This is supported by evidences from online audit and experimental audit, as the travel guide center, hotel in Chiayi, as well as the travel agency have assisted in promoting the heritage rail (Image 5 and Image 6).

![Image 4.3: Notice regarding heritage rail](source: Ang (2016))

Appendix 1: “Yes, the demand for the main line is very high but the supply is very low and the supply cannot meet the high demand.” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Branch)
Appendix 2: “In order to further promote the railways, we distribute the reading materials to the people so that they can have a comprehensive understanding about heritage railway and learn to appreciate the heritage elements. As we realized people only know Alishan as a forest railway but people do not know the specialties and the heritage values and thus, we will conduct forum hoping people will have better understanding about forest railway.” (Wei, Yu-Shiuan, Conservation and Recreation Division / Facilities Management Section / Section Chief, Forestry Bureau)

Appendix 7: “We will have more package with travel agency to attract more foreigners to take our trains.” (Lili, Yun-Ting Hsu, Administrative Office Secretary, Taiwan Railway Administration)

These findings denote that the promotion strategies were well in place and it would enhance the competitiveness of rail tourism in Taiwan. Promotional activities was stated to be one of the most important elements that helps firm to achieve its marketing goals, and contributes to the competitiveness of an industry in the country (Singh, 2012).

c. Cost

Based on interview session with FBT, the current profit gained by heritage railway is not sufficient to offset the high maintenance cost. However, the authorities had utilized other sources of income to support the operation of Alishan forest railway (Appendix 2). This statement is agreed by email responses from TRA (Appendix 7). Besides, it is supported by an online news stated that although high cost will be incurred in order to maintain the heritage railways in Taiwan, the government is willing to support the rail tourism (Shelley, 2015).

Appendix 2: “We are currently making 1.3 million TWD annually but the maintenance cost annually is 3.5 million TWD. Thus, we increase the price hoping it will bring us at least 1.7 million TWD annually. We will use the profit from other recreation areas to cover the losses in Alishan forest railway.” (Chang Tzuwei, Associate Technical Specialist Recreation Division, Forestry Bureau, 2016)

Appendix 7: “TRA current financial resources does not sufficient to offset the maintenance cost for heritage railway. We run repayment career to support ourselves financial issue.” (Lili, Yun-Ting Hsu, Administrative Office Secretary, Taiwan Railway Administration, 2016)

It seems to show that the Rail Tourism in Taiwan highly depending on revenue diversification to sustain its financial performance. These may not be a critical concern as additional revenue streams enhance the firm’s financial stability, and promote greater firm’s longevity causing it to sustain for longer term in the industry (Carroll & Stater, 2009).

d. Resources

The heritage rail is currently receiving support in terms of financial resources from FBT (Appendix 2). It was also revealed that there is an issue of manpower and material shortage such as technician, train driver, train guides, counter attendants, as well
as the supplies of spare part for the heritage rail (Appendix 1). Based on observation, the maintenance of heritage rail is not easily done, as the number of qualified technician is limited and the area seems run-down.

**Appendix 1:** “The service area of Zhushan station is limited due to the crowd as people have no space to sit and they can only stand. Steam locomotives are not easy to maintain because the equipment could not be found now. The production company of the equipment and device needed for the steam locomotives were closed. We could not purchase the equipment and device for the steam locomotives.” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Branch, 2016)

**Appendix 2:** “As we know, the Alishan forest railway requires high cost to maintain it, and it has low profit margin as well resulting it to experience great loss. Since TRA is considered as a company and it is not willing to bear the losses, FBT will show support to forest railway through financial resources, and FBT will be the one that bear the losses.” (Wei, Yu-Shiuian, Conservation and Recreation Division, Facilities Management Section, Section Chief, Forestry Bureau, 2016)

The issue of insufficient resources such as manpower, machine, and material would raise a question of sustainability of rail tourism here in Taiwan. This argument can be supported by resource management concept, as lack of resources would hinder the formation of capabilities and hence, inhibit the realization of competitive advantage (Sirmon, et al., 2008).

**Demand Condition**

a. High Demand

The effort in promoting heritage rail are supported by various parties, which includes the government and other supporting industries. As a result, there is a positive effect on the demand for heritage rail. Furthermore, the interview between the FBT and Alishan Forest Railway Administration (AFRA) have indicated significant demand (Appendix 1, Appendix 2). Another interview with the AE shows that the demand during weekend is more than weekdays (Appendix 5). The findings are validated through the news announced by the Forestry Bureau when Alishan Forest Railway Awarded with ISO9001:2008 Certificate. The Alishan Mountain is the most popular tourist attraction for the local and foreign tourists, the heritage rail is known as the most attractive one (Forestry Bureau, 2014). Other than that, based on the statistic provided by Alishan National Scenic Area, there is in total of 2,988,101 tourists during year 2015, which indicates high demand in the use of the rail services (Alishan National Scenic Area, 2016).

**Appendix 1:** “Generally I think during some holidays the demand will be high. It is seasonal. Every Wednesday during the flower blossom season, the demand will be higher than usual days…” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Administration, 2016)

**Appendix 1:** “Yes, the demand for the main line is very high but the supply is very low and the supply cannot reach the high demand…” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Administration, 2016)

**Appendix 1:** “Yes. We have increased the train trips from Alishan to Shen Mu station and Zhao Ping stations from 10 trips to 12 trips. Before this year’s May, the round trip from Alishan to Shennu and Zhao Ping were only 10. Now we have increased it to 12. We started the first train trip earlier…” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Administration, 2016)

**Appendix 2:** “FBT does not consider this strategy because the statistics received has shown positive results whereby the seats are fully occupied…” (Wei Yu-Shiuian, Conservation and Recreation Division, Facilities Management Section, Section Chief, Forestry Bureau, 2016)

**Appendix 5:** “For weekday, Zhao Ping Line and Shen Mu Line are the same, but there are more people during weekends.” (Alishan Station Ticketing Employee, 2016)

The findings evidence that the demand level for heritage rail has significant effect on the competitiveness of rail tourism. Therefore, in this case, high demand enables rail tourism to be competitive. This argument is cited by Ni (2012) stating that demand enables the organization to achieve competitiveness and cost effectiveness through improving the level of production and quality of the product.

b. Low Supply

The result acquired from the interview with AFRA indicated the issues pertaining to insufficient supply such as lack of trains, lack of manpower and low capacity (Appendix 1). Similarly, FBT have commented the same remark. The findings are also evidently gathered through the observations, whereby there are minimum number of employees at the railway station and the there is only one counter
available for the customers to purchase their ticket. Besides that, there isn’t any help desk that could provide any assistance for the customer except the ticketing counter (Image 7, Image 8).

Appendix 1: “The demand is high even during non-holidays season. During holidays, we would not promote because the ticket is limited and if there is a lot of people, there will be not enough capacity for them. The visitors have also complained about the insufficient of the ticket amount even during non-holidays season.” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Administration, 2016)

These result seems to suggest that the competitiveness of the Heritage Rail Tourism in Taiwan would be disadvantage from the much equipped and manned High-speed rail counter-parts. According to Gucel (2016), the main element for the organization to be competitive and allow business to grow is the availability of resources.

c. The Demanding Nature of Customers
Common complaints pertaining to the facility of the railway station are related to the cleanliness of the toilet, and the insufficiency of seating capacity in the train. (Appendix 1).

Firm’s Strategy, Structure and Rivalry

a. Poor Online Ticketing System
The observations have shown that the online ticketing system of from Chiayi Railway Station to Fengqihu Station is not clear and confusing. The online booking system of Alishan Railway Station is also difficult for the foreign tourists. According to Taiwan Railways Administration website, some of the stations do not appear as an options (Image 9). Other than that, from the Alishan Forest Railway Online Ticketing System website, it only shows information using Traditional Mandarin and there is no choices of language such as English or other languages given in the website (Image 10).

Appendix 1: “…Sometimes we also received complaints from passengers that the toilet is not clean or the train is not enough especially the Zhushan line. The service area of Zhushan station is limited due to the crowd as people have no space to sit and they can only stand.” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Branch 2016)
The issue of poor online ticketing system would affect the demand of visitors towards Alishan Railway. Visitors, mainly foreigners, may feel reluctant to visit Alishan Railway due to the inefficient online ticketing system provided by TRA, leading to lower competitiveness. According to Teimouri, Yaghoubi and Kazemi (2012), high quality electronic services would lead to higher customers purchasing intention.

b. Intense Competition

There is no direct competition between HSR and heritage rail in Taiwan. However, there is an intense competition between the heritage rail, tour buses and forest trails and shuttle buses in Alishan Railway Station (Appendix 3). There is also competition between districts tourism in Taiwan (Appendix 6).

Appendix 3: “We took the bus”, “They travel through bus”, “We walk up here” (Tour Guides, 2016)

Appendix 4: “We travelled up using heritage rail.”, “We walked up here”, “We walked up here” (Local Travellers, 2016)

Appendix 6: “Matters related to Alishan Railway have to interview Chiayi Tourism Bureau as it is under their govern. We are actually competing with each other to attract tourists.” (Sun Chung Liang, Chief, Tourism Bureau of Kaohsiung City Government, 2016)

c. Ineffective Pricing Strategy

FBT had just increased the price of the heritage rail fare in Alishan station after 20 years of fixed ticket price. The fares are set based on the distance of the railway from one station to another added with a base price set by the FBT. The setting of ticket prices based just on the distance is deemed unreasonable because there are other aspects such as the service provided, infrastructures offered, manpower and heritage preservation efforts that sum-up a higher operating costs.

Appendix 1: “The ticketing system is simplified by the government sector which is by using the distance to determine the price set for the tickets. ... we have a base distance which if the price of the ticket is below the base price, we would add the base price and the price counted by the distance together and it would determine the price of the tickets.” (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Branch, 2016)

The pricing strategy used by FBT that takes neither demand nor cost into consideration while setting the price would decrease the competitiveness of Alishan Railway and eventually affects the sustainability of the heritage railway in the future. According to Navickas and Malakauskaite (2009), price could be set based on indicators which include infrastructure development, environment, technological development, human resource, social development and human tourism in order to be competitive.

Related and Supporting Industries

a. Travel agencies

Through the interviews with the tour guides in Alishan National Scenic Area (ANSA), it shows that the travel agencies do not put in a lot of effort in supporting the Alishan Heritage Railway
(Appendix 3). Only 30% of the tour guides are willing to promote Heritage Rail due to the schedule, tourist demographic and price sensitivity towards the increase of ticket price. Other than that, the itinerary of many tour agencies do not promote Heritage Railway but promoting high-speed rail as main transport. Even though some of the tour agencies do promote Alishan, but they do not suggest travelers to go on Heritage Rail.

**Appendix 3**: ‘tour guides are given authorities to decide on whether to promote Heritage Rail’ (Tour Guide, 2016)

**b. Accommodations**

The enquires session at the hotels near ANSA showed negative responses towards the promotion of Heritage Railway. Through the samples, none of the staff from all hotels has suggested for Heritage Rail Tour. However, on the websites of the hotels, it does suggest Alishan Heritage Railway but it was not translated into foreign languages. Even though the website of the hotel does mention about Alishan Heritage Rail, however the last update was in the year of 2005. Other than that, some hotels do not even promote anything about Alishan on their webpage. Overall, the support of promoting Heritage Railway from the Hotels nearby is very low. The support from the hotel especially the concierge is much needed to improve the competitiveness of heritage rail tourism in Taiwan. According Mackenzie (2013), Concierge plays an important role in promoting the destination and create excitement for the travelers.

**c. Support from Administration Agencies**

TRA has a plan to draw more visitors through partnerships (Appendix 7) and FBT has given financial support to Heritage Railway (Appendix 2). While AFRA (Appendix 1) invested in maintaining the operations of the Heritage Rail.

**Appendix 1**: ‘We have to enhance the infrastructure and make it stronger. We have to invest another amount to prevent the disaster’ (Jhy-Pyng Lin, Ph.D., Deputy Director, Alishan Forest Railway Branch, 2016)

**Appendix 2**: ‘The most significant resource to maintain forest railway is financial resource. Although the maintenance cost will be extremely high, we are still willing to repair and preserve it due to the heritage and historical value.’ (Chang Tzuwei, Associate Technical Specialist Recreation Division, Forestry Bureau, 2016)

**Appendix 7**: ‘In the future, we will have more package with travel agency and High Speed Rail to attract more foreigners to take our trains.’ (Lili, Yun-Ting Hsu, Administrative Office Secretary, Taiwan Railway Administration, 2016).

**CONCLUSION**

Despite the high popularity, financial subsidies and effective promotion effort by TRA, heritage rail tourism in Taiwan, especially in the case of Alishan Forestry Railway, is facing difficulties in remaining sustainable in the long-run. Without efficient firm strategy and structure, which are poor pricing strategy and online ticketing system, it will certainly hurt the sales of heritage rail in long term, causing the heritage rail to be disadvantaged in terms of competitiveness. Moreover, without any effort of improving the lack of resources, the competitiveness of heritage rail would be heavily affected which would lead to heritage rail being unsustainable in long term. Furthermore, with the lack of support by related industries such as accommodation around the heritage rail station, travel agencies and transportation agencies to promote heritage rail in Taiwan, heritage rail tourism would not be able to reach out to more visitors, especially foreigners.

Based on the findings, the heritage rail has been taking up the financial support from the government immoderately. Hence, it is recommended for government to support the heritage rail by developing a strong domestic financial system so that it provides a clearer cash flow of the profit generated and ease the financial planning for the development of heritage rail (Jaud, et al., 2013). Besides, government is suggested to understand the value of heritage rail, and implement an appropriate pricing strategy so that to increase the revenue. It might also include cooperation from accounting, finance, sales, marketing teams to guarantee the effectiveness of the strategy (Lancioni, 2005). As a result, the government will have extra resources to invest into other advantageous tourism sectors, and making the Taiwan tourism to be more competitive.

The poor utilization of technology in this fast changing world would decrease the competitiveness
of heritage rail, as it will inhibit the process of internal capability accumulation, and restrain the expansion of strength of rail tourism (Voudouris, et al., 2012). Besides, it would also lead to the formation of consumers’ poor perception towards heritage rail. Thus, it is suggested for government to introduce sophisticated technology in order to increase the convenience in purchasing tickets. For example, mobile commerce application should be utilized because it offers convenient, localization, as well as personalized services to the consumers. This technology is proved to enhance the efficiency of complex procedures and quality of services to consumers, as well as to save the operational cost in long run (Hussin, et al., 2005). Consequently, the technology innovation not only increases value in knowledge-intensive processes, but also helps to attract the foreigners to purchase tickets leading to a rise in the degree of competitiveness of rail tourism (Enkel, et al., 2009).

The demanding nature of the customers is inevitable. Based on the findings, government only support marginally and neglected the maintenance issue causing a lot of complaints. As the administration did not respond immediately, these negative complaints may lead to the formation of negative perception towards the Alishan Heritage Railway causing the Image of the destination to be affected adversely. Hence, the tourists might not be willing to return to the destination in the future causing an issue of the sustainability of heritage rail in long run. Therefore, it is recommended for the organization to perform service recovery immediately after the negative complaints arisen.

The lack of support from the related and supporting industries has result in the Alishan Heritage Railway unable to reach out to its target market effectively. Findings showed that the heritage railway is less competitive compared to its competitors who gain support from the related and supporting industries such as travel agencies. Jackson & Murphy (2006) stated by collaborating with the related and supporting industries closely to increase the competitiveness and reach out to customers beyond the target market more effectively. The collaboration with the related and supporting industries enable the increase of the county’s economic opportunities as it creates employment opportunities as well as business opportunities for the local communities (Ashley, et al., 2007). Besides that, by working together it helps to promote the historical values of the heritage rail effectively to attract tourists around the world.

This study is limited to the focus on Alishan Forest Heritage Railway and did not include other heritage rails in Taiwan which might cause the result to be beneficial only for Alishan Heritage Railway. However, this study able to provide considerable insights of the competitiveness of heritage rail tourism in Taiwan. Future research is suggested to research on the overall Taiwan Heritage Railway besides Alishan Forestry Railway for a wider and complete understanding.

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THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG INSTITUTIONAL ENVIRONMENT, MANAGERS’ VIEW AND CSR PRACTICE IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

The CSR has been discussed and raised the awareness in all industries around the world and consequently relevant activities are inescapable and inseparable with corporations’ operation in the tourism industry. The previous study indicated the effectiveness and authenticity of CSR implementation have strongly connected with the consequence of CSR (Alhouti, Johnson, & Holloway, 2016). In other words, the initiative of the implementation that is most heavily influenced by Managers’ value and belief (Dickson, Smith, Grojean, & Ehrhart, 2001; Liu, Hsu, & Wang, 2009) is a very important element of the CSR program. Moreover, one of the most important duties of managers is decision making. Therefore, the manager’s perspective plays a crucial role of governing CSR program. The previous study claimed that the managers should perceive the important of ethics and social responsibility (PRESOR) before they act in the same way (Singhapakdi, Vitell, Rallapalli, & Kraft, 1996). The PRESOR that includes stakeholder view and stockholder view (Etheredge, 1999; Wurthmann, 2013) were used for understanding “a manager’s perception regarding the roles of ethics and socially responsibility as determinants of different aspects of organizational effectiveness” (Singhapakdi, 1999, p. 92); The stakeholder view shows a long-term perspective that considers the profit of the sustainability and entire corporations-related entities for an organization; and the stockholder view focus on the perspective of the maximum profit of an organization (Wurthmann, 2013). Therefore, the PRESOR can help us to explore the view of manager and to understand the initiative of implementing of CSR.

PRESOR can be positively influenced by the external stimuli (Wurthmann, 2013). In the current society, obeying the institution for an organization is regarded as taken for granted for the performance that fits the legitimacy of society (DiMaggio & Powell, 1991). Therefore, the view of an individual also can be affected by external environmental effects. There are three pillars, including the regulatory, cognitive, and normative institution of the institutional environment that “reflects the existing laws and rules in a particular national environment that promote certain types of behaviors and restrict others” (Kostova, 1999, p. 314). Previous studies indicated that CSR activity might have a strong connection with many institutional factors. When many corporations have already implemented the relevant activity, the other corporations may receive the peer pressure that forces them to implement similar practice (Campbell, 2007). In addition to, the regulation and law can force corporation to implement the CSR for insulating the unfavorable tax or regulatory punishment and gaining access to favorable laws or regulation (Navarro, 1988). Finally, the social norm may be a critical factor from the external environment to push a corporation to behave the social responsibility for the given country (Kostova, 1999). Therefore, the institutional environment can influence the an organization and its members to behave ethically and responsibly.

Fewer ethics and CSR literature discussed the institutional effects and individual level in the past (Campbell, 2007; Yin, Singhapakdi, & Du, 2016), much less in the tourism field. Therefore, the study is to fix the gap and to understand the relationship among influence of institutional environment, the managers’ view of the important of Ethics and CSR, and the CSR practice. To find out whether the influence of the institutional aspect may affect the manager’s belief (stakeholder view and stockholder view) and then influences the CSR practice. The following hypotheses were proposed:

H1A: Institutional environment positively affects the manager’s PRESOR stakeholder view.
H1B: Institutional environment negatively affects the manager’s PRESOR stockholder view.
H2A: Manager’s PRESOR stakeholder view positively affects the CSR practice.
H2B: Manager’s PRESOR stockholder view negatively affects the CSR practice.

METHOD

The study adopted purposive sampling to recruit the research participants who are in managerial positions and work in the tourism relevant companies which have already implemented the CSR activities.

The instrument that the researchers adopted includes four sections. First, the institutional environment that includes three dimensions, including peer pressure, regulatory pressure, and social normative internalization and 13 items (Kostova & Roth, 2002; Yin et al., 2016) and the Cronbach’s α values are between .70-.74. The second variable- PRESOR scale with ten items (Singhapakdi et al., 1996; Yin et al., 2016). Because there are many dimensions emerged in the previous studies, this study conducted a factor analysis, and the result showed two factors, including Stakeholder view, and Stockholder accounted for 70.71 % of the variance had the same factor number as the previous study (Etheredge, 1999; Wurthmann, 2013) and the Cronbach’s α values of the dimensions are .92 and .81 respectively.

The last variable is CSR that has four dimensions including economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic responsibilities and 23 items (Kim, Song, & Lee, 2016; Lee, Song, Lee, Lee, & Bernhard, 2013; Maignan, 2001). The Cronbach’s α values from .80 to .95. Because the study interested in the result of overall CSR, the mean of the scale was used in the analysis. A 7-point Likert’s scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree” was adopted for research participant to rate in the study. Finally, demographic information was asked including gender, age, educational status, occupation, etc.

This study adopted the Partial Least Square SEM (PLS-SEM) launched by Wold (1975) originally is one kind of technical of SEM that the basis is component-based. This technical can tolerant the small sample size for running a model (Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012), and the analyzed goal was to identify the key driver in a model (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011). The numbers of participants in this study achieved a sufficient level for the PLS SEM (Marcoulides & Saunders, 2006); therefore, this study used utilized the SmartPLS software v2.0 to analyze the data.

FINDINGS

The researchers distributed 120 questionnaires and received 113 (94%) validate responses. The demographic results showed about 69% participants were female; around 82.1% were higher than 31 years old; 79.3% participants’ education were higher than high school.

The study separated to two models according to the different views of PRESOR. In the model of the PRESOR stakeholder view, the Cronbach’s alpha values of the three variables are between .84-.95; the Composite Reliability (CR) values of each variable are within .90-.96; AVE values are between .73-.76; and R2 section, the manager’s PRESOR stakeholder view is affected by Institutional environment and receives a value 62% and the CSR is influenced by the other two variables and receives a value 43%; and the Gof value is .63 exceeding the threshold value of .36 for a large effect size 2 (Cohen, Pant, & Sharp, 1998)(Cohen, 1988). The result shows a good explanation power, reliability, and validity of the model of the PRESOR stakeholder view. In the model of the PRESOR stockholder view, the Cronbach’s alpha values of the three variables are between .80-.89; the Composite Reliability (CR) values of each variable are within .88-.91; AVE values are between .72-.75; and R2 section, the manager’s PRESOR stockholder view is affected by Institutional environment and receives a value 3% and the CSR is influenced by the other two variables and receives a value 3%; and the Gof is lower the threshold value .1(Cohen et al., 1998). The result shows the model of the PRESOR stockholder view has good reliability and validity, but worse model fit and explanation power.

The result of the path coefficients presents as table 1. The Institutional environment positively affects manager’s PRESOR stakeholder view (β=.79, p<0.001) that supported the hypothesis 1A, but not has a significant influence on PRESOR stockholder view (β=.19, p>0.05) that is not supported the hypothesis 1B. Furthermore, the PRESOR stakeholder view positively affects CSR (β=.65, p<0.001) but supported the hypothesis 2A, but the PRESOR stockholder view does not significantly affect CSR (β =-.17, p>0.05).


CONCLUSION

Because the CSR has been one of the most important operations of a corporation, the CSR performances of a corporation have been paid attentions by its stakeholders, including the internal or external environment. Previous studies rarely discussed the influence of external environment of organizations' institutional environment and the manager’s view of ethics and social responsibility in the tourism field. Therefore, this study fixed the gap for contributing to the CSR research in the tourism industry.

The result shows that the institutional environment that includes peer pressure, regulation pressure, and social normative internalization has a strong influence on the manager’s PRESOR stakeholder view and then influence the CSR practice indirectly. However, the institutional environment does not significantly affect the PRESOR stakeholder view of managers and then does not have an effect on CSR practice. The consequence indicates that the institutional environment can drive the belief and value of organizations’ managers to pay attention or to influence their thought about the important of the ethics and social responsibility and then implemented ethical conduct and CSR. Moreover, the institutional environment cannot affect the manager’s PRESOR stockholder view that shows the same result as the study of Wurthmann (2013). It means that the institutional factor only can influence the manager’s viewpoint to a long-term and a view based on consideration entire stakeholders. Therefore, the government and the public should raise the attention about the ethics and social responsibility of the tourism corporations to push the practitioners to understand the necessity of implementing the behavior of ethics and social responsibility.

Because the limitation of the study, this study does not find the factor to influence the perspective of manager’s PRESOR stockholder view. Future study can be recommended to explore whether the different institutional effects can be the determinants. Because diverse institutional may arouse different motivation (coercive, mimetic, or normative), to produce the ethics and CSR behavior and then receive different consequence (Kostova & Roth, 2002). Therefore, the influence of each dimension may be explored.

REFERENCES


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis path</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>Result</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>H1A: IEàStakeholder</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>17.67***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1B: IEàStockholder</td>
<td>-.19</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2A: StakeholderàCSR</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>10.58***</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2B: StockholderàCSR</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p***<.001; IE: Institutional environment; Stakeholder: PRESOR stakeholder view; stockholder: PRESOR stockholder view; CSR: Corporate social responsibility
and Practice, 19(2), 139-152.


CHALLENGES OF INTANGIBLE CULTURAL HERITAGE TO BE A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM RESOURCE

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INTRODUCTION

From the mid-2000s, global interest in intangible cultural heritage (ICH) has increased. ICH can be defined as craftsmanship, performances or social practices that have been transmitted over generations (UNESCO, 2003), and thus represent the strong cultural authenticity and identity of a community (Lenzerini, 2011). Moreover, ICH provides a destination with a unique selling point by offering an authentic cultural experience with deep engagement Giudici, Melis, Dessi, & Ramos, 2013). ICH however, is performed by humans, so to varying degrees, it has been easily commoditised to satisfy tourists (World Tourism Organisation, 2012). Not surprisingly then, the process of commodification has threatened ICH authenticity, when it should be safeguarded for the cultural continuity of communities. Therefore, the preferred approach by World Tourism Organisation (2012) is utilising sustainable approaches to promote ICH as a tourism resource, however up to date, there has been a notable lack research focusing on this space. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to explore the perspectives of ICH practitioners in relation to the sustainable development of ICH as a tourism resource.

Sustainable Tourism Development From the late 20th century, sustainability has been an imperative of tourism development where there is an emphasis on inter-and intra-generational equity toward the natural and/or cultural environment (Garrod & Fyall, 2000). Fyall (1999) introduced the notion of the ‘sustainable trinity’, which advocated development that afforded equal consideration to the economic, socio-cultural and environmental dimensions of development. Therefore, sustainable tourism development (1) envisages economic viability (2) enhances cultural and social identity of a community and (3) contributes to safeguard and protect the natural and/or cultural environment in order to achieve the preceding aims across inter-and intra-generations (Cater, 1993; Hunter, 1995; Liu, 2003). Various stakeholders, such as governmental organisations, local communities and tourists, are involved in the sustainable tourism development of ICH at varying degrees. Among the stakeholders, it is necessary to explore the ICH practitioners’ perspectives because they are mainly responsible for safeguarding authenticity of ICH (Lenzerini, 2011). In addition, ICH cannot be transmitted without the practitioners (Bakar, Osman, Bachok, & Ibrahim, 2014). Therefore, this paper explores the perceptions of ICH practitioners toward the challenges in sustainable development of ICH as a tourism resource.

METHOD

A case study approach was adopted in this research using South Korea (Korea hereafter) as a representative single case. The Korean Government designates mastered intangible cultural heritage practitioners as Living Human Treasures (Yim, 2004). There are currently 174 such practitioners in Korea (Cultural Heritage Administration of Korea, 2016) who are the population of this study. In terms of the sample size, a total of 24 Living Human Treasures participated in the interviews. Semi-structured interviews, each approximately 30 minutes, were conducted to explore the practitioners’ perspectives toward the sustainable development of ICH as a tourism resource. The collected interview data were translated from Korean to English, and the data analysed through the combination of content and thematic analysis. The analysis was initiated open coding, and when appropriate in vivo codes were used to more accurately present the interviewee intention and purpose. The relationships and patterns between codes and categories were then identified to provide the findings of this paper.
FINDINGS

The results revealed that practitioners concerns were a lack of domestic tourist interest in ICH, a lack of financial support and insufficient promotion of resources, rather than the process of commodification itself. The ten interview participants are involved with various types of performing arts. For ICH to be a sustainable tourism resource and have economic viability, it is generally required to be commoditised (Baillie, Chatzoglou, & Taha, 2010). ICH practitioners are regarded as the people mainly responsible for safeguarding the authenticity of the resource (Lenzerini, 2011), surprisingly however, most practitioners show positive attitudes toward the commoditisation of ICH, which is a potential threat to the loss of ICH authenticity (Halewood & Hannam, 2001; Taylor, 2001). Rather than the commodification of ICH, the practitioners proposed other challenges of ICH to be a sustainable tourism resource, as demonstrated in Table 1.

**Table 1 Challenges of ICH to be a sustainable tourism resource**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
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<tr>
<td>lack of domestic tourists’ interests</td>
<td>ICH 1,3,4,5,6,7,10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack of financial support</td>
<td>ICH1,3,4,5,9,10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack of promotion</td>
<td>ICH1,3,4,7</td>
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</table>

Firstly, the practitioners frequently mentioned the lack of domestic tourist interest in ICH as one of the major challenges of ICH to be a sustainable tourism resource. The young generation, particularly, is the major tourists market (Chhabra, 2010; Youn & Uzzell, 2016), as well as the group who have responsibility for the future of ICH. Their lack of interest in ICH, however, can have negative impacts on the ICH tourism market as well, the transmission of ICH is questionable. Moreover, ICH cannot enhance the cultural identity of a community, unless local communities and/or nations (e.g., potential domestic tourists) have limited interest in ICH.

Secondly, the practitioners were concerned regarding a lack of financial support for ICH to be a tourism resource. The value of ICH has been typically undervalued as a global cultural tourism resource compared to tangible cultural heritage sites (i.e., historical European buildings) which have long been preserved as cultural treasures (Cleere, 2001). This unsurprisingly has led to less financial support to promote ICH, as ICH9 mentions.

*Even when we have performance in other countries, there is not enough support from the government (ICH 9)*

Inadequate funding can discourage product development, promotion and utilisation of ICH, as well as, more importantly, it impacts the transmission and safeguarding of the authenticity ICH. Unless ICH is transmitted to the next generation, the next generation cannot have equity to utilise and promote ICH.

Lastly, a lack of promotion and product development of ICH was mentioned by the participants as discouraging the sustainable development of ICH. In order for ICH to be economically viable, the practitioners argued that the more efforts in the promotion of ICH, such as regular events or infrastructure development, as stated by ICH1 and ICH7.

*I would like to make circumstances which visitors (or tourists or Busan citizens) know and can enjoy ICH through those kind of regular festivals and more and more visitors, through word of mouth, are coming to enjoy our performance. (ICH 1)*

*If the hub or centre (of ICH) is well established, more international tourists will visit. The city has potential, as a tourism destination. (ICH7)*

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

This paper has explored the practitioners’ perspectives toward the sustainable development of ICH as a tourism resource. The practitioners concerns were a lack of domestic tourist interest in ICH, a lack of financial support and insufficient promotion of resources, rather than the process of commodification itself. Exploring the perceptions
of ICH practitioners contributes to an under-researched cultural heritage tourism area as well as indicating practical strategies for the industry. In terms of academic perspectives, this paper explores the perspectives of ICH practitioners, which is valuable addition to the area of sustainable development in cultural heritage tourism. From a practical perspective, exploring the challenges of ICH to be a sustainable tourism resource should be a fundamental consideration for governments, planners and managers in cultural heritage tourism to utilise resources in a sustainable way.

REFERENCES


THE ROLE OF CULTURE TOWARDS A SUSTAINABLE TOURISM ATTAIEMENT; A CASE OF MAH MERI INDIGENOUS COMMUNITY IN MALAYSIA

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INTRODUCTION

Cultural aspect in indigenous tourism has been a popular research area highlighting the indigenous people and their unique and authentic lifestyle. In this area, commercialization of culture has brought tourism attractions to be targeted especially on cultural celebrations. The culture of each ethnic by indigenous people represents their identity. According to Butler and Hinch (2007), the development of tourism strongly depends on their ethnicity, heritage and festivals. Butler and Hinch (2007) also mentioned that culture has emerged as a powerful attraction not only for tourists but also for entrepreneurs, government agencies and academic researchers.

In the Malaysian context, Kalsom et al. (2008) has said that the Malaysian government consistently seek to achieve sustainable tourism practice by targeting a balance between business imperatives, cultural heritage preservation and environmental protection. This is evident by the establishment of Orang Asli cultural villages and traditional handicraft centres such as the Pusat Kraftangan Orang Asli (Orang Asli Handicraft Centre) in Cameron Highlands and Mah Meri Cultural Village at Carey Island (Kunasekaran et al, 2013).

Indigenous tourism in Malaysia has high potential as a unique attraction, apart from eco-tourism, which caters particularly for tourists from Australia, New Zealand and Europe, who prefer to learn about unique and remote communities. At these indigenous villages, visitors will be able to witness the traditional dances, lifestyle and hunting techniques personally. However, Gomes (2004) has mentioned that the government has prevented tourists from visiting the Orang Asli community in Taman Negara, Pahang. The author also addressed the government’s concern that photographs of half naked women in their natural living styles may give a wrong impression regarding the majority Malay community’s dressing manner.

METHOD

In order to understand the real phenomenon in the particular study area, a preliminary data gathering technique was employed. To obtain the data, naturalistic inquiry was deemed appropriate by using a semi-structured interview as a tool. The semi-structured interview was used as an inductive approach to gain new and unexpected responses from the respondents, which prevents the interviewer from assuming potential variables. However, a questionnaire guide was developed and used throughout the interviewing session to obtain the pattern of answers that are appropriate to the objectives of the study. Consequently, an interview guide was designed as a list of questions and probing follow-ups, to guide through during the interview. The main reason that the interview guide was selected was to help the researcher stay on track. It also will help to ensure that the important issues/variables were addressed. In addition, the interview guide also provided a framework and sequence for the questions and helped maintain consistency across interviews with different respondents from different type of tourism job involved.

FINDINGS

Generally, the villagers were consistently involved in the cultural activities even without the existence of tourism. The emergence of tourism in their village during late 70’s has made them to package their own unique cultural product. According to the Tok Batin (head of the village), there are three main tourism products which are
very closed with Mah Meri culture; i.e., Mah Meri Dance, wood carvings and weaving crafts.

“Other than taking care of the village development, I monitor and ensure whether among youth, young women, where they’ve aged this skillful carving crafts, I as the head of this village I would encourage them to continue to carve. That is for the men. The women, I make sure that they continue to try weaving and also ensure that women continue integrate each other that they will gather participants from their group. Besides weaving, they will teach traditional dance. These are the women matters…” (Batun Sidin Bujang, 63 years old, male)

Another respondent added that the ‘Ari Moyang’ or ancestors’ day is a tourism product which can attract a big number of tourists every year.

“Tourism here in my view, there are two types, sculpture and dance (Jo‘oh) among the main attractions at Sg. Bumbun. The second one is a festival. We have it once a year. We celebrate the festival which we name Ari Moyang because it is the main attraction of the three as I said. Many tourists also come. I see many come to a place of worship close to the primary school there. The residents of this village will each bring little food, we will all share and eat. Some other villagers also join. Variety of other villages is visible like Chinese also come, so no identity. Indeed there are many tourists, sometimes from tour agents who bring some tourists. That one who promotes this is Tourism Malaysia, and JAKOA but not much. Kraftangan Malaysia of course is better (in promoting).” (Yahya Sidin, 33 years old, male)

CONCLUSION

The initial investigation shows that the indigenous community is proud to portray their culture to the outsiders. They are also proud to be known as the icon of tourism among other Orang Asli sub-groups of Malaysia. This study also reveals that the Mah Meri community is eager to explore tourism opportunities in their village. They strongly believe that the tourism business can create many positive outcomes. Apart from that, the community also agrees that the non-economic benefits such as cultural sustainability and environmental sustainability are driven by the emergence of tourism in their village.

REFERENCES


AN EXPLORATION OF THE CANNABIS–TAKing MOTIVATIONS OF CHINESE OUTBOUND TOURISTS IN AMSTERDAM: ARE THEY SERIOUS OR JUST CURIOUS?

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Drug-taking motivations have been extensively studied. Yet, limited effort has been invested in understanding the factors motivating Chinese outbound tourists’ decision to engage in drug tourism. With the rapid growth of Chinese outbound tourism and the increase of drug tourism engagement, it is essential to make clear of Chinese tourists’ motivations of taking cannabis during travel. This exploratory study adopted the qualitative method to explore the cannabis-taking motivations of Chinese outbound tourists in Amsterdam. Fifteen in-depth interviews with Chinese tourists who have the cannabis-taking experience were conducted. Content analysis with two-stage coding process was used with the help of Nvivo 11. Results suggested that spiritual and emotional healing, social prestige, relaxation and escape, cannabis authenticity, and commercial cannabis were five main motivations for the participants. The paper concludes with recommendations for future research.

INTRODUCTION

The word ‘drug’ is forbidden in China where drugs are generally portrayed as a ‘demon’. In the fight against drugs, the Chinese government has mounted many antidrug campaigns and taken diverse steps to control drug abuse. There are strong laws stipulating that citizens found taking drugs can be detained for up to 15 days and sent to rehabilitation centres. The general public has been educated to keep away from any kinds of drugs.

In contrast with China, Amsterdam takes a more tolerant attitude toward drugs. It is common knowledge, for example, that people can buy soft drugs (e.g., weed, magic truffles, and salvia) from coffee shops in Amsterdam, even though in 2012 some restrictions were placed on the policies governing Dutch coffee shops and drugs (Van Ooyen-Houben, Bieleman, & Korf, 2016). To some extent, Amsterdam has established an image as a drug and sex destination, and thus, it attracts people from all over the world.

As they form one of the biggest emerging tourism markets, Chinese outbound tourists are more and more frequently exposed to drugs. In 2015, for example, almost 15 million Chinese tourists visited the Netherlands, an increase of 21% and up 7% compared to 2014’s figures (Pieters, 2016). Consequently, identifying the motivations of Chinese tourists who consume drugs when at overseas travel destinations is of great theoretical and practical importance. This study, therefore, responds to calls for a better understanding of the motivations of drug tourists and explores the Chinese outbound tourists’ drug-taking motivations in Amsterdam.

METHODOLOGY

Given first the sensitivity of this topic and the lack of existing studies addressing what factors motivate tourists to participate in drug tourism, and second the investigator’s desire to “discover and understand a phenomenon, a process, the perspective, and world views of the people” (Merriam, 2002, p. 6), a qualitative approach was deemed appropriate for this research. According to Guion, Diehl, and McDonald (2001), in-depth interviews are most appropriate for situations in which the researcher wants to ask open-ended questions that elicit depth of information from a relatively small number of people. In-depth interviews were, therefore, selected as the most appropriate method for this investigation.

After reviewing the literature on ethnographic methodology, the first author, along with five local university students, undertook an
ethnographic field study in Amsterdam between November 2012 and September 2013. Observations and in-depth interviews were conducted. This field study’s primary aim was to identify potential research participants, while its secondary purpose was to understand the conceptualisation of a drug tourist from the tourists’ perspectives. The ethnographic study was also used to set the precise criteria that would govern the selection of those who would later be asked to take part in an in-depth interview and those who would be asked to complete the study’s questionnaire. All the research journals, documents, and memos/field notes were then analysed by coding data to develop the study’s research question of why Chinese outbound tourists take cannabis in Amsterdam.

Fifteen in-depth interviews were conducted to ascertain the participants’ specific motivations for experiencing drug tourism in Amsterdam. Each interview lasted between 30 and 60 minutes. All the questions were semistructured and open-ended. Questions such as: “Why do you travel to Amsterdam?”; “Are you mainly driven by commercial cannabis for this trip?”; “Is cannabis-related experience important for this trip?” were asked. All the qualitative interview data were analysed via content analysis. Specifically, a systematic coding process, facilitated by Nvivo 11, was conducted.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Analysis of the interviews identified 204 statements regarding the motivations behind Chinese tourists’ drug-taking behaviour. Forty-three codes (i.e., feel safe; no legal risk; no social risk; learn the Western lifestyle; gain knowledge about cannabis; learn how to smoke cannabis; enjoy; see the real cannabis; have opportunity; try smoking cannabis; make me feel high; cannabis is part of my pre-trip preparations; fun-seeking; experience crazy life; an inversion of ordinary life; medical requirement; alleviate pain; open mind; dissolve boundaries; expand consciousness; find something great; imagination; see inside myself; get rid of frustration; break out of constraints; spiritual understanding; different mind-set; cannabis-related seminar; become stronger; emotional problems; personal issues; drug type; reputation; control; good quality; price; addiction; not impair my health; business clients; relationship; business idea; fashion; professional guides) emerged and these codes formed five categories (i.e., spiritual/emotional healing, social prestige, relaxation and escape, cannabis authenticity, and commercial cannabis).

Spiritual and emotional healing. This study identified that spiritual and emotional healing was an important motivation of drug tourists in this study. Participants proposed many indicators for this motivation dimension, such as ‘a sense of personal development and strengthening the higher self’ (interviewee 2), ‘aspects of transpersonal development’ (interviewee 6), ‘a general enlightenment into the human condition’ (interviewee 12), and ‘obtaining personal direction in my life’ (interviewee 7). This finding supports the results of Winkelman’s (2005) work. However, the emotional item identified in this research was typical positive traits, with few negative traits.

Social prestige. It is interesting to find that some Chinese tourists who consumed commercial cannabis while traveling overseas to show their social status and improve their prestige. There are in total 23 statements that related to the dimension of social prestige among all the interview transcript. For them, taking-cannabis is way to ‘enhance the prestige of the elite’ (interviewee 13), or ‘serve as a visible representation of social status’ (interviewee 4). This finding could be unique to the Chinese culture.

Relaxation and escape. As other type of tourism products, drug tourism also played the role of relaxation and escape for the participants in this current research. ‘To enjoy the feeling’ (interviewee 15), ‘makes me feel relax’ (interviewee 1), ‘short-escape from the reality’ (interviewee 4), ‘for fun’ (interviewee 7), and ‘it is just a relaxation choice as other activities like bungee’ (interviewee 8) were the reasons mentioned by the participants during the interview.

Cannabis authenticity. As suggested by Belhassen, Santos and Uriely (2007), the motivation - Cannabis authenticity was defined as “… the tourists are motivated by the quest to see the sources of the cannabis industry” (p. 313). Among all the participants, thirteen of them mentioned that the curiosity prompted them to
take cannabis in Amsterdam. Hence, cannabis authenticity was identified as a motivational item. This could be further explored relating to the strict restriction of soft drugs in China.

Commercial cannabis. The commercial cannabis itself becomes one of the main motivations for the Chinese tourists in Amsterdam. For example, interview 5 claimed that “the commercial cannabis in Amsterdam is one of its most special attractions and it is famous all over the world... I finally come here, so I need experience it (commercial cannabis) ... I feel safe to take cannabis in Amsterdam”. Some other participants also emphasized that the commercial cannabis makes themselves unworried about the legal risk and social risk for taking cannabis. From this sense, the legality of taking soft drug in Amsterdam is a pull factor for attracting the Chinese tourists.

CONCLUSION

The present study examined the factors that motivated Chinese cannabis-oriented tourists to experience commercially available cannabis during their trip to Amsterdam. Given the increasing popularity of drug tourism and the scarcity of research into tourists’ drug-taking motivation, it is believed that this exploratory study makes a timely contribution to the literature and can, it is hoped, become a stepping stone to further exploration in this field.

Overall, the results of this study were consistent with those of previous research which suggests that tourists’ pursuit of an overseas commercial cannabis experience was not motivated by one single factor, but rather was driven by a combination of different factors operating at different levels. The findings of this in-depth interview study have laid a solid foundation for both understanding drug tourism motivation from Chinese perspectives and for collecting further quantitative survey data from Chinese drug tourists.

There are two main limitations for this paper. First, it is an initial attempt to explore Chinese tourists’ motivations for engaging in drug tourism using interviews. As with other studies such as Winkelman (2005), this paper points to the necessity of applying quantitative surveys to explore this issue in the future. Secondly, as the study site of this research was Amsterdam, other destinations that are associated with cannabis consumption were not covered in this study. Future studies to examine other destinations associated with cannabis consumption such as Jamaica, Florida’s beaches and Thailand. In addition, future studies may also adopt quantitative investigations with a big number of participants on the Chinese tourists’ drug taking behaviour at the destinations to examine the findings in this current research.

REFERENCES


A STUDY ON THE ASSESSING MODEL OF POTENTIAL FOR ORGANIC AGRITOURISM DEVELOPMENT

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Ching-Cheng Shen, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism

ABSTRACT

Concern for the environment has significantly increased; meanwhile, people’s attitudes towards nature and healthy eating have changed substantially. Environmental awareness has an impact on the development of organic agriculture and organic agricultural products. Tourists tend to choose the idea of relaxing in agriculture-oriented property and enjoying day-to-day lifestyle.

In order to build an assessing model, this study aims to analyse the potential of organic agritourism development. By reviewing previous studies and conducting field exploration, an empirical study of Yuli Township presents the results which build indicators for developing organic agritourism. Four primary guiding principles for assessing model are constructed as follows: attractiveness of tourism resources, market potential, community capacity building, and multiple value creation. The Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) uses derived weights which show the importance of four primary guiding principles and twenty-three secondary guiding principles. The result implies that attractiveness of tourism resources was received the highest weight, followed by multiple value creation, market potential, and community capacity building. The results of this study can provide Yuli Township an important reference for developing strategy of organic agritourism.

Keywords: Organic Agriculture, Tourism, Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP)

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, there have been rapid developments in technology which have led to a prosperous society. However, technology negatively affects the environment by endangering natural ecosystems. Environmental pollution has been caused due to industrial development. People living in urban area tend to choose the idea of relaxing in clean, nice, and a comfortable environment. Concerns for the environment have notably increased. In addition, people’s attitudes towards nature, healthy eating, and regiment have changed considerably. Considering the necessity to protect the environment and the importance of maintaining ecological balance, organic agriculture becomes an attractive option (Chang, 2009; Yen & Zhu, 2013).

The organic food market experienced a rapid expansion. Consumer demand for greener is clearly increasing and organic agriculture scores highly on environmental credentials; therefore, organic farming, organic agricultural product, organic village, and organic agritourism are presented as market opportunities for organic market. Organic agriculture began in 1996 in Taiwan. According to the statistic published by Taiwan Organic Information Portal, a plot of farmland has spanned from 159.6 hectares to 6489.96 hectares (Taiwan Organic Information Portal, 2015). Raising awareness on eco-friendly, healthy lifestyle, sustainability, and slow movement indicate that the prospects of the organic agriculture in Taiwan are brightening.

In recent years, domestic travel within Taiwan has become more popular with the increase of income. From 2010 to 2015, the number of visitors has increased from 191,302,739 to 293,647,336 in five years (Tourism Bureau, 2015). Additionally, when comparing 2011 with 2015, there was an 81.64% increase in tourist arrivals for experiencing farm life. In sum, tourists tend to choose the idea of relaxing in agriculture-oriented property and enjoying day-to-day lifestyle. Hence, more attention has been given to organic agritourism which become an important market to be developed.

In 2002, Taiwan’s government spared no
efforts to promote organic farming by establishing organic villages. Taiwan’s first organic village was set up in Luoshan Village, Hualien County. Organic village aims to promote community development in various ways. In economic aspect, a strong agriculture sector contributes to a strong economy. In life aspect, organic villages are to enhance farmers’ welfare. As for ecological aspect, setting up organic villages is not only to preserve the pristine environment, but also to improve the relationship between human and nature.

The four principles proposed by International Federation of Organic Agriculture Movements (IFOAM) are as follows, health, ecology, fairness, and care. The principles point out that the health is the integrity of living systems. Organic agriculture sustains the health of soil, animal, human, and planet as inseparable and should ensure fairness at all levels. For the generation to come, organic agriculture should protect and care for the health and well-being of current and the environment.

Organic agritourism can benefit organic producers by providing markets in rural areas. Selling farm produce is a crucial way to support local farmers and to supplement farm income. Meanwhile, tourists are provided with opportunities to experience farm-based products and services thereby benefitting the local people socio-economically. Organic agritourism activities also create relaxing atmosphere which helps reduce stress and strengthens the sustainability of rural areas. There is a dearth of research on critical factors for developing organic agritourism. The focus of this study is to build an assessing model for organic agritourism development by reviewing previous studies and conducting field exploration. Using Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) will derive weights which imply the importance of each guiding principles. It is hoped that these findings will serve as a reference for developing strategy of organic agritourism.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organic Agriculture

World Commission on Environmental and Development (WCED, 1987) defines states that “Sustainable development requires meeting the basic needs of all and extending to all the opportunity to satisfy their aspirations for a better life”. In other words, sustainable development requires meeting essential needs in harmony with the ecosystem, economic growth, and perceived needs are socially and culturally. Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) has formulated the definition which approved by the FAO Council in 1998 as follows:

Sustainable development is the management and conservation of the natural resource base, and the orientation of technological and institutional change in such a manner as to ensure the attainment and continued satisfaction of human needs for present and future generations. Such sustainable development (in the agriculture, forestry and fisheries sectors) conserves land, water, plant and animal genetic resources, is environmentally non-degrading, technically appropriate, economically viable and socially acceptable.

Leopold (1949) proposes the concept of land ethic dealing with human’s relation to land and to animals and plants. The land ethic expands the boundaries of the community to include soils, waters, plants, and animals and it has been interpreted as biotic community. Walck and Strong (2001) constructs a model based on Aldo Leopold’s concept of the land ethic. The idea of this model concerns land ethic, land health, and land use which is the factor to cultivate sustainable development in community.

In order to achieve the balance between profitability and human and natural resources, FAO suggests that sustainable development has five major attributes which are resource conserving (of land, water, plant and animal genetic resources), environmentally non-degrading, technically appropriate, and economically and socially acceptable (Lee, 2005).

The form of organic agriculture was first introduced in 1924 by the Austrian, Dr. Rudolf Steiner. Organic farming is a form of agriculture in which agricultural land is cultivated without using artificial fertilisers. However, it was during the period of Industrial Revolution which changes occurred in agriculture. The world was preparing for expansion of economy by providing enough food to maintain sufficient workforce. Advances in agricultural techniques resulted in an increase in supply of food. Improved techniques and practices
made it possible to feel all people. By using farm machines, there was a massive increase in agricultural productivity. Meanwhile, many farmers used chemicals to keep pets from destroying their crops.

The 1970s energy led to a stagnant economic growth along with concerns of resources scarcity. High energy consumption has damaged the environment. Therefore, improving quality of life for present and future generations has become a global issue. People have a positive attitude towards healthy food consumption and more attention has been given to food quality. Enhancing food security and health is the ultimate objective since then. Sustainable Agriculture or Organic Agriculture is the practice of farming using principles of ecology. It focuses on providing the food on the long-term, avoids to use artificial fertilisers and pesticides, and minimises the use of non-renewable resources (Hsieh, 1999).

FAO (1999) defined organic agriculture as “a holistic product management system which promotes and enhances agro-ecosystem health, including biodiversity, biological cycles, and soil biological activity. It emphasises the use of management practices in preference to the use of off-farm inputs, taking into account that regional conditions require locally adapted systems. This is accomplished by using, where possible, agronomic, biological, and mechanical methods, as opposed to using synthetic materials, to fulfil any specific function within the system.”

It is a system that avoids to use synthetic fertilisers and pesticides. The system enhances biodiversity, biological cycle, and soil biological activities. It helps maintain and increase long-term soil fertility which will benefit producing high quality product. Organic agriculture can be seen as a development strategy for rural communities to benefit from. The principles, researches, regulations, and policies are the foundation for developing organic agriculture. Four principles have been created to identify organic agriculture by IFOAM: the principle of health, the principle of ecology, the principle of fairness, and the principle of care.

Principle of health indicates that organic agriculture should bolster and enhance the health of soil, animal, human and planet as indivisible. Principle of ecology roots the organic agriculture within living ecological systems. Principle of fairness suggests that organic agriculture should ensure fairness among humans and the relations between humans and other living beings. Finally, for the generation to come, organic agriculture should protect and care for the health and well-being of current and the environment. National Research Council (2010) identified goals regarded as key in achieving sustainable agriculture: (1) enhancing environmental quality and the resource base; (2) sustaining the economic viability; (3) improving the quality of life for farmers, farm workers, and society as a whole.

**Assessing Model of Potential for Organic Agritourism Development**

A business model is a conceptual structure describing a company generates revenue from its service or product. It explains how to deliver value to customers and make profit from company operations (Margretta, 2002). Volepel, Leibold, Tekie, & Krogh (2005) states dynamic new organizational capabilities and sensing the configuration of industry value chains and business system infrastructure can either strengthen the existing business model, or reinvent one. The six elements of a business model are proposed as value proposition, business strategy, revenue mechanisms, resources management, value network and sustainability (Yang, Wu, Su, & Kao, 2009).

Chen and Peng (2016) identifies five dimensions of a business model, including product value proposition/service value proposition, business strategy, revenue mechanisms, stakeholders (value network) and sustainability. This study discusses the business model practiced by Aurora Social Enterprise and Manna Organic Culture and Living Association. The research conducts two case studies that Aurora Social Enterprise constructed a value-chain for the aboriginal tribes and their organic products in Ali Village, Chiayi County. Meanwhile, Manna Organic Culture and Living Association helped promote organic farming, encourage eco-friendly practices, and solve indigenous problems.

Agriculture industry provides economic contribution. On top of that, the industry can integrate with the idea of organic farming, ecotourism, awareness of ecological conservation
along with presenting the concept of sustainable development to community. The category of tourism, agritourism based on farm-based products and services, farm culture and ecology is developed. Wu (2007) identifies six critical issues for developing community-based ecotourism in a rural community. They are (1) identifying values for core resources, (2) educating conservation concepts, (3) full supports from the community, (4) organizing community's ecotourism development group and operational mechanisms, (5) responding strategies for the commercialization process and induced problems, and (6) rewarding devices for participants and community. The study constructs a model for rural communities to develop community-based ecotourism. The aspects of this model include community management, resource management, and tourism management. Chang (2008) suggests that farm-based relaxing atmosphere, including beautiful natural scenery and harmonious culture attract tourists the most.

Shen, Tseng, Lin, Chen, & Chen (2009) proposes an assessing model of potential for ecotourism and indigenous community development. There are six guiding principles, including community resource management, resources in peripheral area, community capacity building, potential for ecotourism development, themes for community development, and development mechanism for ecotourism development. Firstly, community resource management contains ecological conservation, natural scenery, biodiversity, and cultural facilities. Secondly, resources in peripheral area consists of community support network, public facilities, eco tours, peripheral area, and adjacent recreation facilities. Thirdly, community capacity building composed of sustainable development, version planning, sense of community, self-improvement, community coordination, and characteristics of tourism products. The fourth principle includes package tour planning, regulation of public funds building, one-stop service, and marketing management. The fifth comprises culture of Tsou tribe, in-depth tour experience, community recognition, and area planning and reconstruction. Lastly, the development mechanism for ecotourism development identifies convenient transportation, multi-industry business development, community development, customer value creation, and target market management.

To sum up, an assessing model of potential for organic agritourism development should contain the following four primary principles: (1) multiple value creation; (2) attractiveness of tourism resources; (3) market potential; (4) capacity building. Multiple value creation stands for how to provide value when multiple stakeholders are involved. Secondly, attractiveness of tourism resources defines environmental resources, including organic agriculture, recreation and leisure, nature, agricultural asset, and relaxing atmosphere which constitutes a crucial element in attracting tourists. Thirdly, it explains the concept of uniqueness and diversity of tourism resources bring out destination uniqueness. Integrating tourism resources with convenient transportation network to tourism destination enables tourists and visitors to get around, and strengthens tourism destination’s identity. Finally, sense of community builds strong community capacity for organic agritourism development. Organic agritourism advantages visitors to learn more about agriculture, provide benefits to preserve farms, generate additional income for local farmers, and provide quality products.

**ASSESSING MODEL**

**Construction of the Assessing Model**

According to previous studies, sustainable development makes use of environmental resources: organic agriculture, recreation and leisure, nature, agricultural asset, and relaxing atmosphere, which constitute a crucial element in attracting tourists. The concept of uniqueness and diversity of tourism resources bring out destination uniqueness. Integrating tourism resources with convenient transportation network to tourism destination enables tourists and visitors to get around, and strengthens tourism destination’s identity. Implementing innovative means and managing service excellence help ensure marketing execution.

The attention to sustainability brings tourists to focus on organic agritourism. Sense of community builds strong community capacity for organic agritourism development. Organic agritourism advantages visitors to get to know about agriculture, provide benefits to preserve
farms, generate additional income for local farmers, and provide quality products. With the above benefits, multiple value creation is realized as a principle in sustainable business. This study indicates four guiding principles for assessing model are constructed in figure 1.

![Diagram showing guiding principles]

**Figure 1: Assessing Model of Potential for Organic Agritourism Development**

**Explanations for Guiding Principles**

Four primary guiding principles and twenty-three secondary guiding principles for assessing model are presented in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Guiding Principles</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Secondary Guiding Principles</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness of tourism resources</td>
<td>Tourism resources that attract tourists</td>
<td>Organic agricultural resources, Recreation and leisure resources, Natural resources, Stress reduction, Agricultural asset</td>
<td>e.g. rice plants, pomelo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market Potential</td>
<td>Gain competitive advantage through diversity of tourism resources</td>
<td>Convenient transportation network, Brand awareness, Resources diversity, Unique attractions, Integrated management</td>
<td>e.g. orange daylily, waterfall, Natural scenery, Exposure to scene of nature, reduces stress, Agricultural heritage, history, e.g. 193 county road near provincial highway 9 and Yuchang highway – provincial highway 30, Improve brand image and raise awareness, Resources diversity meet different type of customer needs, Unique attractions grab visitor’s attention, Integration of local recreation resources: Antong hot spring, water rafting in Ruisui, Wuhe tea plantation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Explanation of Guiding Principles
Data Collection

26 out of 27 questionnaires were completed by experts’ comments and consensus during the period March 1st, 2014 to April 14th, 2014.

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP)

Table 2. Consistency Ratio of the Hierarchy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Guiding Principles</th>
<th>Attractiveness of tourism resources</th>
<th>Market potential</th>
<th>Community capacity building</th>
<th>Multiple value creation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0389</td>
<td>0.0325</td>
<td>0.0396</td>
<td>0.0428</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Weight Analysis of Guiding Principles of Assessing Model

As illustrated in Table 3, the top guiding principles was attractiveness of tourism resources (0.3566), followed by multiple value creation (0.2273), market potential (0.2111), and community capacity building (0.2051). Organic agritourism refers to activities conducted on agricultural lands and utilizes tourism to further bolster sustainability development. The results indicate that attractiveness of tourism resources and multiple value creation are the crucial elements of development organic agritourism. Wu (2007) discovers that environmental resource is one of the important factors to develop community-based ecotourism. Chang (2008) suggests that farm-based relaxing atmosphere, including beautiful natural scenery and harmonious culture attract tourists the most. Magretta (2002) discusses a business model is a conceptual structure explaining how to deliver value to customers and make profit from company operations.
Table 3. Weight Analysis of Guiding Principles of Assessing Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary Guiding Principles</th>
<th>Weight</th>
<th>Secondary Guiding Principles</th>
<th>Weight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractiveness of tourism resources</td>
<td>0.3566</td>
<td>Organic agricultural resources</td>
<td>0.2359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recreation and leisure resources</td>
<td>0.1789</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Natural resources</td>
<td>0.1856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stress reduction</td>
<td>0.1751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Agricultural asset</td>
<td>0.2244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market potential</td>
<td>0.2111</td>
<td>Convenient transportation network</td>
<td>0.2113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Brand awareness</td>
<td>0.2104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Resources diversity</td>
<td>0.1723</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unique attractions</td>
<td>0.2238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Integrated management</td>
<td>0.1822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community capacity building</td>
<td>0.2051</td>
<td>Sense of community</td>
<td>0.1951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Community capacity</td>
<td>0.1412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Innovation in tourism</td>
<td>0.1379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism marketing</td>
<td>0.1436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Resource gain</td>
<td>0.1224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Local connection</td>
<td>0.1337</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Service excellence</td>
<td>0.1261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple value creation</td>
<td>0.2273</td>
<td>Organic agriculture experience</td>
<td>0.1781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Leisure agriculture experience</td>
<td>0.1662</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Living environment improvement</td>
<td>0.1444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Community enterprise</td>
<td>0.1508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sustainability</td>
<td>0.1821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Healthy agricultural products</td>
<td>0.1785</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Attractiveness of Tourism Resources**

Organic agricultural resources scored the highest, followed by agricultural asset, natural resources, recreation and leisure resources, and stress reduction. The results indicated that natural resources in the Eastern Taiwan and the relaxing atmosphere attract the tourists the most. According to Hsu (2010), a rich variety of natural and cultural resources and organic agriculture activities can be developed as a travel pattern for organic agritourism.

**Market Potential**

Unique attractions is the most important secondary guiding principles for market potential. Convenient transportation was 0.2113, brand awareness was 0.2104, integrated management was 0.1822, and the last one, resources diversity was 0.1723. Hence, integrating tourism resources with convenient transportation facilities is beneficial for attracting visitors. Previous study also identified tourism resources should be considered to be critical factor (Saleh and Ryan, 1993). Liu, Huang, and Lai (2000) suggests that the uniqueness and rareness of tourism resources are the key characteristics of tourism resources.

**Community Capacity Building**

The results of community capacity building value from 0.1226 to 0.1951. Among these, sense of community ranked the highest, followed by tourism marketing, community capacity, innovation in tourism, local connection, resource gain, and service excellence. Organic agritourism utilizes tourism to further bolster sustainability development. Combining the organic farm-based products with tourism, organic agritourism will become a hot issue among the general public and the press.

**Multiple Value Creation**

Among the secondary guiding principles, sustainability ranked the highest, followed by healthy agricultural products, leisure agriculture experience, organic agriculture experience, community enterprise, and the last is living
environment improvement. The results indicated that organic agriculture not only can benefit providing the idea of healthy eating to the public, but also benefit local generating income for the locals. The idea of sustainability coincides with the previous which National Research Council (2010) addressed ecological sustainability, sustainable produce and sustainable living. Farm-based products and activities and relaxing atmosphere of organic agritourism can provide a unique travel experiences for tourists.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Most people are aware and concerned about environment recently. Additionally, people’s attitudes towards environment, nature, and green products have changed considerably. In brief, tourists tend to choose the idea of staying in agriculture-oriented property. Raising awareness on eco-friendly, sustainability and healthy lifestyle show that organic agritourism in Taiwan are brightening. The results indicated that the top guiding principles was attractiveness of tourism resources, followed by multiple value creation, market potential, and community capacity building. Thus, the study’s findings highlighted the importance of agricultural assets and the sustainability of agritourism. The unique features that tourists would not normally get to see attract tourists the most. Meanwhile, agritourism also attracts people looking for tranquility, peace and quiet. Tourists prefer staying in place where they can reduce stress rather than staying in a polluted place.

Yuli Township is a township in Hualien County. It is located in central East Rift Valley. Yuli Township is facing Xiguluan River and lying grand Central Mountain Range in the west. With the rich natural resources, there is ample potential for organic agritourism in Yuli Township.

Symbiosis between organic agriculture and organic agritourism can benefit organic producers by providing markets in rural areas. Sense of community builds strong community capacity for organic agritourism development. Organic agritourism provides benefits including educating visitors about agriculture, preserving farms, generating additional income for local farmers, and providing quality products. Tourists are provided with opportunities to experience farm-based products and services thereby benefitting the local people socio-economically. Organic agritourism activities also create relaxing atmosphere which helps reduce stress and strengthens the sustainability of rural areas. With the above benefits, it creates a win-win situation for all the stakeholders involved, whether it is the tourists, the locals, or the natural environment.

REFERENCES


ECO–CULTURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE PHILIPPINES:
THE CASE OF BOJO (ALOGUINSAN) RIVER ECO–CULTURAL TOUR

Marck Bryan A. David, Our Lady of Fatima University
Armina A. Javier, Our Lady of Fatima University

‘Ecotourism’ or ecological tourism, as a form of tourism, first came into prominence in the 1980’s when the concept of ‘sustainable tourism’ became the new paradigm for tourism development (Jafari, 2001). Ecotourism could be considered as an ‘alternative paradigm’ (Jafari, 2001), wherein the development of tourism is not only dependent on enticing mass numbers of tourists but also accessing the carrying capacities and capabilities of tourist destinations.

By definition, ‘ecotourism’ is ‘an environmentally responsible travel to relatively undisturbed natural areas in order to enjoy and appreciate nature that promotes conservation, which has low negative visitor impacts, and provided for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations’ (The International Ecotourism Society, 1991; p). Yet in an ever-evolving tourism framework, ecotourism has also changed to include and emphasize cultural sustainability as an integral part of ecotourism development. Hence, the concept of ‘eco-cultural tourism’ came into prominence as a subset of ecotourism where culture and natural resource-based tourism are integrated as a sustainable form of tourism (Cajee, 2014).

Further, Cajee (2014) defines ‘eco-cultural tourism’ as ‘travel to destinations where both the natural and cultural endowments are the prime attractions and considered to be the potential strategy to support conservation of natural habitats, exhibition of indigenous cultures, and an alternative to economic sustainability’ (p. 2).

In the case of the Philippines, ecotourism, and more so, eco-cultural tourism development have been emphasized in the past years, especially since the country is blessed with numerous natural and cultural wonders. One such development program is the Bojo, Aloguinsan River Eco-Cultural Tour, a 45-minute mangrove forest and river boat-rider tour in Cebu, central Philippines (Cacho, 2015). Bojo, Aloguinsan is a fishing village on the mid-western part of Cebu in the central part of the Philippine archipelago. The village sits on the shores of the Tañon Strait, the biggest marine protected area in the Philippines (Ranada, 2015). The partnership of the Aloguinsan local government and the Bojo, Aloguinsan Ecotourism Association [BAETAS] runs the Bojo River Cruise (Estacion, n.d.). The river cruise has reaped various international recognition, including the 2015 UN Tourism INsPIRE Awards for Best Community-based Tourism Initiative in Asia-Pacific (Cacho, 2015), the 2016 TOP 100 Sustainable Destinations in the World, and the 2017 ASEAN Tourism Awards for Best Community-Based Tourism (Aloguinsan River Eco-Cultural Tour, n.d.).

The tour is greatly participated by the local community, highlighted by a ride on the river with local fishermen interpreting the local history, the flora and the fauna of the river ecosystem (Estacion, n.d.). The women and children serve local cuisine and weave grasses for mats as souvenirs. Because of its outstanding ecotourism initiative, the surrounding communities were inspired to take its river tourism as a model.

The main objective of this research is to give an exploratory analysis on the said eco-tourism program. Aside from this, this research is intended to describe the present policies and strategies being implemented and to develop a proposed framework for eco-cultural tourism development in the Philippines. This study is a qualitative exploratory research based on both primary and secondary data. Primary data have been collected through field experiences, observation, and in-depth interviews of selected program resource persons. Secondary data have been collected from various relevant books, journals, websites, and other conceptual and research references.

At present, there are limited descriptions or researchers about the prominence of eco-cultural tourism in the Philippines. Hence, this research
could be an essential bridge to promote research in the stated field, to create awareness as to the nature and importance of eco-cultural tourism, and to help promote eco-cultural tourism as an alternative tourism development strategy in the country, especially in the rural communities.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

**Sustainable tourism development**

Tosun (2001) described sustainable tourism as development that contributes to the satisfactions of the basic needs of the stakeholders, reduces inequality and absolute poverty in local tourist destinations, helps host communities be free from alienating material conditions in life and from social servitude to nature, ignorance, misery and dogmatic beliefs, accelerates the growth of the local and regional and regional economy, and achieves the objectives in an indefinite period of time without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs.

The UNEP and the UNWTO (2005) in *Making tourism more sustainable: A guide for policy makers*, emphasized that ‘all forms of tourism should strive to be more sustainable’ (p. 2). This means that tourism should not only just be about controlling and managing negative impacts of the industry but also provide economic and social benefits for the local communities, and raise awareness and support for the conservation of cultural and the environment (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005).

Yet, the UNEP and the UNWTO (2005) also emphasized that sustainable tourism development depends on the strong partnership between and among the stakeholders: the tourism enterprises, the local communities, the environmentalists, the tourists, and the government. Since tourism is fragmented and usually the sustainability issues are of public concern, governments must take the lead role in making tourism more sustainable. This means that the governments must establish and implement policies for tourism development and management that place sustainability at its center and provide an environment that enables and encourages the private sector and other stakeholders to respond to issues (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005).

In the Philippines, the challenge for sustainable tourism development is evident with the increasing popularity of natural protected areas as well as the spread of negative impacts felt in these areas (Alampay, 2005). Alampay (2005) proposed that local communities, with the help of the local government units and other stakeholders, should play a key role in ensuring that the destinations are developed in a sustainable manner. Strong government regulation over eco-cultural tourism areas is therefore necessary, as in the case of the Bojo (Aloguinsan) Eco-Cultural Tour. But as emphasized, it is also essential for the government to consult all necessary stakeholders to make sure that the development is sustainable (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005)

**Eco-cultural tourism as a form of tourism**

As a subset of ecotourism, eco-cultural tourism integrates ecotourism as a sustainable form of nature-based tourism and the prevalent cultural characteristics in the natural area (Cajee, 2014). With emphasis to sustainable tourism, this form of tourism activity leads to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social, and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining the cultural integrity, ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems (United Nations Environment Programme [UNEP] and World Tourism Organization [UNWTO], 2005).

The emphasis on both natural and cultural sustainability is what eco-cultural tourism is all about. This unique tourism activity makes it an ideal set-up for developing countries like the Philippines. As Cajee (2014) points out, this recent offshoot of tourism sector has grown to be a potential business in its own space as it showcases the natural beauty of the area, endemic flora and fauna, wildlife, local culture, traditional cuisines, dress and ornaments, art and heritage thereby strengthening the local communities socially and economically.

**METHOD**

The study employed a qualitative exploratory method to meet the objectives of the study. The author used observation and on-site experience to collect some primary data. Purposive in-depth interviews were done to collect the primary data of the study. Among the eight (8) semi-structured interview respondents were the
tourism officer of the local government unit, a local town official, a boatman, guides, community members, and local tourists. Responses, along with secondary data sources, were then coded to produce the qualitative themes.

FINDINGS

Local government initiated the program.

The local government in 2009 sought to offer an alternative mode of livelihood to the mostly fisherfolk inhabitants of the coastal communities in Aloguinsan. With PHP1 Million (approximately USD20,000) investment, with help from the Cebu provincial government, the LGU initiated the project to cover training, consultation, and infrastructure costs. At present the LGU has already established a municipal ordinance, in order to make sure that there is a clear-cut policy to support to project.

Community participation is essential.

Most program beneficiaries were residents of the area where the eco-cultural tour occurs. With the help from the LGU, the community established the Bojo Aloguinsan Ecotourism Association (BAETAS), that is responsible for the management, monitoring, and rehabilitation of the ecotourism site. In the beginning, community members resisted due to concerns on lifestyle changes and lack of understanding but when the residents were trained and educated, they were able to involve more and more community members to the program. At present, the organization has 54 members, all of whom are residents of Barangay Bojo.

Community members have felt the need for conservation.

Before the program started, most residents used destructive fishing activities like dynamite or cyanide fishing. But because of training and education the residents have received from the LGU and BAETAS, they have strongly practiced conservation activities especially mangrove protection and sustainable fishing activities. As part of the tour, tourists are also given lectures about conservation before they embark on the river cruise.

Residents note increase in income.

Before the program, most residents barely made the ends meet, since they only depended on fishing. When the river cruise tour was introduced and the residents were given an alternative livelihood, they started earning more, as tour guides, cooks, entertainers, craftsmen, repairmen, or environmental officers. At present, BAETAS earns around PHP 3-5 Million (approximately USD60,000-100,000) a year. This number is expected to grow with the increased awareness and international recognitions that the community have received.

Sustainable policies are critical to the success of the program.

The program started with intense planning and preparation. The local government sought the expertise of an environmental architect and marine biologist to assess the capability of the resources. After the policy was laid out, the LGU sought to make it sustainable through a municipal ordinance, which laid out the policy statements and guidelines. The next step was the creation of the community organization that led to training and education of residents. After this, it was successfully implemented in 2009. Over the years, the stakeholders have incorporated monitoring and evaluation programs to be able to make it more sustainable.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The experience of the Bojo (Aloguinsan) Eco-Cultural River Tour demonstrates that adopting tourism as an economic activity can achieve the dual objectives of preserving the environment and generating employment for the community. More importantly, the participatory approach they adopted ensures local ownership and social equity.

REFERENCES


Aloguinsan River Eco-Cultural Tour (n.d.). In Facebook


ASSESSMENT OF THE BPSU FOOD TECHNOLOGY SITUATION

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ABSTRACT

Food Technology (FT) has become a very powerful field in dealing with the processing of food making it available, safe, tasty and convenient. Bataan Peninsula State University (BPSU) has been offering FT as a major of the Bachelor of Science in Industrial Technology, both in the Main and Orani campuses since the 1970s. With the different orientation of FT offered in state universities and colleges, whether it is skill or science-based, this study aims to assess the current FT situation in BPSU. Curriculum, faculty profile and facilities of FT in BPSU were assessed and compared to the other FT related program in three state universities in Region III; Nueva Ecija University of Science and Technology, Pampanga Agricultural College and Central Luzon State University. Data were gathered through structured interview, ocular inspection for the facilities and questionnaires for the teacher and students’ personal interest. Results show that BPSU’s FT program is more likely similar to the one offered in NEUST. PAC is offering a similar course but is more business and management-oriented BS Home Economics while CLSU is offering a science and technology-related course, BS Home Economics while CLSU is offering a science and technology-related course, BS Food Technology. BPSU students are more interceded in cooking and baking while doing sales report, dishwashing and food packaging are the activities faculty and students are least interested. Mechanized machines in cooking and baking are also suggested by the majority of the students in BPSU. In conclusion, BPSU’s program in BS IT major in Food Technology must be improved in the aspects of curriculum, faculty profile and facilities. It is recommended for the department to consider the curriculum, faculty profile and facilities. It is recommended for the department to consider the curriculum of NEUST in the BS IT major in Food Technology.

INTRODUCTION

Food Technology in many parts of the world has evolved to become a multidisciplinary field that has been instrumental in the development of abundant food supply. Food Technology, for many years now has turned traditional foods into a variety of specialty products that is more available, safe, tasty and convenient (Arnold, Berry, Bradley, et al, 2000). The role of Food Technology has also evolved depending on the needs of the society – providing convenient and available food supply to innovation of more nutritious and safe food products. To date, more people are resorting to food as therapy to cure health problems, lose weight and increase lifespan. This may be in the form of raw, natural and organic food or processed food supplements. The latter has become popular in certain groups of people like ampalaya tea and capsules for diabetics, garlic for hypertensive patients, high protein diets for gym enthusiasts, etc. Food Technology as a science is very dynamic and with the accompanying trends in food, society has ever since become supportive.

To date, a variety of food products are present in the market and society has always been enthusiasts of new tasty, innovative and healthy food products. However, the growth of food science and its technology has not been well-supported in the country despite the early affiliation of the Philippines with the Institute of Food Technologists (IFT, founded at USA in 1939). Philippines became the fourth charter organization of IFT as the Philippine Association of Food Technologists in 1966 (Mermelstein, 1989). At present, the image of food technology gives confusion to people of different academic backgrounds. For instance, premiere universities like the University of the...
Philippines (Diliman and Los Baños) and University of Santo Thomas offer a multidisciplinary curriculum in Food Technology that covers basic sciences including chemistry, microbiology, economics and even engineering. But in most state universities and colleges, Food Technology would only mean basic technical skill such as cooking and baking. This may be one of the reasons why Food Technology has become immature for the past decades especially in the provinces where food technologists are badly needed. Food technologists that are supposed to process local produce are incapable of creating new food products and improving existing food products for the dynamic market despite the abundance of local produce in the provinces resulting to a limited variation of food products in the local market.

In line with the University’s vision in generating appropriate knowledge to promote sustainable resource development, this program study aims to develop Food Technology as a research and development-oriented curriculum with a primary purpose of creating and improving flagship food products for the Bataan Peninsula State University (BPSU).

**RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

**General Objectives:**

The program aims to develop a research and development-oriented curriculum for Food Technology to create flagship food products for BPSU.

**Specific Objectives:**

1) assess the current situation of Food Technology in BPSU (curriculum, facilities, output)

2) provide recommendations for the installation of Food Technology laboratory and for the necessary trainings, seminars and/or workshops needed for the development of a flagship food product(s)

**METHODOLOGY**

The Food technology (FT) program in BPSU is being offered in Main and Orani campuses. The BPSU Food Technology program in both campuses were assessed in terms of the offered curriculum, faculty and student profiles, and food processing/technology facilities in both campuses. Findings in the current situation of the FT program were compared to other state universities that are also offering the course program. Food Technology programs in Pampanga Agricultural College (PAC), Neua Ecija Science and Technology (NEUST), and Central Luzon State University (CLSU) were assessed the same parameters and instruments used in assessing the FT in BPSU. The state universities mentioned were selected based on the Food Technology program they are offering. As mentioned earlier in the introduction, the FT program in the Philippines is not being standardized. Some universities might offer the same course title of BS Food Technology while others might offer the course only as a major under a course such as BS Industrial Technology.

**CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the assessment of Food Technology Program in BPSU
Upon the approval of the Research and Development Office of the research study, questionnaires were validated. The results of the validation of questionnaires yielded a positive response among the respondents, both faculty and students. The questionnaire consists of 18 questions that reflect on the personal information, interests, curriculum, and training of the respondents and also the facilities present in their respective campuses.

Questions in student questionnaires are the same as with the teacher’s questionnaire. The questionnaires were given to students in Orani campus and teachers in Main campus (Table 1). Out of the 20 students questionnaires floated, 14 were retrieved having a 70% recovery of the questionnaires. For the teacher questionnaires, the recovered questionnaires are at 100%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Questionnaires Released</th>
<th>Percentage of retrieved Questionnaires (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The questionnaires were being validating using face and content validity. The questionnaires were also validated by the time it takes to finish answering the form. It takes around five minutes to finish answering the questionnaire. No questions were found to be irrelevant. No questions were recommended for omission and both the teachers and students respondents found the questionnaires to be answerable by all means. With a high percentage of retrieval and satisfactory comments on facts and content validity, the questionnaires were then reproduced and floated to the respondents for final data gathering.

Curriculum assessment was basically done by assessing the current curriculum of the FT in BPSU. The researchers conducted structured interviews. Questionnaires were drafted and floated within the Food Technology department for both faculty and students of BPSU and the involved state universities. A few questions pertaining to the curriculum were also included in the floated questionnaires. Same process was done in all other state universities involved in the study.

Facility and student profiles were collected in the form of CV and Personal Data Sheets (PDS) and questionnaires were floated to gather the in-depth information on the interests and capability of the FT department in developing a curriculum that would potentially be research oriented that would later develop flagship food products.

Facilities were also assessed on their availability and condition. This would enable the researchers to recommend possible research topics on what food products BPSU can develop with emphasis on the immediate facilities and tools on hand.

Overall, the study determined the present situation of the Food Technology department. Questions included the department’s interest, capability, and readiness in creating and developing marketable and sound food products. Statistical analyses were done to determine the significant differences of the faculty and student’s interests and perception on the overall situation of Food Technology in BPSU. ANOVA and correlation analyses were done to determine the significance of the data gathered.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. CURRICULUM ASSESSMENT

Food Technology courses are being offered in different course titles and even as majors. For this research study, curriculum assessment serves a very important role in determining the level of adjustments to be recommended at the end of the study.

Bataan Peninsula State University

In BPSU, Food Technology is being offered as a major of BS Industrial Technology (BS IT) under the College of Industrial Technology. This course is being offered in the Main Campus as well as In Orani. The BS IT program in BPSU was developed based on the curriculum by the Ministry of Education and Culture in 1975 and was adopted by the school in the same school year 1975-1976. Later on, in pursuant to CHED Memorandum Order No. 59, s. 1996, newBSIT program was im-
implemented during the school year 1998-1999 and still being implemented in the current curriculum (see Appendix A). The subjects in the current curriculum are industry-oriented. The professional and technical courses are arranged to enable the students to develop a mastery of the fundamentals of specialized skills of the occupation (CIT Research Agenda, 2013).

The Bachelor of Science in Industrial Technology is a four-year degree program that has a total of 162 units. The program offers the following areas of specialization in The Main Campus: automotive technology, electrical technology, electronics technology, food technology, drafting technology, machine shop technology, and refrigeration technology and welding technology. The program includes general courses and specialized courses depending on the specialization of the enrolled students. Listed on Table 2 are the specialized subjects of Food Technology majors.

Table 2. Specialized subjects for the BS Industrial Technology (BSIT) major in Food Technology at the Bataan Peninsula State University (BPSU)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Title of the Course</th>
<th>Year/ Semester to be Taken</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Food preparation &amp; Service Technology</td>
<td>1st Year – First Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational Health &amp; Safety</td>
<td>1st Year – First Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waitering and Bartending</td>
<td>1st Year – Second Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Commercial Baking</td>
<td>2nd Year – First Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culinary Arts</td>
<td>2nd Year – First Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced Baking</td>
<td>2nd Year – Second Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Preservation</td>
<td>2nd Year – Second Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Cookery Regional</td>
<td>3rd Year – First Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity Cookery International</td>
<td>3rd Year – Second Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervised Industrial Training/Industry Immersion</td>
<td>4th Year – First Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Second Semester (OJT)</td>
<td>4th Year – Second Semester</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The specialized subjects offered by BS IT major in Food Technology are intended to equip the students with the basic skills and knowledge as needed by the industry they supposed to end up working with. Since the course curriculum is industry-oriented, graduates of BS IT major in Food Technology are expected to land on jobs that requires skills and technicalities. On the contrary, a similar course program is being offered at BPSU that is the Bachelor of Science in Hotel, Restaurant and Management.

Apparently, the subjects listed in Table 2 are quiet similar to the subjects offered by the Bachelor of Science in Hotel, Restaurant and Management (BS HRM). Some subjects in the BPSU's FT program also seem to be redundant such as the Quantity Cookery Regional and International which is offered on a different semester while some SUCs are offering it in only one semester. With that in mind, the administrators of BS IT major in Food Technology are still finding ways in improving the course program to provide more competent graduates that would stand out in the food industry. Thus, it must be proposed that a revision of the BS IT major in FT curriculum - which was last revised in 1998 - should be done immediately to be able to prepare the forthcoming BPSU students in a very competitive environment of the industry.

In addition, Food Technology in BPSU is offered as a major in a two-year trade technician curriculum. With a total of 93 units, the two-year trade technician curriculum offers almost the same major subjects (28 units) with the bachelor's degree (4-year course). Major courses offered in the two-year trade technician course are listed in Table 3.

Since the curriculum for trade technician is offered for only two years, the subjects should match the industry's needs. With that in mind, some subjects offered in the two-year course do not seem to be needed such as Engineering Drawing which should be taken every semester for two years. Food Technology majors does not necessarily need Engineering Drawing for their major. It should be more advantageous to the curriculum to offer Food Technology subjects rather than Engineering Drawing. Engineering Drawing will be replaced by FT subjects; it will give four semesters of specialization to the FT majors.
Table 3. Research-related subjects of the Two-Year Trade Technician Major in FT curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Code</th>
<th>Descriptive Title of the Course</th>
<th>Year/ Semester to be taken</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-115</td>
<td>Food preparation and Service Tech I&amp;II (Hot Kitchen)</td>
<td>1stSemester-FirstYear</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-115a</td>
<td>Occupational Health and Safety Practices</td>
<td>1stSemester-FirstYear</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-125</td>
<td>Food and Beverage Preparation and Services (Waitering and Bartending)</td>
<td>2nd Semester- First Year</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-125a</td>
<td>Bartending</td>
<td>2nd Semester- First Year</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-215</td>
<td>Introduction to Food Trade Practices Food Preservation</td>
<td>1stSemester-SecondYear</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-215a</td>
<td>Food Processing, Packaging and Labeling</td>
<td>1stSemester-SecondYear</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-225</td>
<td>Basic Commercial Baking</td>
<td>2ndSemester-SecondYear</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD-225a</td>
<td>Advance baking</td>
<td>2ndSemester-SecondYear</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This research study is part of a research program that aims to develop a Food Technology degree program that is capable of producing food products that would later serve as possible BPSU’s flagship food products. As for the present curriculum, the FT department can still conduct researches on food product development since the curriculum has research and training-related subjects (Table 4). But if BPSU will continue to offer this program without revising the program, most of the students might get lost in understanding the process of food product development.

Table 4. Research-related subjects of the current BS IT major in FT curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Code</th>
<th>Descriptive Title of the Course</th>
<th>Year/ Semester to be taken</th>
<th>Units</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IPDD-313</td>
<td>Industrial product Design and Development</td>
<td>1stSemester-ThirdYear</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITTR-313</td>
<td>Industrial Technology Trainers Training program</td>
<td>1stSemester-ThirdYear</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITRH-323</td>
<td>Industrial technology Research</td>
<td>2nd Semester- Third Year</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nueva Ecija University of Science and Technology

In all of Region III, Nueva Ecija University of Science and Technology (NEUST) is one of the state universities offering a program in Bachelor of Science in Industrial Technology major in Food Technology (BS IT major in FT) under the College of Industrial Technology. BS IT in NEUST is also being offered as a four-year, degree. With the college’s goal to prepare and fit individuals for gainful employment in the professional, skilled and semi-skilled trade, crafts or occupation, properly equipped with manipulative and technical skills guided by proper values and attitudes as they respond effectively to the needs of local and international community’s - BPSU’s FT course program deems very similar to that of NEUSTs. Moreover, the College of Industrial Technology also offers a five-month Accelerated Vocational Training Program (AVTP) major in Culinary Arts. The College also offers program for professionals who wish to increase their cooking skills. The program lasts for about two to three months with 10 to 15 students. The program is offered with a minimum fee. Ingredients to be used in class will be provided by the students.

The current curriculum of the BS IT major if FT in NEUST Is approved through the Board Resolution No. 87-D, s. 2007. Food Technology majors of BS IT in NEUST has 17 major subjects compared to the 11 major subjects of the FT majors of BS IT in BPSU. It must be noted that with the same degree title under the same college, NEUSTs FT program are found to be more industry-oriented than with BPSU’s FT program. Subjects such as Nutrition Education, Consumer Education, Personality Development, Meal Management, Food Chemistry and Food Service Management are found in the NEUSTs program but not in BPSU's program. If BPSU will adopt this curriculum and add these subjects to the curriculum, BPSU’s FT program will be more competitive and the program will deem more as a degree that would fall in between Food Science and HRM. Graduates of this program will be more industry-exposed and technically-equipped that would match the industry’s needs.

Central Luzon State University

Being the lead agency of the Muñoz Science Community and the seat of the Regional Research
and Development Center in Central Luzon, the Central Luzon State University is an excellent institution for assessment in this research study. To date, CLSU is one of the premiere institutions for agriculture in the Philippines and in Southeast Asia known for its researches in aquaculture, ruminants, crops, orchard, and water management researches (CLSU Official Website, 2013).

In CLSU, Food Technology is offered as a degree (Bachelor of Science in Food Technology; BS FT) itself - a curriculum different from the three universities discussed earlier. BS FT is offered under the College of Home Science and Industry with a total of 185 units. BS FT is a four-year curriculum that has subjects to be taken in 3 summers. Unlike the programs discussed in BPSU, NEUST and PAC, CLSU’s Food Technology program offers 69 units of major FT subjects. Aside from the thesis requirement of the curriculum, the students are also required to take up intensive chemistry, math, and microbiology and food technology subjects that are basically teaching scientific method and reasoning. It is deemed that CLSU’s BS FT curriculum is similar to the BS FT offered at the University of the Philippines (UP) and University of Santo Thomas. Although BPSU only offers FT as a major, we can still learn from the curriculum of CLSU on how FT can be more research-oriented. Turning BPSU’s BS IT in FT to that of CLSU’s BS FT would require tedious work not to mention the requirement in terms of laboratory rooms and other infrastructure. After this research study, BPSU may be found to be unprepared to offer BS FT like CLSU, but this study may be able to recommend an approach in introducing research-oriented subjects that is more useful for the students and to the University as well. Listed on Table 7 are the major subjects in the BS FT program in CLSU.

Food Technology in CLSU opens the door for students who wish to specialize in food technology as a branch of food science which deals with the actual production processes to make foods. Unlike the FT program offered by NEUST, PAC and our university BPSU, CLSU’s FT program concentrates more on the science of processing food not the actual processing of foods. BPSU’s FT program will come a long way in developing a curriculum similar to CLSU’s but one particular subject that would help start the research
culture in FT is the Sensory Evaluation of Foods. Sensory evaluation is a scientific discipline that analyses and measures human responses to the composition food and drink, e.g. appearance, touch, odor, texture, temperature and taste and even temperature. With the proper knowledge, sensory evaluation can be used to: (1) compare similarities/differences in a range of dishes/products; (2) evaluate a range of existing dishes/food products; (3) analyse food samples for improvements; (4) gauge responses to a dish/food product; (5) explore specific characteristics of an ingredient or dish/food product; (6) check whether the final dish/food product meet its original specification; and (7) provide objective and subjective feedback data to enable informed decisions to be made (British Nutrition Foundation website 2013).

B. ASSESSMENT OF FACULTY PROFILE

Faculty plays a very important role in the knowledge acquired by the students, and thus to the overall academic performance of the students, thus to the college and the university. This research study aims to assess the overall Food Technology situation including the capability of the faculty members in providing considerable knowledge in the area of product development.

Bataan Peninsula State University

Since the BS IT major in FT program is being offered in Main and Orani campuses, faculty members of both campuses were assessed in terms of the highest educational attainment, tenure, seminars and training attended and other relevant qualifications. At present, 3 faculty members are actively participating in the activities of BS IT Food technology in the Main Campus whereas 5 faculty members are in Orani campus. Appendix A shows the list of faculty members teaching in Main and Orani campus.

Faculty members of the FT program in BPSU are generally competitive. The highest educational attainments of all the faculty members are at least in the Masters level and mostly on the educational and administration fields. With that in mind, faculty members in the BPSU FT program must be lacking some technical background on the food technology techniques in the processing of the food and a like. In order to support the techni-
cal background needed by the faculty members to implement a research and product oriented curriculum, they need to be sent to more workshop and trainings that involves in-depth food product development. Moreover, most of the faculty members are permanent which make it easier to send them to seminars and workshops that would be beneficial or their careers and to be able to find the research area they would like to concentrate with.

All of the faculty members in Main and Orani campuses are full time instructors of BPSU. Research activities can then be done outside class ours. Faculty members of the Main campus are actively participating in training/seminars and workshops but the faculty members in Orani campus are participating less than those in the Main campus. Of course, a lot of factors may contribute to the participation of the FT faculty member in Orani. At the nest phase of the study, the researchers will try to establish a routine seminar/training and workshop or the FT majors and faculty to enhance the research capability of the faculty members.

Nueva Ecija University of Science and Technology

With a curriculum that is very similar to the BPSU, NEUST has only 3 faculty teaching the Food Technology major of BSIT. All of the faculty members have attained master's degree level and all of them are in permanent, full time positions. Although the seminars they have attended are quiet less than what we found in the seminars attended by the faculty of BPSU. Appendix B shows the faculty profile of the FT faculty of NEUST.

Pampanga Agricultural College

Table 5. Number of respondents in BPSU Main and Orani Campuses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BPSU Main Campus</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BPSU Orani Campus</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>161</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bataan Peninsula State University

Since Food Technology is being offered in Main and Orani campuses, it is better to present the demographics of the two campuses separately. Main and Orani campuses are both distinct in geographic location and has distinct student characteristic. Both campuses can offer different specialty as food product is concerned. Table 6 shows the characteristics of the respondents in Main and Orani campuses.
In developing a curriculum that would incorporate the elements of research and development of food products, it is important to determine the interest of the students in the usual tasks involved in the food product development. Table 7 shows the personal interest of BS IT Food Technology students in BPSU Main and Orani campuses. Clearly, the students are more interested in the actual processing/cooking of foods compared to the post processing tasks like dishwashing, doing sales report and food packaging. For proposing a food product and development activity, these results must be taken into consideration. It may be possible that doing sales report be done by the business and management majors and food packaging maybe done by the BS IT Drawing majors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents Characteristics</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Main Campus</th>
<th></th>
<th>Orani Campus</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>23.61</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>38.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>73.39</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>61.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>16-17</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.77</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18-19</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>46.39</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20-21</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19.59</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22 and above</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course</td>
<td>Vocational FT</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29.81</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>34.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BSIT (FT)</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>70.19</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>65.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years stayed in BPSU</td>
<td>Less than a year</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>25.23</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.48</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>42.99</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.02</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.41</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>More than 4 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td>Food Technology</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In developing a curriculum that would cater into the development of flagship food product, it is important to know the thoughts and impression of the students to the curriculum. Two important questions regarding the curriculum were asked in the questionnaires—whether the students have classes that cover the evaluation of sensory attributes of food and research methods that can
be used for the production of high quality and tasty food. Eighty seven percent (87.10%) of the students think that they have a class that covers sensory evaluation of foods. Current curriculum in BSIT major in Food Technology reflects that research topics are being covered. As for the impression of the students, 75% of them answered that there is a class that introduces research methods that can be used in the production of high quality and tasty food products (Table 8).

### Table 8. Insights on Curriculum of BS IT Food Technology according to the BPSU Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Main Campus</th>
<th>Orani Campus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you have a class that covers the evaluation of the sensory attributes of your food products</td>
<td>Yes 81 87.10</td>
<td>No 12 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93 100</td>
<td>2 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have a class that introduces research methods that can be used for the production of high quality and tasty food products</td>
<td>Yes 75 84.27</td>
<td>No 14 15.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89 100</td>
<td>5 11.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The BS IT major in Food Technology has 4 semesters for elective classes. Based on the answers of the students in BPSU Main Campus, the students in BPSU Main campus would like to take baking, beverage and international cuisine for their elective classes. Student in the Orani Campus would like to take electives classes on baking, beverage and business and management. FT Students in the Main Campus are more interested in improving their skills while FT students in Orani Campus would like to improve their skills and at the same time learn business and management that would help them with possible business and management tasks in the future (Table 9).

### Table 9. Past and possible activities of BS IT Food Technology students in BPSU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Interesting classes to take as electives</th>
<th>Main Campus</th>
<th>Orani Campus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baking</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>24.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beverage</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>23.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Cuisine</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Management</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The BS IT Food Technology students have experienced cooking dishes and baking goods to be sold to let them experience the activities of entrepreneurship. These food products were asked in the questionnaire to be listed to gather possible flagship food product. Among the products that the students have tried cooking/baking and selling are:

1. Baked products: cakes, carrot cake, buko pie, brownies, tart, cookies, chocolate mousse
2. Processed food: catsup, ice cream, gabi chips, banana vinegar.
3. Dishes: rellenong bangus, chicken ala king, chicken relleno, embutido, glazed chicken with cashew nuts, lasagne, siomai.

Seminars/Trainings and workshops attended by the students for the past 12 months were collected through the questionnaires. Results show that most of the seminars/trainings and workshops attended by the students represents the different topics important in skills improvement, business and management, and food processing. When asked about the topics the students would like to have a seminar with, top three answers are beverage, baking and international cuisine (Table 10).
Table 10. Seminars/Trainings attended by the students for the past six months

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATTENDED SEMINARS/ TRAININGS</th>
<th>TOP 3 TOPICS OR SEMinar</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills Improvement</td>
<td>Beverage</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>10.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barista</td>
<td>Baking</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>10.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartending</td>
<td>International Cuisine</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>9.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cake Deco</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Styling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Cuisine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cruise Line Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Processing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malunggay Noodles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pizza Hut</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To be able to realize a department that would be capable in producing a flagship food product, there should be at least a student association that would continuously organize and uplift the students. At present, there is no student organization in the Food Technology department. Students have suggested the following names for the soon-to-be organization (Table 11).

Table 11. Suggested names for Food Technology organization in BPSU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUGGESTED NAME OF ORGANIZATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bataan Food Technologist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bataan’s Pride Food Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bataan’s Wealth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue Clubs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Tech Baking Products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Tech Club of Bataan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food Technologists of Bataan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthy Food Club</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masterpiece o Foods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newnilivers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pastry Blend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Blends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Match</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 shows the facilities and equipment used in class. Most of the facilities and equipment category listed are being used by the students. Although mechanized food processing equipment such as vacuum sealer, weighing scale, meat saw and sealing machine are seldom used with only 9.30% of the students think they are using them.

Table 12. Facilities/Equipment used in class based on students’ perspective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilities/ Equipment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mechanized cooking/baking equipment (e.g. mixer, oven, steamer, emulsifier, burner, gas)</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>27.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanized food processing equipment (e.g. vacuum sealer, weighing scale, meat saw, sealing machine)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measuring devices (e.g. cups, thermometer)</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>20.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand tools (e.g. knives, tongs, grater, spatula, Molds)</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>25.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small cooking equipment (e.g. pot, pans)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>17.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Listed on Table 13 are the facilities and equipment suggested by the students to be added to the departments. 31.72% of the students think that an additional electric/gas stove and oven are needed by the department. Dough mixer and rollers, blender and food processors and freezers are the other equipment needed by the department based on the answers of the students.

Table 13. Suggested facilities/equipment in addition to the FT department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facilities/ Equipment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electric/gas stove and oven</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>31.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dough mixer and oven</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blender/Food processor</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freezer</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dryer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steamer</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bartending tools and facilities</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Culinary and baking tools</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canning machines</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacuum sealer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refrigerator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knives</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cake designing tools</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coffee maker</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat saw and tenderizer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blow torch</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The aim of the study is to assess the Food Technology situation of BPSU in terms of curriculum, student preferences and output situation. The study also aims to compare the BS IT major in Food Technology program to the best represented program in three (3) state universities in Region 3. Results of the study have shown that BPSU’s program in Food Technology needs to be reviewed and updated in terms of the subjects being offered in the curriculum. From the three universities assessed, NEUST’s Food Technology program matches the curriculum BPSU is offering although it is found that NEUST’s are more updated and industry-oriented than of BPSU’s. Students’ preferences also match the need to change to a more industry-oriented curriculum. Facilities must be added to ensure the realization of the future projects of BPSU thus the development of flagship food products.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the foregoing conclusions, the following are recommended for further improvement of the project:

1. Review the curriculum based on CHED requirements and determines the path of the BSIT major in Food Technology to strengthen their skills or provide other choices for their electives.

2. Propose projects for possible flagship food product that the faculty and students may be involved with.

3. Prepare procurement plan for the Food Technology Department that would be utilized by the projects to be proposed in the future.

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THE INFLUENCE OF PERCEIVED SERVICE FAIRNESS ON BRAND ASSOCIATION AND BRAND CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN THE KOREAN RESTAURANT INDUSTRY

Minseong Kim*, University of Florida
Svetlana Stepchenkova, University of Florida

INTRODUCTION

Just to take care of one customer, a restaurant must provide an immense amount of human interaction, which begins with greeting the customer, assigning the customer a table, and an interaction between the customer and service provider (Nikbin, Marimuthu, and Hyun, 2016). Each interaction of serving the customer is subjected to an evaluation of fairness (Namkung and Jang, 2010). While dining out, the customer wants to have a fair experience with a restaurant, and the customer will judge the relationship with the restaurant and its service providers based on if the interactions are acceptable, reasonable, and just (Heo and Lee, 2011). Thus, the fairness of the service and the judgements of the customer surface when he/she senses either uniquely fair service or injustice when his/her dining experience conflicts with his/her fairness standards (Martinez-Tur, Peiro, Ramos, and Moliner, 2006).

A customer evaluates the justice or fairness of the conflict-handling process based on three standpoints: (1) fairness of outcomes (e.g., compensation), (2) fairness of procedures (e.g., structural considerations and formal policies) and (3) fairness of interactional treatments (e.g., politeness, neutrality, and concern) during the process provided by a restaurant (Mattila and Patterson, 2004). However, customers’ perception of fairness always tends to be present in a dining experience beyond the small percentage of customers complaining (Namkung, Jang, Almanza, and Ismail, 2009). It is arguable that regardless of service failure, consideration of all restaurant service delivery situations can provide a better picture of service fairness to both scholars and practitioners (Michel, Bowen, and Johnston, 2009). The notion that service quality and fairness are inseparable is commonly accepted (Berry, 1995). However, service quality and fairness are distinct phenomena (Seiders and Berry, 1998). Also, fairness embraces not one dimension of service, but all dimensions of service quality (Namkung and Jang, 2010). For example, Oliver and Swan (1989) suggested that perceived fairness could be an additional factor in predicting customer satisfaction, which was not captured in the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm to measure service quality. In comparison to service quality, fairness principles provide a distinctive framework for explaining the service consumption procedure, and fairness episodes can be employed as a core attribute of service evaluation (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1985). In spite of the significance of perceived service fairness in a general restaurant context, however, it has been neglected and has lacked empirical findings (Namkung and Jang, 2010; Nikbin et al., 2016).

In addition to a lack of empirical research on service fairness, there have been conflicting perspectives on specifying the multi-dimensions of fairness based on the notion that the fairness perceptions of a customer are context dependent (Colquitt, 2001). The conceptualization of perceived fairness has not been congruent with the service failure situation’s perspectives (Colquitt, 2001; Namkung et al., 2009; Nikbin et al., 2016). Thus, Namkung et al. (2009) suggested a new four-factor model of perceived fairness embracing the entire service delivery processes of a restaurant. The four-factor model includes price fairness, procedural fairness, outcome fairness, and interactional fairness. After their research, prior research has examined the influences of perceived service fairness on the positive and negative behavioral intentions of customers for a certain type of restaurant, such as fine dining restaurants (Nikbin et al., 2016) and luxury restaurants (Marinkovic, Senic, Ivkov, Dimitrovski, and Bjelic, 2014).

To our knowledge, currently there is little
empirical research investigating what leads to success in restaurant brand management with an emphasis on the role of perceived service fairness in all brand service delivery situations. Brand management enables restaurant brands to maintain a fair brand image perception among customers, who expect to have consistent service and product fairness regardless of the location of the restaurant brand (Sichtmann and Diamantopoulos, 2013). This approach guarantees economic advantages for restaurants under a same brand due to the economies of scale (Douglas and Craig, 2011). To be successful in the foodservice business, therefore, restaurant brands need to establish and retain strong brand management by focusing on service fairness. In addition, the service brand perception needs to be distinguished from physical product brands because of the intrinsic differences between the two types of brand (O’Cass and Grace, 2003). For example, consumers tend to rely on their memory and experience when perceiving a service brand due to its intangibility and perishability. Aaker (1991) conceptualized everything linked in a consumer’s memory to a certain service brand as brand association. Thus, this study considers brand association to be a consequence of perceived service fairness.

From a brand management standpoint, prior studies have led to a deeper understanding of customer-brand relationships based on brand loyalty. However, it is also noteworthy that research on brand citizenship behavior has created its own arena of brand study (Nyadzayo, Matanda, and Ewing, 2015). The brand citizenship behavior dimension is associated with voluntarily supportive activities in two dimensions to fit the external and internal branding context, which enhance brand performance (Nyadzayo et al., 2015): (1) Brand enthusiasm is the willingness to perform extra brand-associated work (Chiang, Chang, and Han, 2012), and (2) Brand endorsement is the willingness to endorse and defend brand values (Chiang et al., 2012). Those behaviors can enhance brand strength (Nyadzayo et al., 2015). To fill the aforementioned research gap, this study investigates the influence of perceived service fairness (i.e., price, procedural, outcome, and interactional fairness), brand association, and brand citizenship behavior (i.e., brand enthusiasm and brand endorsement) in the context of the Korean foodservice franchise industry. Thus, this study emphasizes the significant role of fairness in building strong customer-brand relationships in the fine dining franchise restaurant context.

**METHOD**

Data collection was conducted between August and September of 2015 in Seoul, South Korea. A paper format, cross-sectional, self-administered survey was conducted at a total of 15 fine dining franchise restaurants including Outback Steak House, T.G.I. Fridays, VIPS, and Ashley. The surveys were conducted while the customers were waiting for their check in order to ensure the participants had had an appropriate brand experience. The participants were offered a free beverage or dessert menu item, along with a $10 gift certificate to be used in the restaurant, to avoid non-response bias. Among the 440 responses received, 21 responses were deleted for excessive missing data. Thus, a total of 419 responses were used for data analysis.

A 7-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1 = “strongly disagree” and 7 = “strong agree” was used to measure respondents’ perceptions. The perceived service fairness construct (12 items) was operationalized with four dimensions: price, procedural, outcome, and interactional (Namkung and Jang, 2010). Price fairness measures (2 items) addressed a consumer’s overall judgment of price based on a comparison of the actual price to acceptable prices determined by both social standards (reference price) and self-interest (adaptation level) (Namkung and Jang, 2010). The procedural fairness measure (4 items) was concerned with the procedures and policies employed by service providers to product outcomes (Namkung and Jang, 2010). Two items were used to measure outcome fairness, and they addressed a customer’s evaluation of an outcome in terms of food and service (Nikbin et al., 2016). Interactional fairness measures (4 items) were related to dealing with an interpersonal behavior in the enactment of a procedure and delivery of a consequence (Tax, Brown, and Chandrashekaran, 1998). Brand association was measured with 9 items indicating anything linked in memory to a certain brand (Severi and Ling, 2013). The brand citizenship behavior construct was measured with the two-component model developed by Nyadzayo et al. (2015), which includes enthusiasm and brand endorsement.
FINDINGS

Structural model and test of hypotheses. AMOS 20.0 was used to conduct structural equation modeling (SEM). The results of SEM suggest a good fit: \(\chi^2=771.871, \text{d.f.=262}, \ p<.001, \text{NFI=.930, IFI=.953, TLI=.945, CFI=.952, and RMSEA=.068}\) (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1998). The SEM results showed that brand association was significantly influenced by procedural (standardized estimate=.266, t-value=2.652, \(p<.01\)), outcome (standardized estimate=.276, t-value=3.881, \(p<.01\)), and interactional fairness (standardized estimate=.208, t-value=2.850, \(p<.01\)). Also, brand association positively affected brand enthusiasm (standardized estimate=.677, t-value=13.726, \(p<.01\)) and brand endorsement (standardized estimate=.789, t-value=16.188, \(p<.01\)) (See Figure 1).

**Perceived Service Fairness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Price Fairness</th>
<th>Procedural Fairness</th>
<th>Outcome Fairness</th>
<th>Interactional Fairness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-1.189** (-1.916)</td>
<td>.266** (2.652)</td>
<td>.208** (2.850)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(\text{R}^2=.276, \text{R}^2=.459, \text{R}^2=.623\)

**Brand Citizenship Behavior**

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

The aim of this study was to investigate the effects of diverse dimensions of perceived service fairness on the franchise restaurant brand in Korea. This study examined the critical role played by brand association in understanding fine dining restaurant customers’ brand citizenship behaviors. This study contributes to the existing literature and provides managerial implications for restaurant brand management. From a theoretical standpoint, this study refines the relationship among perceptions of service fairness, brand association, and brand behaviors in the fine dining restaurant context. The existing literature suggested the causal relationship among perceived service fairness, emotions, and positive or negative behavioral intention for a certain type of restaurant. Compared to prior studies, this study considers another perspective on perceived service fairness with a basis in brand context. From a managerial perspective, the empirical findings provide restaurant franchise firms with some implications for how consumers evaluate their services from a fairness perspective. This study can help restaurant brands to better understand how each aspect of service fairness can establish both brand association and brand citizenship behaviors.

**REFERENCES**


A VALUE–ATTITUDE–BEHAVIOR MODEL EXAMINING CONSUMER WILLINGNESS TO PAY MORE FOR ORGANIC MENU ITEMS

Yeon Ho Shin, The University of Alabama
Hyoungun Moon, Oklahoma State University
Seung Eun Jung, The University of Alabama
Kimberly Severt, The University of Alabama

INTRODUCTION

Organic menus in the restaurant industry have become one of the major trends, following high demand of organic food from consumers (Gagić, Mikšić, & Petrović, 2015; Takalsi, 2016). While a number of researchers have done empirical studies regarding organic food (e.g., Krystallis & Chryssohoidis, 2005; Lockie, Lyons, Lawrence, & Grice, 2004; Yin, Wu, Du, & Chen, 2010), to our best knowledge, few studies have focused on consumer behaviors in regards to organic menu items in the restaurant context. This study aims to fill the gap by examining consumers’ decision-making process when they choose organic menu items at a restaurant. Specifically, this study centers on the environmental perspective, which is known as one of the most important reasons to select organic foods (Hughner, McDonagh, Prothero, Shultz, & Stanton, 2007). The hypothesized model of this research was built upon value-attitude-behavior model (Homer & Kahle, 1988). According to the model (Homer & Kahle, 1988), individuals’ value is an antecedent of attitude and his/her behavior is influenced by the attitude. In terms of a person’s sustainable behavior, Stern and Dietz (1994) noted that attitudes regarding environmental issues come from an individual’s more general set of values. The general set of values consists of egoistic (self), social-altruistic (other people), and biosphere values (Stern & Dietz, 1994). Therefore, the purpose of this research is to investigate how consumers’ general sustainability values impact environmental attitudes and in turn, the attitudes impact willingness to pay more for organic menu items.

METHOD

The data was collected through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). The survey targeted those who reside in the U.S. and 18 years or older. The survey questionnaire was designed to test the five constructs in the hypothesized model, which are altruistic value, egoistic value, biosphere value, environmental attitude, and WTP. Before proceeding to the main survey, a short description about what USDA certified organic food is (USDA, 2012) and an example of an organic menu item was provided to survey participants. Analysis was done using a two-step approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) using Mplus 7. In the first step, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to confirm whether the measurement items reliably reflected their latent constructs and whether the measurement model has a satisfactory model fit. Next, structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to test the relationships among the latent variables.

FINDINGS

The composite reliability values were between 0.83 and 0.95, indicating adequate internal consistency (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.74 to 0.98, indicating acceptable level of reliability (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Discriminant and convergent validity were also examined and no problem was detected. The results from CFA using the maximum likelihood method showed that the measurement model fit the data well. After confirming the measurement model, the structural model was assessed with the maximum likelihood estimation. Based on the model fit indices presented in Table 1, the model provided a good fit to the data. Figure 1 presents...
the overall structural diagram with standardized path coefficients. Solid lines indicate statistically significant paths and dotted lines indicate non-significant paths.

Table 1. Goodness of Fit Indices for Measurement Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>df/2</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Measurement model</td>
<td>475.72</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. χ²=Chi-square, df= degree of freedom, RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, CFI= Comparative Fit Index, TLI= Tucker-Lewis Index.

![Causal Relationships among Latent Variables](image)

Note. * = p < .001, Significant path, Non-significant path

**CONCLUSION**

Customers’ altruistic value, which means that taking care of other people more in general, influences biosphere value that weighs on natural environment and nonhuman living creatures. This finding is consistent with previous findings (e.g., de Groot & Steg, 2008; Steg, Dreijerink, & Abrahamse, 2005). On the other hand, customers’ egoistic value that lies on their own goods first, such as achieving power, wealth, and recognition in a society, was not a significant antecedent of biosphere value. Consumers’ environmental attitude fully mediated the relationship between biosphere values and WTP. In other words, consumers with higher biosphere values are more likely willing to pay for organic menu items when they dine out because they have a positive environmental attitude.

The outcomes of this study contribute to a better understanding of diners’ spending intention in this specific context. Additionally, this study revealed that environmental attitude played a full mediating role between biosphere value and WTP and helped explain how biosphere value influenced WTP more comprehensively. By conducting promotions that can spark people’s general sustainability values, organic restaurants can strengthen the eco-conscious attitudes toward the restaurant and attract not only existing consumers, but also potential diners whose values are highly correlated to other people with similar eco-conscious attitudes.

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ERGONOMIC ASPECTS AT THE WESTERN RESTAURANT IN SURABAYA

Monika Kristanti, Petra Christian University
Herry Christian Palit, Petra Christian University

INTRODUCTION

According to Zainuddin, Abidin, & Hashim (2012), ergonomics learns how to design a job and workplace that fit in the ability and limitations of the human body, and in the end create a comfortable atmosphere. Ergonomics does not only create comfort for workers but also for customers, for instance, the type of chair which is comfortable having back rest with 40.6 cm to 43.2 cm height (Panero and Zelnik, 2003). A comfortable atmosphere becomes an important aspect for customers in choosing a restaurant; price, quality and service were no longer be the main consideration for culinary lovers (Kotler, Bowen, and Makens, 2003).

Preliminary researches related to ergonomics and focused on the workers were done by Cocci, Namasivayam, and Bordi (2005); Inyang, Al-Hussein, El-Rich, and Al-Jibouri (2012); and Hendrarto, Rachman, Sulasto, and Afrinaldi (2012). All those preliminary researches showed that ergonomics gives influence on the workers’ comfort, productivity, and reduces the injury cost. Based on those previous studies, this research is conducted to find out whether ergonomic aspects influence the customer’s comfort while dining in the restaurant. This case study uses one of the Western Restaurants in Surabaya named Pipe and Barrel Restaurant.

METHOD

This case study used quantitative method by measuring ergonomic aspects and distributing questionnaires to the customers of Pipe and Barrel. Ergonomic aspects in this research consist of physical ergonomics, and environmental ergonomics. Physical ergonomics consists of visual display and anthropometric; environmental ergonomics are ventilation, humidity, illumination and glare, and sound. The questionnaires were distributed to 100 respondents who came to Pipe and Barrel Restaurant Surabaya. The sampling technique was judgmental sampling; the respondents were above 17 years old and visited Pipe and Barrel Restaurant Surabaya in the period of March – May 2016.

In analyzing the data, there are two types of analyzes. First, the result of measurement compared to the ergonomic standard. Second, this study used Partial Least Squares (PLS) – SEM which consists of three steps. The first step is Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), the second step is path analysis and the third step is structural model fit.

FINDINGS

The present research shows that environmental ergonomics, visual display and anthropometric gave influence on 70.7% of customers’ comfort. It means that three aspects of ergonomics have strong influence on customers’ comfort. Based on the path analysis, it could be seen that each variable had contribution to the customers’ comfort; anthropometric contributed 0.288, visual display contributed 0.072, and environmental ergonomics had the biggest contribution of 0.566.

The result shown the indicator in environmental ergonomics that gave the biggest contribution was ventilation. In fact, Pipe and Barrel has two dining areas, indoor and outdoor area. Inside the restaurant, there is no natural ventilation but it uses air conditioner for circulation, while in the outdoor area uses fans, so that indoor area is colder. It is supported by the observation and interviews done by the researcher that customers in indoor area were likely to sit longer than customers who sat in outdoor area. Even though there is no natural ventilation inside the restaurant, ergonomically it is still appropriate. The condition of no natural ventilation inside the restaurant is supported by Suma’mur (2009), if a room does not have natural circulation, it still can create good circulation as long as there is air conditioner or fan in the room. Based on the measurement of environmental ergonomics compared to the standard, it showed that
ventilation, humidity, illumination and glare, and sound in Pipe and Barrel Restaurant were in accordance with the standard although some customers still complaint for the high temperature in outdoor area.

Anthropometric and environmental ergonomics had positive and significant effect to the customers’ comfort, while visual display had positive but no significant effect to the customers’ comfort (see Table 1).

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<tr>
<th>Table 1. Path Coefficient</th>
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<tr>
<td>Anthropometric → Customers’ comfort</td>
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<td>Environmental ergonomics → Customers’ comfort</td>
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<td>Visual Display → Customers’ comfort</td>
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Environmental ergonomics had positive and significant effect to the customers’ comfort since it created atmosphere in the restaurant. Nowadays, customers, especially the young ones, are very demanding for the nice atmosphere, such as the right room temperature, nice music background that the customers could talk with friends comfortably. It could be seen that most of Pipe and Barrel’s customers like pop music, the type of music that all ages might enjoy. The demand for nice atmosphere is in line with Kotler, Bowen, and Makens (2003) that at the present time, comfortable atmosphere becomes an important aspect for customers in choosing a restaurant; price, quality and service were no longer be the main consideration for culinary lovers.

Anthropometric had positive and significant effect to the customers’ comfort. In this research, anthropometric is related to the space between the tables, the space between the chairs inside the table, the width of the table, the proportional height of the chairs and the table, the design of the chairs, and the height of order counter. If the space between the tables and the space between the chairs inside the table are too narrow, the customers cannot move comfortably. It is supported by Panero and Zelnik (2003) that narrow space between tables and between chairs make the customers feel uncomfortable to move and to talk. At Pipe and Barrel Restaurant itself, all aspects of the anthropometric are not in line with the standard, such as some chairs do not have back rest, the seat of the sofa is so wide the the customers’ feet cannot flat on the ground, some chairs have the same height with the table so that the customers eat with the back bent forward. Besides, some designs of the chair are not comfortable for the customers to sit. All those conditions make the customers reluctant to stay longer in the restaurant. It could be seen from the statement that the design of the chair makes customers sit for longer time only got the mean of 3.11 which is neutral. It also could be proven by the fact that most of the customers only stay for 1 to 2 hours. Even though the anthropometric aspects are not according to the standards, the customers still feel comfortable because most of the customers are at the age of 17 to 25 come with friends or lovers so that those customers do not feel the uncomfortability.

Visual display had positive but no significant influence on customers’ comfort. In this research, visual display includes menu board, menu display, sign board for rest room and order counter, and sign board of restaurant’s name. Based on the interview to some customers, sign board for order counter is not important for the customers since the restaurant has greeter who will direct the customers to the counter right after the customers enter the restaurant. Moreover, menu display and menu board are not so important since the customers could ask to the server directly while ordering the food and drink at the counter.

Overall, the ergonomic aspect at Pipe and Barrel Restaurant is 61.9% according to the standard. It means that the ergonomic aspects which is visual display, anthropometric and environmental ergonomics are implemented quite good in the restaurant.
CONCLUSIONS

Based on the study, it is found out that environmental ergonomics, visual display and anthropometric give influence on 70.7% of customers’ comfort. It means that three aspects of ergonomics have strong influence on customers’ comfort. Anthropometric and environmental ergonomics have positive and significant effect to the customers’ comfort, while visual display has positive but no significant effect to the customers’ comfort.

REFERENCES


THE INFLUENCE OF EMPOWERMENT LEVEL ON THE PERCEPTION OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS: A CASE OF LOCAL COMMUNITIES LIVING ADJACENT TO KILIMANJARO NATIONAL PARK, TANZANIA.

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Seung-Woo Choo, Dong-Eui University
Yeong Hwang, Dong-A University

INTRODUCTION

Empowerment is one of the key factors for the success of tourism development in developing countries. In tourism context, empowerment is a process of enabling local communities to gain authority to collect resources to meet their needs, to take action, to achieve social justice and to make decisions (Timothy, 2007). In regard to common principles of sustainable tourism development, participatory tourism development refers to empowering local communities to determine their main goals for development (Timothy, 1999). Tourism development helps to empower local communities so that they can improve their livelihoods. Empowerment is a multi-dimensional concept including economic, social, political, and psychological empowerment (Friedmann, 1992).

This research on influence of empowerment level on the perception of tourism development process was carried out based on opinion survey of the local communities living around Kilimanjaro National Park, Tanzania. Osborne (1994) suggested four possible societal settings for empowerment, known as the marketplace, the community, the public sector and the political system. Community empowerment is aimed at making people strong spiritually, politically, socially and economically, so as to increase their capacity and confidence level to influence decision making, to tackle their problems, to challenge discrimination, to strengthen community unity and to build sustainable communities. The main purpose of this study was to understand the relations perception of empowerment level in relation to other aspects of tourism development process like capacity building, economic benefits, biodiversity conservation and infrastructure development. The results of this study will provide meaningful implications for tourism destination planners to derive strategies to empower more local people to the tourism development process in their destination.

METHOD

This study employed a survey to accomplish its objectives. Structured questionnaires were administered to the local people who live around Kilimanjaro National Park in the three selected areas namely Rongai, Marangu and Machame. Convenience sampling was used to select respondents. Before conducting the survey, the interviewees were briefed in detail to ensure that they understand the objectives of the study and the questions. As a result, data of a total number of 150 households were obtained.

Items for the perception of empowerment, capacity building, economic benefits, biodiversity conservation and infrastructure development were obtained from previous research (e.g., Nyaupane & Poudel, 2011) and included in the questionnaire. Upon the collection of data, reliability test was conducted to eliminate the items with higher reliability value if item deleted. Then an exploratory factor analysis was applied to further clarify the factor structure by deleting items loaded on multiple factors. For empowerment, 6 out of 7 items were remained and two factors, namely accessibility and involvement, were identified. The number of items for capacity building was reduced from 7 to 5 items, and it appears to be one factor. Original 9 items to measure the perception on economic benefit of tourism development were reduced to 5 items. The remaining items represent
two factors, namely market opportunity and product diversification. Three out of 9 items for the perception on biodiversity conservation were retained and represent one factor. The number of items for infrastructure development remained the same and represent single factor.

**FINDINGS**

The majority of the respondents (66%) is female and is at the age range between 21 years old to 50 years old (94%). Also it shows that overwhelming number of the respondents (approximately 69%) were married and remaining (31%) were unmarried. The results further shows that about 12% of the respondents were educated up to tertiary level, 33.3% up to secondary school and the majority of respondents (approximately 55%) had only primary education level.

The respondents were classified into two groups, high and low group, based on their mean score on accessibility and involvement empowerment factors, respectively. And a series of t-test was applied to the measure of capacity building, economic benefits, biodiversity conservation, and infrastructure development to examine the difference by empowerment groups. The results are depicted in Table 1.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Table 1. Difference in perceptions of capacity building, economic benefits, biodiversity conservation and infrastructure development by empowerment level.</th>
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<td>Biodiversity Conservation</td>
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<td>Infrastructure Development</td>
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**Note:** 0=Not at all; 4=Very much

There is a significant difference in the perception of economic benefit on market opportunity (t=3.361, sig.=.001), economic benefit on product diversification (t=2.056, sig.=.042), and biodiversity conservation (t=1.975, sig.=.050) by accessibility empowerment group. The group with higher perception on accessibility empowerment has more positive perception on other aspects of tourism development process. Group differences in the perception of capacity building and infrastructure development are not statistically significant. Differences in the perceptions of tourism development process by involvement empowerment groups are not significant with an exception of the perception of infrastructure development. It appears that the low group in the perception on involvement empowerment has a significantly (t=2.506, sig.=.015) higher perception on the infrastructure development than the higher group does.

**IMPLICATIONS**

By considering tourism development situation in Kilimanjaro National Park, it is interesting to note that the local people’s perception on capacity building and economic benefits are rated very low in comparison to their perception on biodiversity conservation and infrastructure development. One of the reasons could be attributed to the situation that the government of Tanzania is focusing more on tourism facilities development and law making to hinder local people from utilizing natural resources but neglecting to create opportunities for tourism economic activities and education programs for local people.

The results imply that development of channels for local residents to access information and education programs related to the tourism development in their region is an important managerial activity to encourage the support from local people. The results indicate that local people with high accessibility empowerment have a positive perception on economic benefits of tourism development and biodiversity conservation activities. Creating environment for local people to
feel that they have no limitation to access to the information and education program is a necessary step before the endeavours to actualize the outcomes of tourism development. To gain support from local people for tourism development, it is thus important to empower local people in terms of their accessibility to development related information and education programs.

On the other hand, local people with high involvement empowerment have a relatively low positive perception on infrastructure development. This result somehow contradicts to general expectation. Part of the reason could be attributable to the expectation level each group has on the tourism development. If local people are more involved in the tourism development process and feel more empowered, their expectation on the infrastructure development is likely to be high, as compared to lower involvement empowerment group with low expectation on infrastructure development. Given the same level of infrastructure development in the region, lower group is likely to be associated with positive perception level.

REFERENCES


LOCAL TOURISM PRACTITIONERS’ VIEWS ON THE EMERGENCE OF THE DMO CONCEPT IN JAPAN: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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Adam Doering, Wakayama University
Yuji Yashima, Wakayama University

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The Destination Marketing and/or Management Organisation (DMO) has long been considered an important component of the tourism system, especially in Western countries (Hall & Veer, 2016; Pike & Page, 2014). The concept of the DMO has been adopted in many destinations at the national, state, regional and local levels, and its effectiveness for developing sustained destination competitiveness in the global market has been widely acknowledged by both practitioners and tourism scholars (Hays, Page, & Buhalís, 2013; Hsu, Killion, Brown, Gross, & Huang, 2008; Pike, 2008; Pike & Page, 2014). Notably, many DMOS have shared similar organisational structures and activities for many years (Pike, 2016). However, the relevance of DMOS in the contemporary society, which includes an increasingly uncertain future, is now under debate (Dredge, 2016a, 2016b; Hall & Veer, 2016; Munar, 2016). In reality, DMOS in certain countries, such as the United Kingdom, are being subsumed into broader economic development agencies (Pike, 2016; Reinhold, Laesser, & Beritelli, 2015).

Although the future role of the DMO is now under discussion among scholars, DMOS are still expected to be a vital component of destination development in many countries. One notable example is Japan, a country that heavily promotes tourism for continuous economic growth via ventures such as the Visit Japan Campaign launched in 2003 (Japan National Tourism Organization [JNTO], 2006; Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet, 2016). Although Japan received around 5,200,000 international tourists in 2003, more than 24,000,000 international tourists visited in 2016. The Japanese government is now aiming for 40 million international tourists by 2020 and 60 million international tourists by 2030 (JNTO, 2016, 2017; Japan Tourism Agency [JTA], 2016a). As part of a series of initiatives designed to address the rapid increase in tourism development, the Japanese government launched the registered DMO candidate program in November 2015. Registered organisations may have opportunities to receive a range of government support, including financial support, to advance their organisations’ destination marketing and/or management activities (JTA 2015, 2016a). In addition to the concept of the DMO being adopted, the English abbreviation ‘DMO’ has also been introduced as the official term used for the program.

The registered DMO candidate program has been accepting applications from existing organisations that often represent semi-public organisations at their destinations, with many referred to as Kanko Kyokai, and newly established organisations are also eligible to apply. As of January 2017, 123 organisations were registered as DMO candidate organisations. Within these organisations, four organisations are registered as inter-prefectural (Koiki Renkei), 56 are registered as inter-municipal (Chiiki Renkei) and 63 are registered as municipal (Chiiki) level DMO candidate organisations (JTA, 2017b). Figure 1 shows the growth in the number of registered DMO candidate organisations since the JTA’s first announcement of the candidate organisations in February 2016.

This paper presents the initial findings from a broader research project on the introduction and emergence of DMOS in Japan. The broader research project aims to attain further knowledge of the current situation of the DMO program in Japan as well as broadening the geographical scope of DMO research into new and emerging markets throughout Asia. In order to expand investigation of the topic, this paper explores how local tourism practitioners, especially destination organisations, in Japan view and understand the concept of the DMO.
METHOD

The research team conducted in-depth interviews with representatives from seven destinations, either from organisations representing the destinations or tourism divisions of local Japanese governments, between October and November 2016. Among the seven destinations, two represented prefectural levels and five represented municipal levels. At the time of the interviews, one organisation representing a prefecture was already listed as an inter-municipal level DMO candidate organisation, three municipal level organisations were listed as municipal level DMO candidate organisations and three destinations (one prefectural and two municipal levels) had not applied for the program. As part of a broader set of questions used during the interviews, the research team explored how the concept of the DMO is viewed, understood and discussed at the destinations. Initial findings from the analysis of the interview data are presented in this paper.

FINDINGS

The interviews with representatives from the destinations identified challenges that many of the organisations shared relating to the introduction of the DMO concept. The most common challenge was understanding and interpreting the concept of the DMO within the organisations and among stakeholders at the destinations. Most tourism destinations in Japan, including the destinations interviewed in this study, have organisations that are responsible for marketing the destination and facilitating destination development. Therefore, when using broad definitions adopted from Western literature, they can be understood as DMOs (Hsu et al., 2008; Pike, 2008; Wang, 2011). Although the JTA’s new registered DMO candidate program supports new organisations, it also aims to enhance existing organisations’ activities, particularly stakeholder collaborations and marketing related activities, which the JTA sees as a current weakness among many tourism organisations (JTA 2015, 2016a). However, a common response was that many destination representatives see existing organisations and the ‘DMO’ as very distinct forms of organisations. In addition, many destinations were confused about the term ‘DMO’ because it was new and not commonly used among tourism practitioners, which made it harder to interpret the basic concept. One representative from a municipal level destination that had not applied for the program admitted that he and his team had not heard the term ‘DMO’ before introduction of the JTA’s
program; thus, although the destination has an interest in the program, a clear understanding of both the team and the concept within the organisation need to be established first. These kinds of confusion and difficulties were often observed during the study and may be shared among other organisations and tourism businesses across the country.

CONCLUSION

This paper presented the initial findings from a broader research project on the emergence of the DMO concept in Japan, which the country has implemented to promote tourism for continuous economic growth. This paper focused on common challenges that destinations had at the early stage of the introduction of the DMO concept. Through conducting a series of in-depth interviews with destination representatives, common challenges to interpreting the concept, which often originated from the introduction of the new term 'DMO' in the Japanese context, were observed. Of note, the JTA's registered DMO candidate program was launched in November 2015, not long before the study was conducted; thus, understanding of the concept may gradually increase among destinations. As previously discussed, this paper was formed from only seven interviews conducted in the latter part of 2016. Therefore, more in-depth interviews with both registered and non-registered organisations across the country are needed to foster better understanding of this phenomenon.

REFERENCES


Paper presented at the 6th International Conference on Tourism, Naples, Italy.


A CONCEPTUAL PAPER ON THE EXPERIENTIAL DINING IN THEME RESTAURANTS

Jan Racky Alvarez Masa, Far Eastern University, Philippine Women’s University

The foodservice industry today is one of the highly competitive industries that it continues to rapidly evolve and become widely evident all over the world especially in terms of competition in marketing. To grow sales in this competitive business, food establishments must be able to adapt to continually evolving trends. Restauranters now focus on more than just a food on the plate and seek competitive advantage through reaching younger patrons on social media as their main market. (Lofstoch and Oddesser-Torpey, 2016). The use of social media has become one of the essential needs to promote and market their food products; according to Food Service Director, through a good lighting and delicious-looking food photos posted online, it is a way to entice and engage diners to be aware of their products’ existence and get feedbacks directly. Unilever Food Solutions (2016) also suggests that food offered by restaurants should always be photo ready the moment it comes out of the kitchen. Today, tourists love to take photos of the food they are having and it would be a great marketing impact towards the restaurant if their food has been recognized online. This is one of the ways to take advantage of the free global promotion.

In terms of dining experience, unlike during the earlier years, dining out is not considered a special occasion anymore but rather one of the trends today; it is increasing and has now become a routine. However, consumers seek for restaurants that are worthy of their money and this is considered a critical attribute with good service for the best possible price. Moreover, despite of the changes in prices when dining out, diners still give more focus on the value. This includes price, quality, standards, experience, flexibility and the customer care and service which involves delivery with consistency, quality and creativity (Melia, 2011).

It was also mentioned that on the upcoming years, healthy foods will be the main feature of menus in restaurants as regional ethnicity and local authentic food develop and arise (Melia, 2011). In the Philippines, Unilever Food Solutions (2016) says that travellers come and visit places not only to see the sights, but also to experience the local cuisine, thus, authentic local restaurants being the must-visit destinations. It was also mentioned that decors of the restaurant, delicious food and impeccable service bring a great impact and affect the impression and rate of diners towards the restaurant. La Cocina de Tita Moning in Manila was mentioned as an example and considered to be one of the top rated Filipino restaurants in Trip Advisor.

Moreover, the emergence of various concepts is also evident today in order for restaurants to stand out (Rappler, 2014). On a narrow focus, in the Philippine setting, according to Preen Inquirer in January 2016, local food scene progresses year by year. They have wrapped up the top food trends in the Metro – a) fusion cuisines and international franchises, local foodservice companies prefer to bring in a foreign brand rather than create their own local restaurant. This strategy seems to provide better prospects for success since less effort is required to build an established foreign brand restaurant. This approach in the food service industry seems to work as Filipinos in general have high regard for imported brands, which they become familiar with either through their travels abroad or through social media; b) unconventional desserts, as millenials are the main target market of most restaurants today, its congruence with the satisfaction of their sweet tooth and cravings are also very promising. For instance, soft-serve ice creams continually evolve to charcoal-flavoured frozen yogurts, crepes and cupcake crossovers; c) food parks, these kinds of restaurant is widely evident nowadays especially in the Metro. According to Preen Inquirer (2016), people now opt for outdoor food parks for a newer ambience and more choices. A number of food parks have already opened just last year across Quezon City – StrEat,
The Yard Xavierville, and Boxpark, just to name a few; one also of the food trends today is the
d) all-day breakfast restaurants, wherein breakfast
meals can be purchased throughout the day. This
trend will most likely to continue this year
according to Inquirer.

According to EntrePinoy atbp. (2015) and
Manila Reviews (2010), the foodservice industry
in the Philippines has improved over the past years
and has flourished very well. This industry has
been supported by strong economic performance
since 2013 and food establishments and sales
continue to grow. Since then, Filipinos consider
eating out as a means to bond with their family,
relax and socialize with friends, according to
Global Agricultural Industry Network report
(2014); thus resulting to continuous opening of
new food establishments and outlets.

The Philippine Foodservice industry has
been operated by both local and international food
chains (GAIN report, 2015). Among these chain
players, Jollibee Corporation is the leading fast
food brand in the Philippines as well as the Golden
Arches Dev Corp (McDonald’s brand). As for the
local food, according to Manila Reviews (2010),
they are uniquely a mixture of eastern and western
cuisines and reflect the history of the Philippines.
It includes the dishes and procedures from China,
Spain, Mexico, United States, and more recently
from further abroad. The Philippine food service
industry has witnessed the entry of more
international brands into the local dining scene in
2013 and 2014. As international travels increase,
Filipinos have become exposed to high-end dining
options from international brands, thus, enabling
them to experience authentic foreign cuisine from
different parts of the world. According to the
Global Agricultural Industry Network report
(2015), Filipinos generally have a strong
appreciation for restaurants that serve food that
offers authentic flavours.

Today, different types of foodservice
establishments are being set-up all over the
country. This includes fancy or fine dining
restaurants, fast food chains, food parks, which are
the latest trend especially in the Metro; and street
food carts. While these food establishments
continue to sprawl, attracting a huge crowd to
restaurants or fast foods require more than just
good food. Though important, according to Manila
Reviews (2011), good food is only a part of the
total dining experience. Equally important is
believed to be the way people feel while in the
restaurant. This physical and emotional response is
a result of the atmosphere, the total environment
to which customers are exposed. The proper
atmosphere can make the food, service and whole
dining experience seem better. For that reason a
restaurant or a fast food must take care of the
following to please its customers. This includes
checking the cleanliness of the place and freshness
of the food, guarded premises, ambiance and
landscaping, building design, lighting, and even
music.

According to Unilever Food Solutions
Philippines in Rappler (2014), travelling for
Filipinos is not just about the sights anymore; they
seek adventure and wander for authentic local eats.
In the Philippines, cuisines feature a spicy blend
of various cultures - a legacy left by past
colonizers. The mixture of Malay, Chinese and
Spanish influences have complemented the
Filipino's way of traditional cooking style, which
resulted in a uniquely Filipino gastronomic
treasure. Kulinarya Filipina has been launched by
the Department of Tourism, a Culinary Tourism
Program that aims to introduce the Filipino cuisine
and flavours both locally and internationally and
promote the country as a culinary destination. It
offers food trips tour packages wherein different
provinces in the Philippines will be introduced to
potential tourists through featuring authentic
Filipino flavours (It’s More Fun in the Philippines,
2009).

SERVICE QUALITY

Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry (1988)
built a 22-item instrument called SERVQUAL for
measuring consumer perceptions of service quality.
It identifies the reasons for any gaps between
customer expectations and perceptions:
Gap 1 – The gap between what the customer
expects and what the company’s
management thinks customers expect.
Gap 2 – The gap that occurs when management
fails to design service standards that meet
customer expectations.
Gap 3 – Occurs when the company’s service
delivery systems – people, technology and
processes – fail to deliver to the specified standard

Gap 4 – Occurs when the company’s communications with customers promise a level of service performance that people, technology and processes cannot deliver.

To find the level and extent of the Gap 5, authors developed 22 or 21 item SERVQUAL scale founded that the customer assessment of service quality is paramount. In their original formulation, Parasuraman, et al. (1985) identified ten components of service quality:

1. Reliability
2. Responsiveness
3. Competence
4. Access
5. Courtesy
6. Communication
7. Credibility
8. Security
9. Understanding/Knowing the Customer
10. Tangibles

These components were collapsed in their 1988 work: reliability, assurance, tangibles, empathy, and responsiveness. Reliability, tangibles and responsiveness remained distinct, but the remaining seven components collapsed into two aggregate dimensions, assurance and empathy. Parasuraman, et al. developed a 22-item instrument with which to measure customers’ expectations and perceptions (E and P) of the five RATER dimensions. Four or five numbered items are used to measure each dimension. The instrument is administered twice in different forms, first to measure expectations and second to measure perceptions.

**Tangibles**

- 1. Up-to-date equipment
- 2. Physical facilities are visually appealing
- 3. Employees well-dressed/neat
- 4. Appearance of the physical facilities are consistent with the type of service industry

**Reliability**

- 5. The firm meets their promised time-frames for response

6. The firm is sympathetic and reassuring, when the customer has problems
7. They are dependable
8. They provide their services at the times promised
9. They keep accurate records

**Responsiveness**

10. They shouldn’t be expected to tell customers exactly when the service will be performed, negative
11. It is not reasonable to expect prompt service from employees, negative
12. Employees do not always have to be willing to help customers, negative
13. It’s OK to be too busy to respond promptly to customer requests, negative

**Assurance**

14. Employees should be trustworthy
15. Customers should feel safe when transacting with employees
16. Employees should be polite
17. Employees should get adequate support from the firm to do their job well

**Empathy**

18. Firms should not be expected to give each customer individualized attention, negative
19. Employees should not be expected to give each customer individualized attention, negative
20. It is unrealistic to expect employees to fully understand the needs of the customer, negative
21. It is unreasonable to expect employees to have the best interests of the customer at heart, negative
22. Firms should not necessarily have to operate at hours convenient to all customers, negative

In particular, the SERVQUAL model is designed to help service firms identify areas of service weakness in order to implement improvement strategies. Ideally, it also acts as an early warning system, as the model can be used to track service quality over time, providing long-term trends, performance benchmarks and the
early identification of deterioration in specific service areas (Fripp, 2013).

The 22-instrument of ServQual can be used along with the Expectation Disconfirmation Theory. The perceptions and expectations of the respondents from the 22-instrument will determine the customer's disconfirmation. The results may help in the interpretation of customer satisfaction and customer loyalty of the foodservice establishment (Parasuraman, et al., 1985)

**PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT**

The top ten reasons why people dine out – To celebrate a special occasion; relax; avoid cooking; having a family night out; be waited on; enjoy the atmosphere; enjoy a familiar place; have menu choices; meet friends; and try foods not eaten at home – have been remarkably consistent across numerous consumer surveys (Blichfeldt, et. al., 2010). However, the preferences of customers and trends and changes in the food tourism is dynamic and inevitable. Blichfeldt, et. al. (2010) also stated that the saying goes that, as customers (and hence, also as tourists), we are no longer satisfied simply buying goods and services. Instead, we wish to be entertained, educated, see something, or become absorbed. Canny (2013) stated that “for some reasons many consumers are more ingenious to seek a restaurant where not just only offer a variant unique menu with a reasonable price but also offer a great experience beneath on its atmosphere of physical environment and warm services” (p. 25). According to Ariffin et. al. (2011) research in environmental psychology has proven that human behavior is strongly associated with the physical environment. Thus, making the atmosphere more pleasant and innovative was essential for a firm’s success. The role of the physical environment in influencing customer behaviors and in creating a provider’s image is especially pertinent in a service industry such as the restaurant industry. Andersson and Mossberg (2004) stated that, “To understand customer needs should be an essential part in the product development of services and goods. We must understand why [customers] consume” (p. 172). When upscale restaurants are being viewed as a leisure service that takes a moderate amount of time (hours) for the customers to experience, the importance of the environment cannot be ignored (Chang, 2012). Andersson and Mossberg (2004) used model described as concentric rings (including the ‘must’ and the satisfiers) to illustrate what aspects influence a customer’s multidimensional meal experience. The ‘must’ is food in the center, and in the adjacent ring there are five groups of satisfiers where one satisfier deals with the interior (environment). Many have focused on the restaurant interior in various contexts and it has been proven that the interior is an important satisfier when the customer stays for some time in the environment and when the motive is pleasure which is the case for most diners.

**Facility aesthetics**

Facility aesthetics means architectural design, interior design and décor (including clean furniture, inviting colors, nice paintings/pictures, furniture quality and wall decoration) that contribute to the attractiveness of the dining environment (Tuzunkan & Albayrak, 2016). Once customers enter the dining area of a restaurant, they often spend hours observing (consciously or subconsciously) the interior of the dining area, which is likely to affect their attitudes towards the restaurant. Different colors lead to different moods, emotions, and feelings, and subsequently influence behavioral intention (Ryu & Jang, 2008)

The word 'atmospheric' was first introduced by Kotler in 1973 and the word atmospheric derived from the word atmosphere where it technically means the air surrounding the sphere. Atmospheric means an effect which is specially designed for a buying environment where it can help to develop specific emotional effects where it can enhance the consumers’ purchases probability. The effect of atmospheres or also known as physical environments and décor elements on both employees and consumers has been recognized by managers in the context of marketing, retailing and organizational behavior (UK Essays, 2013).

UK Essays (2013) also suggests that physical environments and décor elements directly affect the elements of the following models:
Figure 1 Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) Model

- a) Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) or popularly known as Classical Conditioning – a model used by psychologically measuring the reactions of a human [customer] to a stimuli [physical environment] – this model is usually used on pleasure marketing.

Figure 2 Mehrabian-Russel Model (1974)

- b) Mehrabian-Russell Stimulus Response Model (M-R Model), where it suggest that the first stage which is environmental stimuli which will lead to emotional reaction and will end up with behavioural intention. The emotional reaction consists of three emotional states; pleasure, arousal and dominance. The emotional reaction will then lead an individual to two contrasting forms of behaviour which is approach and avoidance. The approach behaviours are positive behaviours directly to the particular place such as desire to stay longer, exploring and intention to revisit where else the avoidence behaviours are negative behaviours such as desire not to stay longer nor exploring as well as no intention to revisit the particular place.

Ambience

Ambient elements are the intangible background characteristics that tend to affect the non-visual senses and may have a subconscious effect on consumer. Ambient elements refer to the background characteristics of an environment – temperature, music, and scent (Ryu & Han, 2011). Music affects the customers’ perception and behavior subconsciously. Tempo of music in a restaurant affected the time that people spend there, such as individuals dining under the fast music condition spent less time at their tables than individuals dining under the slow tempo condition. Furthermore, an appropriate music can increase sales. However, further study suggests that groups dining under the slow music condition spent on average, 40% more on drinks than groups dining under the fast tempo condition (Jin and Sivula, 2015). Previous research has shown that background music can (a) affect customer perceptions of stores, (b) increase sales, (c) influence purchase intentions, (d) generate significantly enhanced affective response such as satisfaction and relaxation, (e) increase shopping time and waiting time, (f) decrease perceived shopping time and waiting time and (g) influence dining speed (Ryu & Jang, 2008).

According to Chang (2012), the stimulus from the environment can generate not just a cognitive response but also emotional and physiological responses … The findings showed that music recruits neural systems of reward and emotion similar to those generated by stimuli such
as sex, food and those that are artificially generated by use of drugs.

Temperature affects the customers’ emotion and behavior in the restaurant. (e.g. too high/low temperature in the room can cause negative perceptions on the restaurant and negative emotions, behavior towards other people (Tuzunkan & Albayrak, 2016). Not only are the customers being affected by the temperature in the room, but the work performance of the staff, Chang (2012) suggests that environment and related physiological responses affect the quality of employee performance – which directly affects the dining experience and service satisfaction of the customer.

Similar to temperature and music, pleasant smell in restaurant is more likely to induce a positive effect on the customers’ emotion, mood and/or subjective feeling state compared to having an unpleasant smell. Some studies were conducted where experimenters introduced an ambient scent into a meeting room. The studies showed that there was an increase in social interaction among the subjects (Ryu & Han, 2011).

**Lighting**

Lighting can be one of the most important physical stimuli in a restaurant (Tuzunkan & Albayrak, 2016). There is a significant relationship between different levels of lighting manipulation and the individual’s emotional responses and approach-avoidance behaviors. Customers who dine in an environment with low levels of light are affected positively compared to the customers who were exposed to a much higher levels of lighting (Ryu & Han 2011). Higher levels of lighting decreases the time during which people stay in a restaurant, while Lower level of lighting (including candlelight) generally tempts customers to stay longer and enjoy an unplanned dessert or an extra drink. Lighting in a restaurant are also be used as an indicator to symbolically convey full service and relatively high prices and or the opposite (Chang, 2102). However, Tuzunkan & Albayrak, (2016) suggests that customers who are older than 50 shows notable differences compared to other age groups concerning warm lighting and lighting related feelings and comfort. Older participants attributed considerable importance to the ‘Lighting’ factor. The data can be traced to age-related optical health problems of the older customers. Thus managers should take into consideration about lighting design and providing enough light in restaurants according to the needs and age profile of their customers.

**Layout**

Spatial layout refers to the configuration of the objects – machinery, equipment, and furnishings – within the environment. According to Ryu & Han (2011), spatial layout may have a direct effect on customer quality perceptions, excitement levels, and indirectly, on the desire for a repeat visit. For example, Tuzunkan & Albayrak, (2016) suggests that location of tables in restaurants has a tremendous impact on the overall experience of a customer. Table placement has the ability to transmit a sense of privacy, portray the functionality desired, and operate as a boundary for the customers. Materials affect a restaurant’s physical environment as well. In Wakefield & Blodgett’s (1996) study, layout was associated with “layout accessibility” which refers to the way in which furnishings and equipment, including service areas, and passageways are arranged, and the spatial relationships among these elements. It was suggested that an effective layout will provide for ease of entry and exit, and will make ancillary service areas such as concessions, restrooms, and souvenir stands more accessible. Layout accessibility is critical in leisure services of the type studied because ease of entry and exit may dictate the extent to which customers are able to experience and enjoy the primary service offering, however, Problems with layout accessibility may be remedied by reallocating some space (perhaps by reducing the number of seats) to enlarge service areas and thoroughfares, or by improving the signage to distribute the flow of customers to available service areas.

**Table setting**

The table settings represent the products or materials used to serve the customers including tableware, table cloths, napkin arrangements etc. (Chang, 2012). Restaurant tables and chairs should be inviting, durable and easy to keep clean. Dining equipment is presumed to influence diners’ emotional states and is eventually connected to
customer behavioral intention (Tuzunkan & Albayrak, 2016).

Service Staff

According to Ryu & Han (2011), Service staff refers to the service employees in the service setting which includes employee appearance, number of employees and gender of employees … the interactions between the service staff and the customer is not considered as an part of physical element – an example of a physical element to be considered is employee uniform which may effectively project an organization/establishment’s image and core values in a very up-close and personal way. Service staff also has strong influence on customers’ pleasure and arousal states – cognitive responses and repurchase intention of customers are affected.

Disconfirmation

Expectations are known to play a key role in the customer satisfaction by serving as a comparison standard. However, the nature of expectations might differ across customers depending on their background and experience. Furthermore, the process of customer satisfaction might differ according to the nature of expectations themselves. Fazio and Zanna (1978) stated that confidence in expectations might be influenced by a number of factors. It could be affected by the way in which an expectation is formed. Confidence in expectation might also be affected by a customer's knowledge or experience; expectations formed based on little knowledge might be held with relatively low confidence. Product variability might also influence the level of confidence in expectations; confidence might be low under high product variability. Negatively disconfirmed expectations might not have a strong effect on customer satisfaction. That is, customers with little confidence in expectations are likely to show different evaluations and responses from those with high confidence.

The study indicates the confidence in expectations play a significant role in the customer satisfaction. The indirect effects of expectations via performance on customer satisfaction are stronger for customers with high confidence in expectations. It also indicate that the the influence of disconfirmation on customer satisfaction can be asymmetric. And the asymmetric influence occurs especially when customers have high confidence in expectations (Fazio & Zanna, 1978)

Behavioral Intention

Customer loyalty in restaurants is defined as the customer’s inclination to patronize a given restaurant repeatedly during a specified period of time (Enis & Gordon, 1970). Restaurants could increase sales through loyal customers mainly because of three reasons. First of all, loyal customers are less price-sensitive. Second, loyal customers are willing to purchase more frequently and are more open to try new products or services. Third, loyal customers are more likely to spread positive word-of-mouth and bring in new customers (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990).

Oliver (1999) regarded commitment as a part of loyalty and used affective and cognitive loyalty to refer to commitment. Furthermore, Oliver (1999) postulated that loyalty is a consistent repurchasing behavior generated by deep commitment despite possible switching behaviors induced by situational influences and competitors’ marketing efforts. Therefore, Oliver regards loyalty as a committed behavior.

In addition, Matilla (2001) explained that emotional bonding is a necessary ingredient of commitment, the main characteristic of true loyalty. Matilla (2011) mentioned that there are two types of commitment levels necessary for loyalty to exist. They are cognitive and affective commitment. Cognitive commitment is the customers’ beliefs about the brand. Affective commitment occurs if there is a deeper and more important commitment level. Matilla's (2001) study reveals that affective commitment discourages customers from switching to another brand encourages advocacy. Moreover, it forgives service inadequacy.

Lewis and Shoemaker (1999) developed a three sided triangle known as the Loyalty Triangle to explain how a company can best achieve long-term loyalty. Process is described as effectively managing the first three gaps as related in the GAP model of Service Quality (Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996).
Oliver (1999) stated that an inquiry into the relevant literature shows that the satisfaction-loyalty link is not well defined. Many studies did not take into account the differences between various types of loyalty while investigating its relationship to satisfaction. Furthermore, researchers have also concentrated on satisfaction as the independent variable without taking into account different types of satisfaction. Bloemer and Kasper (1995)

Bloemer and Kasper (1995) proposed that the relationship between consumer satisfaction and brand loyalty is not simple and straightforward. The relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty is strongly influenced by customer characteristics such as variety-seeking, age, and income (Homburg and Gierin 2001). Overall, researchers agree that when consumers are completely satisfied they are less likely to defect or switch. Therefore, satisfaction is one of the important elements in creating consumer loyalty. However, an increase in satisfaction does not produce an equal increase in loyalty for all consumers (Soderlund and Vilgon 1999).

According to Magnini, et al. (2014), service is experience, developing memories and recollections of joy. Recent theories that have been subjected to rigorous empirical evaluations purpose that customers’ perception of service quality will predict their satisfaction and, ultimately, their intentions to return service is something that a customer receives, and in return, can be the source of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Evidently, first and last impressions alone will not create or sustain customer loyalty. The customer’s impression is affected by their perception and expectation. These factors are the ones that most of the companies are working on to satisfy their customer’s expectation in meeting the service elements their customer’s perceived. It takes service elements that build service loyalty by going beyond customer satisfaction (Magnini, Noe, & Uysal, 2014).

No business or organization can succeed without building customer satisfaction and loyalty. Likewise, no person can make a good living without meeting the needs of customers. You have to strive mutually with your customers to achieve a goal of total satisfaction in services and programs that are acceptable to them. The relationship between the customer and the company is what really matters. Satisfaction will be determined by the value of the difference between what the customer receives and what she or he pays to receive. When the customer doesn’t receive the value he expects, then he would be dissatisfied. But if it comes the other way around, the he would be satisfied (Magnini, Noe, & Uysal, 2014).

Dissatisfaction is a reality of doing business in the service sector. But it is not based on customers’ quick judgments when loyalty is at stake. Customer loyalty is believed to be built over time, but research that claims loyalty lags behind satisfaction, so that a single experience of dissatisfaction with a company is not likely to change the customer’s loyalty. In many circumstances, a complaining customer whose problem is solved becomes more loyal than a customer with no problem. Service and quality are
merely advertising slogans, until the customer has a problem. More specifically, paradoxical increases in satisfaction can occur after a service failure and recovery situation for three theory-based reasons. First, according to the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm, an excellent redress effort can trigger a positive disconfirmation of customer expectations. Second, in accordance with script theory, a service failure is a deviation from a customer's mental script, and therefore spawns heightened awareness – allowing the firm a chance to wow the customer. Finally, commitment and trust theory of relationship marketing is a superb service recovery has a direct impact on the trust the customer has in the firm (Magnini, Noe, & Uysal, 2014).

The most fundamental lesson to be learned is that – customers cannot be satisfied until after they are not dissatisfied. Your first service priority should be to eliminate all the opportunities for dissatisfying customers, because they are what cause customers to leave. Then you can invest in satisfying and delighting them. In that case, dissatisfied customers had a contribution in developing customer satisfaction in the company. The feedbacks of satisfied and dissatisfied customers help the company to achieve the kind of services that their customers want (Kelly, Skinner, & Donnelly, 1992).

Theme restaurants were designed to provide customers with not only a meal, but also an entertaining experience. After a rapid rise in popularity in the early to mid-1990s, theme restaurants began to experience a decline in market share. Interestingly, customers were least satisfied with novelty. Further, customer satisfaction with theme restaurant food quality and atmosphere were the only significant attributes influencing return intent (Weiss, Feinstein, & Dalbor, 2004).

Theme restaurants share similar goals: to attract customers by promising a novel restaurant experience involving entertaining décor and casual dining. Patrons are encouraged to purchase souvenirs to commemorate their experience (Weiss, Feinstein, & Dalbor, 2004).

Sometimes, these restaurants fail to provide a novel, entertaining dining experience to customers. The decline of the theme restaurant industry, which has occurred primarily in non-tourist locations, has been characterized by the downsizing or elimination of many once popular brands. A myriad of potential reasons have been cited in trade literature for the decline of the theme restaurant industry. These problems include the following (Weiss, Feinstein, & Dalbor, 2004):

- high priced menus
- low quality food
- rapid expansion
- loss of novelty
- poor location selection
- low repeat business
- high building/development costs, and
- décor that never changes

Most, if not all, of these problems have a significant impact on customers’ perceptions and satisfaction of the operation. Levels of customer satisfaction, therefore, can be one measurement used to determine the health of a foodservice operation. A prevailing model of customer satisfaction assessment has its roots in expectancy disconfirmation theory (Weiss, Feinstein, & Dalbor, 2004).

Oh (1999) stated that one of the most popular and widely accepted ways to assess customer satisfaction in the service industry is through an application of expectancy disconfirmation theory. Oliver (1991) emphasizes that the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm is when customers form judgments or opinions about a given service by comparing the actual service encounter with their expectations of how the service should have been performed. Customer satisfaction is a result of whether a customers’ customer’s perceptions of a given service encounter lives up to their expectations of that encounter. Oliver (1981) was one of the first scholars to propose a model where customer satisfaction was determined by contrasting customers’ perceptions with their expectations. Based on a number of factors related to the experience, the person’s expectations are met, positively disconfirmed, or negatively disconfirmed. It is these disconfirmations that provide the basis for determining customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Weiss, Feinstein, & Dalbor, 2004).

According to Weiss, et al. (2004), studies have often found customer satisfaction with food quality to be a powerful predictor of customer intent to return. Customer satisfaction with theme
restaurants’ food quality may be influential in determining return intent. Service quality has also been found to be a significant contributing factor in determining customer satisfaction. The atmosphere or ambience is also a great contributor in determining customer satisfaction. Theme restaurants heavily emphasize their atmospheres, including décor, music, and lighting, as a selling point to consumers. It is logical to think that customer perception of the restaurants’ atmospheres may be influential in determining return intention.

The impact of satisfaction on loyalty was significantly stronger for nonmature than for mature customers, and the influence of price had a similar effect on both mature and nonmature customers. The research revealed how certain factors of restaurant experience can be used to attract both mature and nonmature customers while other factors may focus on a specific age segment.

RELATED THEORIES

The M-R Model

The M –R (1974) model, which presented a role of physical environments, has received much attention in environmental psychology, retailing, and marketing. This model is divided into three parts: environmental stimuli, emotional states, and approach or avoidance responses. The environment creates an emotional response in individuals which, in turn, elicits either approach or avoidance behavior. The application of the model facilitates understanding the effects of environmental changes on emotions and human behavior (Ryu & Jang, 2008).

The model suggests that environment has an individual put at an emotional state that can be characterized as one of three: pleasure, arousal, and dominance, and these three emotional states mediate approach –avoidance behaviors in a wide range of environments. Pleasure refers to the extent to which individuals feel good, happy, pleased, or joyful in a situation, while arousal denotes the degree to which individuals feel stimulated, excited, or active. Dominance dimension means the extent to which a person feels influential, in control, or important. However, empirical studies have reported that pleasure and arousal underlie affective responses to any environments while dominance did not have a significant effect on approach or avoidance behaviors (Russell & Pratt, 1980). Thus, dominance in relation to approach or avoidance behavior has not been given much attention in recent studies. Therefore, the study of Ryu and Jang (2008) used only two dimensions of emotional states: pleasure and arousal.

It is noted that physical environment could be considered the same as the first component of the M –R model: environmental stimuli. In addition, BI in this study is congruent with approach –avoidance behavior, which is the third component of M –R model. Therefore, the M –R model, which incorporates the concepts of the physical environment, emotions, and approach –avoidance behaviors, could be used as a theoretical framework for the study. Environmental psychologists believe that people's feelings and emotions ultimately influence what they do and how they do it. Further, people respond with different sets of emotions to different environments, and these emotions prompt them to approach or avoid the environment (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Approach behaviors are positive responses whereas avoidance behaviors mean negative responses. As an example, pleasure could increase the time shoppers spend in stores as well as the amount of money they spend (Donovan & Rossiter, 1982).

Expectancy Disconfirmation Theory

One of the most popular and widely accepted ways to assess customer satisfaction in the service industry is through an application of expectancy disconfirmation theory (Oh, 1999). The expectancy disconfirmation paradigm states that customers form judgments or opinions about a given service by comparing the actual service encounter with their expectations of how the service should have been performed (Oliver, 1980). Customer satisfaction is a result of whether a customer’s perceptions of a given service encounter lives up to their expectations of that encounter (Oliver, 1980).

In essence, perceived quality of a service can be determined by the gap that exists between the consumer's perceptions and expectations of the service encounter (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). If perceptions exceed expectations,
a positive disconfirmation has occurred. If they are below expectations, a negative disconfirmation has occurred. Zero disconfirmation occurs when perceptions equal expectations.

The expectation aspect of service quality can be viewed as a normative expectation of what should happen when purchasing a service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). The perception aspect of the encounter, on the other hand, focuses on what actually occurred during the encounter.

Perceived quality is conceptualized as a subjective, personal judgment about the service that often differs between judges (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1998). This differs from objective quality that can often be found in the evaluation of products. For example, a defective appliance can be agreed upon by judges to be of substandard quality while opinions about a dining experience may vary based on who experienced it.

Oliver (1981) was one of the first scholars to propose a model where customer satisfaction was determined by contrasting customers’ perceptions with their expectations. In his model, customer satisfaction is viewed as an emotional state that occurs when a customer experiences a positive disconfirmation of his/her expectations of a purchase encounter. He defined disconfirmation as the mental comparison of an actual state of nature with its anticipated probability (Oliver, 1981). He reasoned that one of three possible things could occur in any given purchase situation: if the purchase experience exceeds the consumer’s expectations of the event, a positive disconfirmation has occurred; if the purchase experience falls short of consumer expectations, a negative disconfirmation has occurred; finally, if the purchase experience meets customer expectations a zero disconfirmation, or confirmation, has occurred.

Oliver (1981) applied his customer satisfaction model in a retail setting to uncover the potential behavioral outcomes of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. His model showed that people enter a retail environment with a number of pre-patronage expectations. Based on a number of factors related to the retail experience the person’s expectations are met, positively disconfirmed, or negatively disconfirmed. It is these disconfirmations that provide the basis for determining customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Finally, Oliver (1981) found that a possible behavioral outcome of customer satisfaction in a retail setting is repeat purchase, or store loyalty, whereas a possible behavioral outcome of customer dissatisfaction would be engaging in a complaint. Oh (1999) tested a similar model of customer satisfaction within the hospitality industry. His study tested the relationships among perceived service quality, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and repurchase intention among luxury hotel guests. He found that significant path relationships exist between perceived service quality and customer satisfaction. Moreover, he found that customer satisfaction was positively related to both repurchase intention and intent to spread positive word of mouth about the hotel.

**Disconfirmation Theory**

Customer satisfaction is defined as a summary evaluative state based on an assessment of the extent to which the product or service provided a pleasurable level of consumption related fulfilment (Oliver, 1997). According to (Oliver, 1977, 1980) Inherent in this definition is the notion that satisfaction reflects the degree of discrepancy between customers’ pre-purchase expectations of service performance and their post purchase performance evaluations.

According to (Spreng, 1996) Disconfirmation starts from the discrepancies between customer satisfaction and actual performance. If the perceived performance exceeds a consumer's expectations (a positive disconfirmation), then the consumer is satisfied but if perceived performance falls short of his or her expectations (a negative disconfirmation), then the consumer is dissatisfied.

Based on the Disconfirmation theory, satisfaction is related to the size and direction of the disconfirmation experience that occurs as a result of comparing service performance against expectations. Szymanski and Henard (2001) found in the meta-analysis that the disconfirmation paradigm is the best predictor of customer satisfaction.

**Disconfirmation as a Driver of Satisfaction.**

Disconfirmation responses can be distinguished based on the level of
“unexpectedness” in the performance outcome (Oliver & Winer, 1987). Woodruff et al. (1983) and Arnold et al. (2005) suggest that two disconfirming evaluative outcomes may occur: customers’ experience-based norms may be plausibly disconfirmed on an infrequent basis, or alternatively customers’ norms may be disconfirmed in highly unlikely circumstances leading to unexpected or surprising levels of disconfirmation. Oliver (1997) labeled this latter occurrence as a “surprising disconfirmation,” an event that initiates high levels of activation or arousal. On the other hand, Finn (2005) found a significant direct effect of disconfirmation of expectations on arousal.

**Arousal as a Driver of Positive Affect and Delight.**

Oliver et al. (1997) defined arousal as a state of heightened activation that focuses the consumer on the surprisingly positive consumption outcome. Customers experiencing high levels of arousal have subsequently demonstrated heightened levels of positive affect in the form of pleasure (Mano & Oliver, 1993).

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**SYNTHESIS**

The literature review gives a comprehensive discussion of the studies conducted in the field. The review started with the setting of the Philippine food service industry and highlighted the booming theme restaurants in the country. There have been myriad of food service establishments offering different themes and making the competitions tougher. With that, factors that affect dining experience are sought in this whole study. The factors are clustered into five categories: food quality, service quality, physical environment, price fairness, and social interaction. Most factors could be further broken down into sub-factors. Moreover, the paper delves into disconfirmation and behavioral intentions which are manifested before, during, and after the dining experience. All of these variables are combined using the theories presented in the figure below where the dining experience factors where correlated with disconfirmation (pleasure and arousal) then behavioral intentions (customer satisfaction and customer loyalty).

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**REFERENCES**


THE CONSTRUCTION OF AN EVALUATION MODEL OF HARMONIOUS SYMBIOSIS STATUS FOR TOURISM ORIENTED TOWNS

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INTRODUCTION

In many countries, tourism is considered as an important driving force for economic development and diversification in rural areas. In some small towns, the tourism sector has grown as an important pillar of the local economy, and these places are labeled as tourist towns, or tourism oriented towns (Zeng, 2010). In western industrialized countries, study on township tourism began as early as the 1870s and developed into an independent scholarly field in the 1970s (Li, 2010). For example, the study by Haralambopoulos and Pizam (1996) investigated the positive and negative impacts of tourism on the Greek town of Pythagorion. A case study of Williams, Arizona in the U.S.A revealed that a boomtown-style tourism development transformed the town in a short period of time and caused community attitudes toward tourism to decline over time (Davis & Morais, 2004).

However, the industry practice as well as academic research focusing on the intersection of tourism and small towns only emerged recently in China. By the end of the 20th century, the uprising of urbanization and domestic tourism gave birth to many tourist towns in China (Li, 2010). However, during the development process, tourism dependent towns were confronted with problems such as severe division between infrastructure planning and tourism development, contradiction between preservation and development, and functional disorder. Consequently, the call for coordinated development between tourism and other sectors of small towns was raised. Symbiotic relations between tourism and its environment serve as a key factor for sustainable development in tourism oriented towns.

Based on the systems science, this study regarded the tourism characteristic town as a multi-dimensional, dynamic, and complex system that was composed of two subsystems, namely, the town subsystem and the tourism subsystem. Building on the Lotka-Volterra model for interspecific competition, the purpose of the study was to construct a model for the evaluation of harmonious symbiotic development for tourism oriented towns. Such a model is helpful to evaluate the development status of tourist towns and provides a reference for policy formulation and planning.

MODEL CONSTRUCTION

Tourism destinations were regarded as complex adaptive systems with spacial and functional linkage among its components (Leiper, 1979; Yang, 2010). Similarly tourism oriented towns are systems in which the interaction among the components starts with tourist expenditure at the destination and the exchange of materials, resources, and information within and outside the system. The town subsystem provides various tangible and intangible resources (e.g., natural and cultural resources), infrastructure, capital, and labor for the operation of the tourist towns. On the other hand, the tourism subsystem transforms the inputs from the town subsystem into outputs by undertaking tourism related economic and cultural activities, thus promoting the overall development of the town. In this process, the components of the systems are coupled together and interact with each other on adaptive basis, resulting in the systematic structure of system. Within certain temporal and spacial scope, the relationship among the components retains a stable structure, thus the tourism characteristic town system is separated and
differentiated from other systems and its external environment. In view of the above, tourism oriented towns are defined as multi-dimensional and hierarchical symbiosis systems consisting of the town and the tourism subsystems in specific spatial scope. The system has the tourism resources as its core element, the internal components (i.e., the two subsystems), and the external environment (e.g., the natural, technological, and institutional environment).

Applying the Lotka-Volterra model to the tourism oriented towns, we have the following equations.

\[
\frac{dN(t)}{dt} = r_i N(t) \left[ \frac{K_i(t) - N(t) - \alpha L(t)}{K_i(t)} \right] \quad (1)
\]

\[
\frac{dL(t)}{dt} = r_i L(t) \left[ \frac{K_i(t) - L(t) - \beta N(t)}{K_i(t)} \right] \quad (2)
\]

In equations (1), \(N(t)\) and \(L(t)\) represent the scale of the town subsystem and tourism subsystem respectively, \(K(t)\) is the carrying capacity of the subsystems, \(r\) is the rate of growth of the subsystems, \(\alpha\) and \(\beta\) are the competition coefficients, and \(t\) refers to time.

The competition coefficients indicate the competition between the two subsystems, and they constitutes the core indicators to evaluate the level of harmonious symbiosis of tourist towns. Assuming there is no vicious competition between the subsystems that would result in the competitive exclusion of one subsystem by another, then a stable equilibrium point would likely be reached where the two subsystems cooperate in harmonious symbiosis status.

When an equilibrium is obtained, namely when equation (1) is set to be equal to 0, the competition coefficients (\(\alpha\) and \(\beta\)) are solved as:

\[
\alpha = \frac{K_i - N_i}{L_i} \quad (3)
\]

\[
\beta = \frac{K_i - L_i}{N_i} \quad (4)
\]

The competition coefficients provide tools to evaluate the effects of the interaction and competition between the subsystems. The growth and evolution of both subsystems are subject to the limit of the carrying capacity. Based on the above competition coefficients, the coefficient for the Relationship of Harmonious Symbiosis (RHS) of tourist towns is constructed (shown in equation 4). It is an indicator which tells the extent that the subsystems coexist in mutually beneficial relations when an equilibrium point is obtained by each of the subsystems.

\[
RHS = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{\sqrt{\alpha^2 + \beta^2}} \quad (5)
\]

RHS provides a useful framework for predicting outcomes of competitive interactions between the subsystems. Another aspect that is of equal importance is the level of development of the subsystems and its impact on the overall development of the tourist towns. For this purpose, the coefficient for the Level of Harmonious Symbiosis (LHS) is proposed to evaluate the level of harmonious symbiosis for the overall tourist town system (equation 5). Assuming that both \(N(t)\) and \(L(t)\) are greater than zero, then the larger the value of LHS, the higher the overall development level of the tourism oriented towns.

\[
LHS = \sqrt{N(t)^2 + L(t)^2} \quad (6)
\]

Based on the above deduction and calculation, an evaluation model of harmonious symbiosis development of tourism oriented towns was established (Table 1). Based on the values of the \(\alpha\), \(\beta\), RHS, and LHS, the status of symbiosis development of tourist towns is classified into three types of symbiosis relations and three levels of symbiosis development, which makes a total of nine \((3 \times 3 = 9)\) theoretical circumstances.
Table 1. Evaluation model of harmonious symbiosis status for tourism oriented towns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Competition coefficients</th>
<th>RHS</th>
<th>Typology of symbiosis relations</th>
<th>LHS</th>
<th>Status of symbiosis development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>$\alpha &lt; 0, \beta &lt; 0$</td>
<td>RHS $\in [-\sqrt{2}, -1]$</td>
<td>Mutually beneficial interaction</td>
<td>LHS $&lt; I_1$</td>
<td>low level, coordinated development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LHS $\in [I_1, I_2]$</td>
<td>medium level, coordinated development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LHS $&gt; I_2$</td>
<td>high level, coordinated development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>$\alpha &gt; 0, \beta &lt; 0$</td>
<td>RHS $\in [-1,1]$</td>
<td>Inharmonious development</td>
<td>LHS $&lt; I_1$</td>
<td>low level, inharmonious development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$\alpha &lt; 0, \beta &gt; 0$</td>
<td>RHS $\in [-1,1]$</td>
<td>Inharmonious development</td>
<td>LHS $\in [I_1, I_2]$</td>
<td>medium level, inharmonious development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>RHS $&gt; I_2$</td>
<td>high level, inharmonious development</td>
<td>LHS $&gt; I_2$</td>
<td>high level, inharmonious development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>$\alpha &gt; 0, \beta &gt; 0$</td>
<td>RHS $\in [1, \sqrt{2}]$</td>
<td>Vicious circle</td>
<td>LHS $&lt; I_1$</td>
<td>low level, regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LHS $\in [I_1, I_2]$</td>
<td>medium level, regression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>LHS $&gt; I_2$</td>
<td>high level, regression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $I_1$ and $I_2$ are the threshold values obtained from the results of cluster analysis of the LHS coefficients.

CONCLUSION

Based on the systems thinking, the present study constructed a theoretical model for the evaluation of symbiosis development status of tourism oriented towns. The model builds on two critical coefficients, namely the RHS and LHS. Further development of the model will focus on the formulation of a set of indices to measure the key variables included in the model (e.g., the carrying capacity $K$, the output or scale of the town subsystem $N$ and the tourism subsystem $L$). Then empirical data could be collected to test the model, and the actual development status of tourist towns could be analyzed. This line of research is especially valuable given the rapid development of tourist towns in China. It could diagnose the strength and weakness in the development of tourist towns, and provide guidance for government policy intervention.

REFERENCE


THE MEASURE AND DETERMINANTS OF TOUR GUIDES’ ETHICAL BEHAVIOR: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN CHINA

Xiaoyi Wu, Xiamen University
Xuemin Zhang, Xiamen University
Derong Lin, Xiamen University

INTRODUCTION

The ethically questionable behavior is common in the guiding profession around the world (Ap & Wong, 2001). Especially in recent years, the professional ethic of tour guides has been one of the emergent issues that posed a threat to the sustainability of the profession and the whole tourism industry in Mainland China (Mak, Wong & Chong, 2011). Setting a standard for ethical practices in tour guiding is considered essential (Ap & Wong, 2001; Mak, Wong & Chong, 2011; Wong, 2001; Zhang & Chow, 2004).

Despite a great need for the practical application of work ethics, theoretical and empirical studies of the ethical behavior of tour guides are scarce. To date, ethical studies in the tourism industry have specifically focused on the macro-level, such as ecotourism, sustainable development, and the social responsibility of the tourism industry (Coughlan, 2001). Specific studies on the ethical behavior of staff in the tourism industry, especially for the touring profession, remain lacking. Little research has been conducted to provide measuring tools for ethical behavior that specifically focus on tour guides. Furthermore, the relationship between key organizational factors and ethical behavior has not been well examined.

To fill the above mentioned research gaps, the objective of the present research is two fold. First, this research attempts to establish a valid and reliable ethical behavior measure for tour guiding, which specifically focus on the professional ethic during the guide-tourist interaction process. In addition, this research also aimed to provide a clearer understanding of several key organizational determinants of the ethical behavior of tour guides. We specifically selected and investigated several key organizational factors (i.e. ethical climate, control and reward systems) and examined the relationship between these organizational factors and the guides’ general ethical behavior.

METHOD

Sample design and data collection

Both pilot and formal surveys were conducted during annual training classes held by the Tourism Training Center in Xiamen City, China. The tour guides were asked to participate in a voluntary study during the break of the training class and return the finished questionnaire in the enclosed envelop to the researchers directly. In the pilot study, a total of 320 questionnaires were distributed and 275 completed questionnaires were retuned. In the formal study, a total of 465 questionnaires were distributed and 376 completed questionnaires were retuned.

Questionnaire development and Measures

As there is no well-established ethical behavior scale of tour guides, we followed Hikin’s (1998) procedure as a guide to develop this measurement scale. First, the tourism management literature, policies, and news were reviewed to identify relevant unethical/ethical practices in the guiding profession. The initial 30 items of ethical practices were identified based on the above materials. Second, after the item generation, opinions were then collected from a panel of five experts to guarantee the content validity. Based on their feedback, some of the items in the original questionnaire were modified, 11 items were deleted, and the rest 19 relevant items of ethical behavior were preliminarily identified. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used, which ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). A high score indicated a greater degree of ethical behavior.

The organizational determinant constructs were measured with published scales that have
been extensively used in organizational research. Back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1986) were used to ensure translation quality. Ethical climate was measured using a five-item scale adopted from Baker et al. (2006) and Schweper (2001). A seven-point Likert-type scale was used, which ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Control system was measured using a four-item scale adapted from Cravens et al. (1993) and Oliver and Anderson (1994). Respondents scored the extent to which each activity was performed using a scale anchored at 1 for “very low” and 7 for “very high”. Reward system was assessed by using a single item from Román and Munuera (2005) to measure the percentages of fixed salary in the tour guide’s pay package over the past year.

**FINDINGS**

**Data quality examination**

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to explore the underlying dimensions of the ethical behavior measure attributes using the pilot data set, and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to determine the structure using the formal data set. The results of factor analysis supported the multidimensional construct of ethical behavior with four related dimensions, namely, image preservation, shopping guide, service quality guarantee and law-abiding behaviors.

The Cronbach’s α of all latent variables were over 0.70, which indicated that these variables were valid and reliable. All average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) values exceeded the thresholds of 0.5 and 0.7, respectively, which established the convergent validity for the measurement model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). In addition, the AVE values of each construct exceeded the squared correlation coefficients for corresponding inter-constructs, which provided strong evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Following Podaskoff and Organ (1986), we used a principal components analysis to assess common method variance (CMV). The results showed that the common method bias was not likely a pervasive issue in this study.

**Test of research hypotheses**

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was carried out to test the hypothesized relationships via bootstrap method. The results of the bias-corrected bootstrapped parameter estimates (standardized regression weights) for the full structural model were all significant at 95% Confidence Intervals. The results of goodness-of-fit indices supported the structural model: NCI (χ2/df)=2.85, GFI=0.93, CFI=0.93, SRMR=0.07, RMSEA=0.07.

According to the structural model, H1 proposed a positive impact of ethical climate on ethical behavior. The link from the ethical climate to the ethical behavior was positive and significant (structural link=0.41, p<0.01), supporting H1. The relationship between the control system and ethical behavior was examined in H2, where we predicted that an outcome-based control system negatively influences the ethical behavior. The link from the control system to ethical behavior was negative and significant (structural link=-0.19, p<0.01), supporting H2. H3 proposed that the fixed salary percentage of the pay package (the reward system) positively impacts ethical behavior. The link between the reward system and ethical behavior was positive and significant (structural link=0.17, p<0.01), supporting H3. Overall, the findings of the study generally supported all the hypotheses.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION**

**Conclusion**

Following Hikin’s (1998) procedure for scale development, our study developed a multidimensional self-report instrument for assessing the ethical behavior of tour guides. The results showed that the ethical behavior of tour guides is a multidimensional construct, including “maintaining professional image”, “reasonable shopping guide”, “service quality guarantee”, and “law-abiding behavior”.

More importantly, this study highlights the critical role of agents in establishing an ethical value-based climate as well as an effective control and reward system to influence tour guides to display ethical behaviors. Our results indicated that the agent’s ethical climate has a greater effect on the guides’ ethical behavior compared with organizational control and reward systems. Our
research found that the control system for tour guides is mainly outcome-oriented. Under this system, guides are more likely involved in unethical behavior to seek short-term economic benefits. In addition, the reward system influences the ethical behavior of tour guides. Our research supported that a higher fixed salary percentage promoted the ethical behavior of tour guides. The results showed that a steady income based on guides’ fixed salary is helpful to reduce their speculative activities.

Management implication
The present findings have significant implications for travel agency and government authorities. First, it’s urgent for travel agents to build an organizational climate that agrees with ethical norms by advocating and propagating ethics. Travel agents should set formal professional codes of employee conduct and clarify and enforce these codes in tour guides. Second, management needs to enhance the current control system by shifting from the traditional way of emphasizing the outcomes to emphasizing both the outcomes and behaviors. Finally, management should improve the pay package of tour guides by increasing the proportion of fixed salary. We also suggest that the government authorities may consider incorporating tips into the rightful income of tour guides.

REFERENCE
IMPACT OF WEATHER ON TOURISTS’ INTENTION TO REVISIT AND ITS MODERATION –A CASE STUDY OF SOUTH KOREAN DOMESTIC TOURISM–

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INTRODUCTION

Tourists prefer to travel to places with more comfortable weather (Gómez Martín, 2005). Therefore, weather conditions in tourist destinations not only affect tourist satisfaction, but also impact their intention to revisit (Becken & Wilson, 2013; de Freitas, 2015; Denstadli et al., 2011). As intention to revisit is one of the key factors to business success in the tourism industry, it is important to moderate negative impacts attributed to uncomfortable weather conditions (del Bosque & San Martin, 2008; Styllos et al. 2016).

Though weather itself is not a controllable external factor, dissatisfaction resulting from weather can be moderated through appropriate operation of physical attractions and services in tourist destinations (Kim, 2009). This study attempted to analyze a trend of impacts of weather and weather satisfaction on tourists’ intentions to revisit. The study also examines means of moderating impacts through quality of physical attractions and service at tourist destinations.

The research questions of this study are as follows: (1) Does weather affect tourists’ intention to revisit? (2) Does weather satisfaction affect tourists’ intention to revisit? (3) Can weather satisfaction be moderated through quality of physical attraction and services of tourist destinations?

METHODS

Data was collected by a self-recording online questionnaire survey during August of 2015. The survey targeted South Koreans over 20 years of age who had visited tourist destinations in South Korea from January 1, 2014 to July 31, 2015. Of the 2,795 survey respondents, 2,412 samples were used for the analysis, and respondents who missed one or more questions or visited non-tourist destinations, such as one’s grandmother’s house, were excluded. The questionnaire included questions regarding actual weather, weather satisfaction, perceived quality of the physical attraction, perceived quality of service, intention to revisit, etc. Participants were asked about differing weather conditions including rain, snow, or wind (physical weather conditions); hot, cold, humid, or dry (physiological weather conditions) (Gómez Martín, 2005); or normal weather (neutral weather that is not hot, cold, rainy or snowy). Other questions were measured using the 5-score Likert Scale.

The Path Analysis was conducted in the study. To control for personal sensitivity to weather, importance of weather to the individual during travel was included as a control variable. To control for the distance effect on intention to revisit, the distance to destination was included as a control variable. Because of differences in actual weather (F=56.935, sig=.000, ANOVA analysis) and weather satisfaction (F=58.240, sig=.000, ANOVA analysis) between seasons, season was controlled in the path model through a group division. The groups were divided into spring/fall, summer, and winter per the result of Tamhane Multiple Comparison.

FINDINGS

The fitness of the path model (CMIN/DF=2.379, p=.001, RMSEA=.024, SRMR=.047, CFI=.991) was reasonable and the model comparison by season (DF=16, CMIN=25.837, p=.056) was acceptable.

The model showed that actual weather does not affect intentions to revisit directly, but affects it indirectly in spring/fall (.06), summer (.04), and winter (.03). The model also showed that weather satisfaction directly influences intentions to revisit in spring/fall (.19), summer (.13), and winter (.14). Weather satisfaction was moderated by perceived quality of physical attraction and service:
Perceived quality of physical attraction and service almost equally moderated weather satisfaction in spring/fall (physical attraction .22, service .23) and summer (physical attraction .24, service .25). In winter, quality of service (.39) more moderated weather satisfaction than physical attraction (.13).

Table 1. The Impacts of weather and weather satisfaction on intention to revisit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention to Revisit</th>
<th>Spring/Fall</th>
<th>Summer</th>
<th>Winter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weather</td>
<td>Weather Satisfaction</td>
<td>Weather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>-.032</td>
<td>185**</td>
<td>-.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>.061**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.043**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. The impacts of weather on intention to revisit
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Quality of physical attraction and service are undeniable factors that influence intention to revisit tourist destinations. However, what this study highlights are the significant impacts of weather and weather satisfaction on intention to revisit. Though these impacts are not as large as those of physical attraction and service, they are still considerable. In addition, this study concluded that weather satisfaction can be moderated by perceived quality of physical attraction and service. This finding is especially true in winter, when weather satisfaction can be largely moderated by perceived quality of service. This result implies that the tourism industry can respond to uncomfortable weather conditions, depending on season, by appropriate operation of physical attractions and services. This moderates the negative impact on tourist dissatisfaction and encouraging intentions to revisit.

This study has limitations as it did not consider tourists’ individual and travel characteristics. As has been stated, many tourist destinations will more frequently experience extreme weather events due to climate change (Scott et al., 2004; Amelung & Viner, 2006; Moreno & Amelung, 2009). Therefore, more structured and detailed studies are required.

REFERENCES

A CUSTOMER LOYALTY MODEL FOR PEER–TO–PEER (P2P) ACCOMMODATION PLATFORMS: FUNCTIONAL VALUES AND TRUSTING BELIEFS

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Jeong-Yeol Park, UCF

INTRODUCTION

The emerging paradigm of peer-to-peer sharing leads to the broad academic literature on the functions of peer-to-peer (P2P) platforms (e.g., Airbnb) in collaborative consumption online (Heo, 2016; Pezenka, Weismayer, & Lalicic, 2017; Tussyadiah, 2015). Among various advantages of online P2P services, assessing the functional values of platform quality, convenience, compatibility, market opportunity, and fairness has been known to be significant for determining existing customers’ loyalty to P2P platforms through cognitive responses (i.e., trusting beliefs) (Hwang & Griffiths, 2017; Lee & Hyun, 2016; Ryu, Kim, & Kim, 2014). This indicates a need of underlying the functional values of P2P platforms in the formation of consumers’ P2P platform loyalty in a structural process (Tussyadiah, 2016). However, rare studies have put grater efforts into exploring the research question of how existing consumers perceive the functional values of P2P platforms for short-term rental accommodations, which help facilitate their trusting beliefs in the formation of P2P platform loyalty.

Recent studies pointed out the importance of transactional communications between hosts and consumers in an online P2P platform, which can be utilized for consumers as a tool for possessing a short-term rental accommodation within a familiar or unfamiliar environment (Lee, 2016). Along this line, some studies addressed the critical role of trusting beliefs (including honesty, benevolence, and competence) as a catalytic precondition for consumers’ decision making in fostering the level of online community loyalty (e.g., switching resistance loyalty/stickiness) (Flavián et al., 2006; Karjaluoto et al, 2012; Lee & Hyun, 2016; Wang & Benbasat, 2008). The literature above-mentioned indicated that P2P accommodation platforms offer a productive ground for existing customers’ intention to keep using the P2P accommodation platforms (Tussyadiah, 2016; Tussyadiah, & Zach, 2016). Therefore, a P2P accommodation platform has been employed as a predominant tool for administering an interactive transaction between hosts and consumers, leading to a high degree of online customer’s loyalty to the platform.

In this sense, the salient values of platforms (i.e., platform quality, convenience, compatibility, market opportunity, and fairness) are expected to serve as a theoretical ground for enhancing a sense of trusting beliefs, which in turn influence loyalty to P2P platforms (Ku, 2011). Therefore, this study aims to examine if there are structural relationships among the functional values of platforms, trusting beliefs (honesty, benevolence, and competence), and loyalty to P2P platforms (see Figure 1). Based on the findings of empirical analyses, theoretical and managerial implications are suggested.

METHOD

Data collection.

The data collection focused on American consumers who had an experience to book a short-term accommodation via Airbnb (i.e., online peer-to-peer platform). Of various types of survey approaches, an online survey method using Amazon Mechanical Turk (https://www.mturk.com/mturk/welcome) was employed to access valid respondents over a one-month period in January 2017. In the online survey system, a series of screening questions were included so as to exclude invalid respondents who have not had a P2P accommodation experience via Airbnb (i.e., SQ1: “Have you booked a short-term accommodation via Airbnb in
the past 12 months?” and SQ2: “Did you purchase a bundle product via the Airbnb platform, e.g., including both flight + rental accommodation”? Specifically, those who clicked “yes (n=356)” for SQ1 and “no” for SQ2 were invited to continue the online survey, while those who chose “no (n=9)” for Q1 were told to stop. As a result, a total of 325 respondents after data cleaning (e.g., univariate outliers: z-score > +3.29 at a significance level of 0.01, n=10) were utilized for the empirical analysis in this study.

Measurement instrument and data analysis

The questionnaire was developed based on a review of related studies, including 16 items on the functional values of platforms, namely, platform quality (refers to a powerful determinant facilitating consumer’s willingness to stay in the P2P platform), compatibility (refers to flexibility, and high compatibility increases the chance to transact in mutual interactions), market opportunity (refers to an attempt to show as many short-term rentals as possible on top of popular P2P accommodation platforms), convenience (people’s salient beliefs that they can use the P2P accommodation platform with free of effort), and fairness (refers to the basic premise of justice is fair dealings in the P2P accommodation platform) (e.g., Ryu et al., 2014). Additionally, the questionnaires included 10 items on trusting beliefs (e.g., Flavián et al., 2006; Lee & Hyun, 2016), 3 items on switching resistance loyalty (refer to “a strong commitment to a specific object”, p. 2) (Márof et al., 2012), and 2 items on loyalty to P2P platform (refers to individual’s willingness to keep using the P2P platform) (e.g., Ryu et al., 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 gender, education, and work status. The integrated data through the specific process was analyzed by reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modeling (SEM).

![Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model](image)

**FINDINGS**

Demographic characteristics. About 51% (n=183) and about 49% (n=142) of the respondents were female and male respectively. Most had 20-29 (39.5%, n=128) and 30-39 (37.7%, n=122) age groups. About 70% of the respondents showed that they had an associate degree (28%, n=78) or a bachelor’s degree (48%, n=156), and about 75% of the respondents reported work status of working full-time (n=213) or working part-time (n=64)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using maximum likelihood estimation with the 325 cases was implemented to determine the underlying
structure of all of the measurement variables in the model, assessing for unidimensionality, construct validity, and reliability. The results reveal a satisfactory fit with the data collected \[\chi^2=568.454, \text{df}=224, \chi^2/\text{df}=2.538(<3.0), \text{CFI}=0.930(>0.90), \text{IFI}=0.931(>0.85), \text{RMSEA}=0.067(<0.08)\] (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Composite reliability (CR) of study constructs, indicating the internal consistency of multiple indicators for each construct, ranged from .89 to .97, exceeding the recommended threshold (> .70) suggested by Hair et al. (1998). In terms of discriminant validity of the prominent constructs in this study, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for the measures was calculated. All AVE values, ranging from .59 to .77, exceeded the recommended value of 0.50 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Rather, the square root of average variance extracted for each construct is greater than the correlations between the constructs and all other constructs, ranging from .04 to .46. This reveals that adequate discriminant validity is achieved.

**Testing the hypotheses.** Table 1 shows the model’s overall fit with the data using common model goodness-of-fit measures. Overall, the results of the model revealed a reasonable fit with the data collected \[\chi^2=594.244, \text{df}=234, \chi^2/\text{df}=2.663, \text{CFI}=0.928, \text{IFI}=0.929, \text{RMSEA}=0.069\], which is satisfactory with respect to the commonly recommended value within the range suggestive of a good model fit (≥ .90) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). The present study also tested the hypotheses based on the model as shown in Figure 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paths</th>
<th>Standardized estimate</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1 Quality → Trusting beliefs</td>
<td>.291</td>
<td>3.673**</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 Fairness → Trusting beliefs</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>3.642**</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 Comparability → Trusting beliefs</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>3.438**</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 Marketing Opportunity → Trusting beliefs</td>
<td>.363</td>
<td>5.086**</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5 Convenience → Trusting beliefs</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>1.599</td>
<td>Not supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6 Trusting beliefs → Switching resistance</td>
<td>.519</td>
<td>8.239**</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7 Trusting beliefs → Loyalty to P2P platform</td>
<td>.635</td>
<td>10.695**</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8 Switching resistance loyalty → Loyalty to P2P platform</td>
<td>.357</td>
<td>6.093**</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSION**

The cognitive theory of trust yields diverse models of trusting beliefs concerning consumers’ behavioral loyalty in online P2P accommodation services. However, previous studies have neglected to develop a robust model for detecting the cognitive-behavioral process in online P2P services (i.e., Airbnb) by examining casual relationships between the functional values of platforms, trusting beliefs (honesty, benevolence, and competence), and behavioral loyalty (e.g., switching resistance loyalty and loyalty to P2P platform). In particular, the functional values of platform, namely, quality, compatibility, market opportunity, and fairness, help strengthen valid estimates of existing customers’ trusting beliefs toward P2P platforms, which in turn enhance the magnitude of loyalty to P2P platforms in online collaborative networking. Therefore, the empirical results are expected to be useful for researchers wishing to find ways to promote the degree of P2P users’ behavioral loyalty based on their trusting beliefs. In particular, the robustness of the theoretical relationships between trusting beliefs and behavioral loyalty (switching resistance loyalty and loyalty to P2P platforms) should facilitate the development of an extended model for online P2P business in the tourism industry.

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Socio-Cultural and Environmental Impacts of Tourism Brought About by Pililla Wind Farm to the Local Community of Pililla, Rizal: A Qualitative Study

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Rechilda Ebora, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
Easter Amira Francisco, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
Janno Fortuna, San Sebastian College- Recoletos

Introduction

As the wind farm, has been steadily gaining public attention from local and international tourists alike, the researchers find it important to conduct a study on the impacts of tourism on this emerging tourist destination. The researchers determined the social and environmental impact of tourism to the community of Pililla, Rizal using a qualitative approach.

Data will be gathered from residents and local government officials who can provide information on the social-cultural and environmental atmosphere in Pililla, Rizal before and after the construction of the wind farm. The researchers will set a quota sample of 25 residents and 5 local government officials. The specific respondents will be identified using the purposive sampling technique.

Method

This study identified the socioeconomic and environmental impacts of tourism brought about by the Pililla Wind Farm to the community of Pililla, Rizal using a qualitative approach. Since the study was focused on exploring the impacts brought about by the increasing tourism activity(ies) in Pililla, Rizal, the researchers believed that the qualitative approach is most appropriate for the study. This is because, as Mack, et al. (2005) explained in their book Qualitative Research: A Data Collector’s Field Guide, the strength of qualitative research is “to provide complex textual descriptions of how people experience a given research issue.”

Further, a qualitative research provides information about the “human” side of an issue—including the behaviors, beliefs, opinions, emotions, etc.—and is effective in identifying intangible factors such as social norms, socioeconomic status, gender roles, ethnicity, and religion. Indeed, this approach is appropriate for this study which explored the socioeconomic and environmental impacts of tourism as experienced by the respondents (composed of the residents and local government officials). In more specific terms, this study is an exploratory case study in which the researchers explored the socioeconomic and environmental impacts of tourism brought about by the construction of the wind farm in Pililla, Rizal as experienced by the residents.

Findings

1. The socioeconomic atmosphere in Pililia, Rizal before the growth of tourism is similar to that of many rural areas in the country—as a community near mountains and source of water, the residents rely on fishing and farming as a source of livelihood.

2. The environmental atmospheres in Pililia, Rizal before the growth of tourism is also like that of rural areas—the area abounds of wild cogon, other types of wild grass, will banana trees, and wild coconut trees. Roads were narrow, undeveloped, and sometimes not passable during the rainy season.

3. Among the significant socioeconomic impacts of tourism in Pililia, Rizal is the creation of new livelihood opportunities for residents and the opportunity for employment in the wind farm. Whereas before, their only option for livelihood are fishing and farming, the residents have now opportunities to sell food, souvenir items, and local products (such as pineapple and corn) to the tourists. They also have other options for employment because the wind farm prioritizes...
residents in employment opportunities.

4. The evident environmental impacts of tourism in Pililia, Rizal are depletion of natural resources (i.e., loss of fish and water in the river) and physical impacts. Tourism itself in Pililia, Rizal is not the main cause of the identified environmental impacts in the area. These impacts (depletion of natural resources and physical impacts) were a result of the construction of the government-approved wind farm project.

5. The prevailing issues related to the growing tourism in Pililia, Rizal include proper waste disposal, sanitation, and water and electricity supply.

6. The local government, in coordination with the provincial government, concerned agencies, and the administration of the wind farm, is exerting efforts to implement plans and programs that will continue to benefit the residents and address the existing issues in the community.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the significant findings, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The socioeconomic and environmental atmosphere in Pililia, Rizal before the construction of the wind farm and consequential growth of tourism in the area can be described as a common sight among many rural communities in the Philippines: the environment is plenty of natural resources which are the source of livelihood among the residents.

2. The construction of the wind farm and the consequential growth of tourism in Pililia, Rizal brought positive socioeconomic impacts to the individual residents and the community. Not only these developments provided additional employment and livelihood opportunities for the residents, it also augmented the income of the municipality, which led to the upgrading of its classification from a third class to a first-class municipality.

3. The environmental impact of growing tourism in the area is not yet evident; however, the construction of the wind farm had minor negative impacts on the community.

4. The growth of tourism in Pililia, Rizal comes with some issues that need to be addressed.

5. The local government is doing its responsibility to address the issues identified in the community.
A RESEARCH INTO HOW THE LANDSCAPE RESOURCE OF LUOSHAN VILLAGE WOULD INFLUENCE THE VILLAGE’S BRAND EQUITY – TAKE ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AWARENESS AS A MODERATOR

Ching-Cheng Shen, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism
Der-Jen Liu, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism
Yen-Rung Chang, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism

Luoshan Village is Taiwan’s first organic agricultural tourist destination. It is supported by the government and features the country’s village charm, village lifestyle, organic agriculture, and natural landscape. Whether Luoshan Village could transfer its profound image which is a combination of agriculture and tourism into brand equity remains the key toward the village’s sustainable development and presents a rewarding project for country’s tourism research. In this paper, we will investigate the tourists at Luoshan Village using questionnaires to research into how the village’s natural landscape and hominine landscape would influence the village as a brand, we will: (1) give descriptive statistics about the current situation of Luoshan Village’s landscape resource and brand equity; (2) conduct a factor analysis toward Luoshan Village’s landscape resource and analyze each factor’s reliability; (3) conduct regression analysis on the influence of Luoshan Village’s landscape resource on the village’s brand equity, in which we will see the moderating effect of environmental protection awareness. We hope this research will help tourism destinations to better deploy landscape resource, improve brand equity and boost the competitiveness of organic agriculture as a tourism feature.

Keywords: Landscape, Brand equity, Organic agriculture, Luoshan Village
CONSUMER ONLINE PEER–TO–PEER ACCOMMODATION DECISION MAKING: THE ROLE OF THE LANDLORD’S DESCRIPTIVE INFORMATION

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Derong Lin, Xiamen University

INTRODUCTION

Peer-to-Peer (P2P) accommodation is regarded as being a major innovation in the field of tourism and hospitality. In recent years, the number of platforms offering such services as well as the volume of transactions have been steadily increasing. Compared to other sharing mode (e.g. P2P lending), transactions via P2P accommodation platforms involve online trading, but are typically followed by face-to-face interactions upon provision of the service. For example, on Airbnb, the landlord (i.e., service provider) delivers the living space when the guest (i.e., the consumer) arrives, and is expected to fulfil the guest's needs. In some cases, the landlord even shares the living space with the guest. These differences imply that the landlord's attributes are critical in ensuring the delivery of the product and the provision of high-quality service. Another important implication is that customers of accommodation sharing services are exposed to risks other than monetary loss. After all, the act of sharing a home with a stranger can be risky. The nature of the P2P accommodation experience and the fact that it exposes consumers to risks make facilitating the trust of consumers even more critical than other types of P2P market.

To facilitate online trust of consumer, accommodation sharing marketplaces incorporate online reviews, similarly to traditional B2C online markets. Indeed, most of the literature concerning trust in e-commerce addresses the role of online reviews. Yet, P2P accommodation platform offer additional soft information through the pervasive use of personal photos and descriptive information of the landlords as the means of identity verification and in order to emphasize the sense of personal, sociable, human contact. A recent study on Airbnb has addressed the landlord's photograph can have a significant impact on consumer decision making. In contrast, another soft information factor, descriptive information, has not been paid attention to by scholars.

Descriptive information is a sequentially structured discourse that gives meaning to events that unfold around the narrator which might explain a person’s past experiences, current situation, or future hopes. Therefore, the descriptive information in P2P accommodation platform provides a window into how landlords conceptualize themselves and what their life like is, which helps consumer reduce anonymity and increase awareness of the landlord. Hence, we assert that the landlord's descriptive information about his/her attributes whose perception and effect on the online consumer have yet to be studied. Specifically, we contend that consumers infer landlords' trustworthiness from their descriptive information. We term this judgment ‘textual-based trust.’ We also assert that this textual-based trust affects the consumer's behaviour. So, the purpose of this study is to examine the role of landlord’s descriptive information in consumer online P2P accommodation decision making from text length, text content and text emotion three aspects.

METHOD

To extract the text content of landlord’s descriptive information, we adopt grounded theory which is a systematic methodology in the social sciences involving the construction of theory through the analysis of qualitative data. After reviewing and coding the descriptive information collected from a Chinese P2P accommodation platform, three elements become apparent, that is ability (landlords possess the skills necessary to meet obligations), benevolence (landlords have some attachment to consumers and are inclined to do good) and integrity (landlords adhere to
principles that consumers accept), which is consistent with previous research on trust.

As to text sentiment intensity measurement, existing approaches can be grouped into three main categories: knowledge-based techniques, statistical methods, and hybrid approaches. Knowledge-based techniques classify text by affect categories based on the presence of unambiguous affect words such as happy, sad, afraid and bored which are suitable for the study with small sample size, for example, this study.

So, we employ knowledge-based techniques and Python software to measure the text sentiment intensity of landlords' descriptive information.

Finally, a descriptive analysis is used to reach a preliminary idea on the relationship of text length, text content, text sentiment and consumer reservation results. And a regression analysis is undertaken to test the hypotheses provided based on relevant theories.

FINDINGS

The empirical results showed that there is a positive and highly significant relationship between text length and reservation results, that is, the more the text words of landlord descriptive information are, the more reservation volumes and days get.

As to text content, descriptive information involving benevolence and integrity both have a significant positive influence on consumer P2P accommodation decision. Landlords claiming benevolence or integrity will enjoy a greater increase in their sales than those who do not claim these characteristics.

Besides, there is an inverted "U" relationship between text sentiment intensity and online booking, that is, only when the text sentiment intensity is in an appropriate range, descriptive information will improve reservation results remarkably.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study examined the role that descriptive information play in influencing decision making in economic exchanges between previously unknown transaction partners—namely, the landlords who serve as descriptors and the consumers who serve as decision makers. We have reasoned and found support for the hypothesis that descriptive information influence decision makers. Our findings suggest that alternative source of information provided by descriptive information can reduce uncertainty and lead to more frequently successful exchanges. This information can enhance predictions of performance. Descriptive information, as a rich source of qualitative data about who a landlord is, offers the promise of expanding current objective information-based decision-making models, enriching the research on consumer decision making.

From a practical point of view, for landlords, our findings reveal the power of constructing a viable descriptive information when attempting to influence the P2P accommodation decision makers. So effective descriptive information should contain a certain number of words and emphasize the personal traits of benevolence or integrity, in addition, it should convey positive appropriate emotion to consumers.

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CHARACTERISTICS AND TRENDS OF HOME SHARING BUSINESS IN TOKYO

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INTRODUCTION

July 2014, Roland Berger, a Germany-based global consulting firm, published a report called “SHARED MOBILITY-How new businesses are rewriting the rules of the private transportation game”.

This report mainly predicted the further growth of sharing economy. For instance, car-sharing will reach around 5 billion EUR in 2020, showing a rapid growth of CAGR of 30%. Also, other sharing-services were predicted to grow, such as ride-sharing servicewill reach 5.2 billion EUR (CAGR of 35%), bicycle-sharing services will reach 5.3 billion EUR (CAGR of 20%). Furthermore, shared parking, a service providing a platform to share parking lots, will reach 2 billion EUR (CAGR of 25%).

Even though the growth of sharing economy were predicted by Risa Gansky (2010) or Rachel Botsman & Roo Rogers (2010), the unprecedented recent rapid growth of the business is remarkable. In the United States and Europe, a variety of start-up companies, such as spinlister (a bicycle shared service), and Liquid space / coworkigy / sharedesk (a working space shared service), have launched their services, and awareness of their services among consumers has been high.

As mentioned above, sharing businesses have existed in various fields, and not to mention in the accommodation industry, businesses by platforms such as Airbnb, HomeAway and FIPKEY, have expanded. In Japan, where the “Ryokangyoho-hotel business law” has not let the sharing accommodation service providers do business without a license, the number of listings registered in the sharing services has increased during the increase of incoming tourists to Japan.

Even though Japan has strict license systems to provide accommodation services, not a small number of business entities have done business with their platforms. Also their scale of listings (how many listings/hosts exist etc.) has not been clear. So, this research aims to clarify the trend of accommodation sharing services and their characteristics mainly in Tokyo, even though.

METHODOLOGY

In this research, the listings of Airbnb were analyzed because of their rapid growth speed and presence in Japan. The accommodation platforms did not publish the number of listings and their exact locations, so we used the data published by Whinmsley (http://tomslee.net) and Insideraidbnb (http://insideairbnb.com) in order to identify their characteristics. Especially, in Tokyo, according to the reverse geo-coding, the location of listings was identified.

The research was carried out from September 2016 to December 2016, collecting data, data-cleaning and making-data bases and analysis.

Academics and media used their data.
### Collecting and cleaning data

- To clean data downloaded by Whinmsley and Insiderairbnb

### Making a database

- To create a database for analysis
  - Including reverse geo-coding

**Figure 1 : The process of analysis**

### FINDINGS

According to the analysis, Tokyo has already had over 8,000 listings. Some surveys conducted by the government showed that around 40% of municipalities answered that the number of home sharing accommodations under the Ryokangyoho licenses increased. So, listings licensed or not obviously have increased.

Geographically, in terms of the geographical distribution of the listings in Tokyo, listings are concentrated in Shibuya-ku, Shinjyuku-ku and Minato-ku. Considering the press-release published by Airbnb, indicating around 90% of users who accommodated in Japan were incoming tourists and 40% of them stayed in Tokyo, it would be safe to say that not such a small number of users stayed in Tokyo.

**Figure 2 : Geographical distribution of listings in Tokyo**

*Source : Airbnb listings in Tokyo(August 2015), Whimsley*
**IMPLICATIONS**

According to this research, we found out that no licensed accommodation might be included in the listings. Especially, Minato-ku, Shibuya-ku and Shinjyuku-ku have more unlicensed accommodations.

There are many troubles between not only hosts and guests, but also, guests and neighborhoods in Japan. In the United States and European countries, some countries introduced a tax levied on the accommodation sharing listings. Considering these situations, the Japanese government has investigated and studied the ecosystem of home sharing services to make a new law. In order to facilitate users’ benefits and safety, it would not be difficult to say making a fair and transparent competitive environment is a challenge to sort out as soon as possible.

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Whinmsley http://tomslee.net 2017.02.25
YOUR LISTING’S TITLE MATTERS ON P2P ACCOMODATION—SHARING PLATFORMS

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Cindy Yoonjoung Heo, HES-SO/ University of Applied Sciences Western Switzerland

The sharing economy is a booming business phenomenon with enormous potential, which is challenging many traditional businesses and transforming many industries. Although there is little consensus on what activities comprise the sharing economy, collaborative consumption, peer economy, and sharing economy have been used to describe a hybrid market model of peer-to-peer (P2P) exchange. Hamari, Sjöklint, and Ukkonen (2016) defined sharing economy as “the peer-to-peer-based activity of obtaining, giving, or sharing the access to goods and services, coordinated through community-based online services” (Hamari, et. al., 2016, p. 2047). On the other hand, Eckhardt and Bardhi (2015) argued that the sharing economy is not really a sharing economy but an access economy, because the important changes underway in society are more likely new approaches accessing goods and services than sharing them.

P2P platforms for accommodation sharing have experienced strong growth (Pizam, 2014). According to PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC), Airbnb, the world’s leading marketplace for accommodation sharing, received 155 million guest stays in 2014, nearly 22% more than Hilton Worldwide which had 127 million guest stays in 2014. Merrill Lynch analysts reported that listings on Airbnb could make up as much as 1.2% of the hotel offering and make up 3.6 to 4.3% of inventory by 2020 with an estimated 40% to 50% growth in listings per year.

The growth of businesses based on the sharing economy has earned attention from scholars in the tourism and hospitality industry and researchers have started to explore various issues about P2P platforms for accommodation sharing. Several studies explored the impact and implications of this new phenomenon on the hospitality and tourism industry. Guttentag (2015) discussed Airbnb from a disruptive innovation theory perspective, which describes how products that lack in traditionally preferred attributes but offer alternative benefits can transform a market and capture mainstream consumers over time. Heo (2016) discussed the impacts of the sharing economy on the tourism industry and the research prospects of this topic. Similarly, Cheng (2016) reported the current trends relating to the sharing economy in tourism and highlighted that the sharing economy empowers people’s mobility and encourages traditional tourism service providers to innovate and redefine their business models. Zervas, Proservio, and Byers (2016) found that a 1% increase in Airbnb listings causes a .05% decrease in hotel revenues in the U.S. state of Texas. Previous research also suggests that the sharing economy has incrementally allowed tourists to have access to a wide range of products and services at a more reasonable price (Shahen, Mallery, & Kingsley, 2012), helped authentic encounters between tourists and locals (Molz, 2013; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2015) and contributed to the employment and income of locals (Fang, Ye, & Law, 2016).

Others (e.g., Kohda & Masuda, 2013; Tussyadiah, 2015) tried to identify the characteristics of P2P sharing transactions. Möhlmann’s study (2015) identified users’ self-benefits. Utility, trust, cost savings, and familiarity are the key determinants of the satisfaction and the likelihood of choosing a sharing option again. Tussyadiah (2015) found that three main factors that encourage users to stay in Airbnb accommodation are sustainability (i.e., social and environmental responsibility), community (i.e., social interactions), and economic benefits (i.e., lower cost). Wang and Nicolau (2017) tried to identify the price determinants of sharing economy-based accommodation offers in 33 cities listed on Airbnb through analysis of 25 variables in 5 categories: host attributes, site and property attributes, amenities and services, rental rules, and number of online reviews and ratings. Although
several studies have explored various topics on P2P platforms for accommodation sharing, there has been a dearth of research focused on hosts as micro-entrepreneurs.

In contrast to the traditional hotel industry, P2P platforms like Airbnb allow private individuals to take on the role of micro-entrepreneurs and act as hosts, offering their accommodation to tourists for a charge (Sundararajan, 2014). Hosts’ overall potential to generate income clearly depends on how much demand they are able to attract. The title of the listing on P2P platforms for accommodation sharing is phrased by the host to describe his or her own accommodation and it is the first piece of information that potential guests will see when scrolling through the search results. As human beings have limited information-processing capacity (Taylor, Franke & Bang, 2006), consumers control their own information processing and engage in selective perception, which leads to processing only a limited number of messages and ignoring many others in order to manage massive volumes of information (Celsi & Olson, 1988; Kane & Engle, 2002). Therefore, it is important for Airbnb hosts to use effective key words for the title of their listing to attract potential guests.

Several researchers have tried to explain how information from service providers are received, processed and acted on by their target customers. McGuire’s (1968) information-processing model (IPM) is a framework used by cognitive psychologists to explain and describe human beings’ thinking processes. McGuire (1968) identified several different stages of information processing which mediate the impact of a persuasive message on judgments. McGuire (1968) noted that the persuasive effect of a message is likely to increase with recipients’ ability to understand it, but to decrease with their ability and motivation to refute its validity. Belch and Belch (2001) regarded the consumer as an individual in a complex buying situation and looking for information relevant to his/her buying decision. When consumers are bombarded with information competing for their attention, they try to process the information to avoid being in a confused state. Consumers do not simply understand advertisers’ messages but they reject or accept them based on the importance those messages have on their choices and needs at the time of delivery and reception. Furthermore, Shimp (2000) pointed out that acquiring information is necessary but insufficient for effective communication and the consumer’s attention needs to be hooked to the message and be triggered to engage in selective attention focusing on a specific message out of the many that he/she was exposed to. It indicates that information receivers consciously or unconsciously process the messages that they are exposed to and subsequently act on them. Thus, this study tried to find the effective key words used in accommodation descriptions on P2P sharing platform by examining the relationship between the key words used and the financial performance of Airbnb rentals.

METHOD

Number of reviews, ratings, number of photos, description of the properties, occupancy rates (OCC), and average daily rates of Airbnb properties were obtained from AirDNA. AirDNA scrapes data from Airbnb’s website in order to provide information to Airbnb hosts and considers a rental list to be active if it has been posted in the last 60 days or had a reservation in the last 30 days. The content analysis was performed using 1,046,191 words from these 199,407 property descriptions. The text data were analyzed using Voyant Links (https://voyant-tools.org), an online text mining program. A series of content analyses by frequency was performed on the data. The unique 10 frequent words were extracted in each destination and “SEARCH” function in Microsoft Excel was used to code if the descriptions include the unique words. Ten dichotomous dummy variables (0 or 1) were created indicating if the property descriptions include the frequent words. Revenue per Available Room (REVPAR) was calculated by multiplying average daily rates by occupancy rates (OCC). The dichotomous dummy variables and number of reviews, ratings, and number of photos were included as independent variables. The z-score of REVPAR and OCC were calculated to be standardized dependent variables. As the models were separated by three rental types (shared room, private room, or whole house rental) and two different dependent variables (OCC and REVPAR), six regression models were tested in this study.
RESULTS

Table 1 illustrates the frequent words used in property descriptions by city. The results show that variety of different words were used in property descriptions by destinations, although “apartment,” “cozy,” “private,” and “studio” were included as frequent words in almost all destinations. Destinations’ names were presented in the property descriptions in most cities except New York.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>New York</th>
<th>LA</th>
<th>Chicago</th>
<th>Washington DC</th>
<th>San Francisco</th>
<th>Miami</th>
<th>Orlando</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>room</td>
<td>33803</td>
<td>room</td>
<td>6217</td>
<td>room</td>
<td>3470</td>
<td>room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apartment</td>
<td>23055</td>
<td>Hollywood</td>
<td>6127</td>
<td>apartment</td>
<td>2594</td>
<td>apartment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>private</td>
<td>10588</td>
<td>apartment</td>
<td>4106</td>
<td>park</td>
<td>1807</td>
<td>DC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>studio</td>
<td>9157</td>
<td>private</td>
<td>3243</td>
<td>Chicago</td>
<td>1455</td>
<td>studio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cozy</td>
<td>8226</td>
<td>LA</td>
<td>2462</td>
<td>private</td>
<td>1443</td>
<td>private</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spacious</td>
<td>6743</td>
<td>studio</td>
<td>2410</td>
<td>studio</td>
<td>1184</td>
<td>Dupont</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>east</td>
<td>6673</td>
<td>home</td>
<td>1666</td>
<td>cozy</td>
<td>1178</td>
<td>metro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>village</td>
<td>6308</td>
<td>cozy</td>
<td>1631</td>
<td>condo</td>
<td>1079</td>
<td>capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brooklyn</td>
<td>5955</td>
<td>house</td>
<td>1547</td>
<td>downtown</td>
<td>1064</td>
<td>hill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sunny</td>
<td>5926</td>
<td>loft</td>
<td>1546</td>
<td>loft</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>cozy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the six regression analyses show that the models fit the data (R² ranging from .125 to .197 and significance level lower than .001). The results show that the number of reviews has a statistically significant positive relationship with OCC as well as REVPAR across all rental types, while the number of photos has positive relationships only with REVPAR. Ratings were positively related to REVPAR only when renting whole house or private room. In addition, ratings were not significantly related to OCC except when renting whole houses. Regarding the frequent words in the property description, statistically significant relationships between words and OCC and REVPAR are different across different destinations. It was noticeable that “apartment” and “studio” have significant negative relationships with REVPAR, but positive relationships with OCC. In addition, words showing locations (e.g., the city’s name, “cay,” “resort,” “Hollywood,” etc.) had negative or no statistically significant relationship with OCC or REVPAR. “Private” had a statistically significant negative relationship with REVPAR except Chicago, Miami, and Orlando, while the word had a statistically significant positive relationship with OCC only in Miami and Orlando.

CONCLUSIONS

Although online travel agencies’ websites present photos, videos, and even virtual tours to appeal to tech-savvy consumers, having unique descriptions may also change their entire decision-making process. The unique words included in the property descriptions will make the stunning visual effects with photos or videos even more attention-grabbing. The study’s findings show that specific words in property descriptions dynamically affect OCC or REVPAR when controlling for the number of photos, number of reviews, and ratings. Owners of the properties are suggested to selectively use the unique words identified in this study to enhance their properties’ performance. Airbnb and property owners may build strategies to encourage guests to make more comments as the findings show that the more reviews, the higher the OCC and REVPAR. In addition, as the number of photos did not significantly affect the OCC across different destinations, administrators of Airbnb may want to consider developing efficient strategies regarding photos uploaded by owners.

This study only chose seven top destinations in the United States of America, so that only
words written in English were collected and analyzed. The results for an investigation with different destinations or different languages might be different from this study’s results. Accordingly, further exploration with various destinations and a broader language is recommended.

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HOW NATURE–BASED TOURISTS’ KNOWLEDGE OF ENVIRONMENTALLY FRIENDLY ACTIVITIES INFLUENCES THEIR ECOLOGICAL WORLDVIEW: A CASE STUDY OF CANADA

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INTRODUCTION

Nature-based tourism’s popularity has increased the ecological risk of human activities during their visit to nature. Therefore, researchers have investigated people’s environmental behavior during tourism activities to identify and manage factors that influence tourists’ pro-environmental behavior. Several cognitive factors that influence pro-environmental behavior during nature-based tourism activities have been identified, such as environmental value, attitude, ecological concern, environmental knowledge, self-efficacy, personal and subjective norms, and environmental awareness (Klöckner, 2013). Among these, ecological worldview and knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental camping have been identified as two of the major influencers of tourists’ pro-environmental behavior. The purpose of the present study was to explore the associations among nature-based tourists’ knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental camping, their ecological worldview, and their pro-environmental behavioral intention.

One of the best tools to investigate people’s ecological worldview, the new ecological paradigm (NEP) has been utilized as a predictor of pro-environmental behavior in several theories, namely in the value–belief–norm model of environmental concern and the behavior (Stern, 2000) and norm-activation model (Schwartz & Howard, 1981). Introduced by Dunlap and Van Liere (new environmental paradigm; 1978) and revised by Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, and Jones (2000), the NEP has been a popular instrument in environmental psychology literature and has shown positive associations with people’s pro-environmental behavior (Brügger et al., 2011; Davis & Stroink, 2015). The NEP scale consists of 15 items that encompass five dimensions (Amburgey & Thoman, 2012): the reality of limits to growth (3 items), antiantthropocentrism (3 items), the fragility of nature’s balance (3 items), rejection of exemptionalism (3 items), and the possibility of an ecocrisis (3 items). This study investigated the five dimensions of NEP to understand people’s ecological worldview and its influence on their pro-environmental behavioral intention during nature-based tourism activities. The structural model of this study investigated the influence of people’s knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental camping on their ecological worldview and, in turn, their pro-environmental behavioral intention. Figure 1 demonstrates these associations.

Several studies, namely Hines et al. (1986/87), Bamberg and Möser (2007), Steg and Vlek (2009), Boland and Heintzman (2010), Sutton and Tobin (2013), and Han (2015), confirmed that knowledge of environmental issues positively influences people’s pro-environmental behavior. Most of the studies that utilized NEP to investigate people’s ecological worldview identified an association between ecological worldview and awareness of consequences. As well, individuals’ knowledge of environmental issues positively influences their ecological worldview. Rideout’s (2005; 2014) and Woodworth et al.’s (2011) studies are recent examples of the influence of knowledge of environmental issues on ecological worldview. These studies posit that people’s knowledge of environmental issues positively influences their ecological worldview and, in turn, their pro-environmental behavior. However, more empirical investigations of this hypothesis were encouraged. This study hypothesized that nature-based tourists’ knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental camping directly and positively influences their ecological worldview. Campers’ worldview was also hypothesized to be directly and positively associated with pro-environmental behavioral intention. Finally, it was hypothesized that knowledge of how to
engage in pro-environmental camping directly and positively influences pro-environmental behavioral intentions.

METHODS

As a part of a larger study, data were collected in the provincial parks of Alberta, Canada. A randomly selected sample of 1,009 Canadian campers was analyzed for the purpose of this research. Ecological worldview was examined via the 15 standard NEP items (Van Liere et al., 2000; Amburgey & Thoman, 2012). Self-reported knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental camping was measured by seven items (designed based on Alberta Parks education programs). These items investigated campers’ knowledge of: environmentally-friendly use of campsites, appropriate disposal of garbage and recyclables at campgrounds, low impacts activities in campgrounds, proper food storage, environmentally-friendly use of campfires, and disposal of waste water. Visitors’ intention was investigated by four questions (two intention and two willingness items), based on Azjen’s (2011) intention measurement guidelines. A five-point Likert scale was used for all questionnaire items. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was utilized to examine internal consistency (α intention = .877; α knowledge = .855; α NEP = .84). Structural equation modeling was utilized to examine the hypothesized regression associations. Findings are elaborated in the next section.

RESULTS

More than half of respondents were female (55.5%). With a standard deviation of 13 years, the average age of the sample was 42. Forty percent of respondents had a college diploma, 32% possessed a university degree, and the rest had a high school diploma and below. Only 6% of respondents were visitors from other Canadian provinces or other countries.

IBM SPSS and Amos 23 were used to analyze the data. SEM results showed that knowledge of pro-environmental camping directly and positively influenced campers’ ecological worldview (β = .21, p < .001) and intention (β = .32, p < .001). Campers’ ecological worldview was also directly and positively associated with their intention (β = .28, p < .001). Table 1 shows the direct and indirect associations among these factors. Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = .961, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .961, Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .955, Root Mean Square Residual index (RMR) = .032, and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .051 values for this model indicated good model-data fit (Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. SEM Results for Direct and Indirect Association</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Predictor</td>
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<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R2Intention = .22

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. Model Fit Results</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
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<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural Model</td>
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</table>

Notes. The following cutoff criteria for fit indexes are suggested by Schreiber et al. (2006): IFI, NFI, GFI, & CFI > .95; RMR < .05; RMSEA < .06; * P < .001
IMPLICATIONS

The aim of this study was to investigate nature-based tourists’ knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental camping on their ecological worldview and pro-environmental behavioral intention. Structural equation modeling showed that tourists’ knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental camping significantly influenced their intention to engage in pro-environmental camping behavior. It also positively influenced their ecological worldview. These findings indicate that it is important to study people’s action knowledge and its influence on their environmental behavior. General knowledge of environmental issues and knowledge of disastrous consequences have often been included in environmental behavior studies (Klöckner, 2013), knowledge of how to engage in pro-environmental activities should also be included in environmental behavior investigations. The literature has indicated that people’s ecological worldview is mainly influenced by their values and beliefs (Stern, 2000); however, this study showed that people’s ecological worldview can also be influenced by their knowledge of action. Therefore, proper education can improve tourists’ environmental behavior during their stay in natural environments. In addition to improving people’s general knowledge of environmental issues, education programs at parks and protected areas should focus on specific skills such as environmentally friendly camping.

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WHAT MOTIVATES TOURISTS TO VISIT A LOCAL STREET MARKET? THE CASE OF LADIES’ MARKET IN HONG KONG

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INTRODUCTION

Local street markets play a vital role in shaping tourists’ experience. Previous research has proposed that a diversity of services and products are key elements for tourist attraction to local street markets (Chang et al, 2008; Hsieh & Chang, 2006; Kim et al., 2009), little research has been conducted to explain the success of markets that may not have a heterogeneous nature. This article aims to fill the gaps by exploring the motivations of tourists visiting the Ladies’ Market in Hong Kong.

METHOD

In order to develop the trustworthiness of this study, purposive sampling method is adopted. It enables the researcher to select specific subjects who will provide the most extensive information about the phenomenon being studied (Burns & Grove, 2003:255). Supporting and discrepant data were also searched and examined to evaluate if the conclusion should be retained or modified. Moreover, to reduce the “telescope effect” caused by memory-recalled problems (Woodside & Dubelaar, 2002), 18 interviews were taken place in the Ladies’ Market. Only first-time travelers to Hong Kong were filtered for an interview.

FINDINGS

A content analysis of the data obtained from the interviews will be discussed to explore and develop an understanding of the tourists’ perception towards Ladies’ Market in Hong Kong.

Novelty-seeking Crompton (1979) explained that “novel” was referring to the experience but not necessarily knowledge. Due to the natural traits of human, novelty attracts tourists to seek out the “unfamiliar” (Graham, 1981). The results of this study help to explain previous studies that novelty-seeking in street markets can satisfy tourists’ needs to experience novel culture in contrast to their previous experiences (Chang, Min, Lin, & Chiang, 2008).

Respondents mentioned that the physical environment of the stores in Ladies’ Market are closely packed together which resembles the taller and closely built skyscrapers in Hong Kong. Selling techniques of the hawkers in Ladies’ Market are not commonly practiced in shops or other street markets, hawkers will proactively approach them, literally follow them and consistently offering lower prices, most of them expressed excitedness for the encountering experience.

Authentic experience with non-authentic products The findings again support previous studies that the experience of travelling is “authentic” when tourists can uncover something unique to them, (Hughes, 1995; Cary, 2004; Chang et al, 2008; Kim, Eves, & Searles, 2009). Hsieh & Chang (2006) suggested that shopping in night markets can allow tourists to experience authentic local culture; Kikuchi & Ryan (2007) stated cultural components can help to attract tourist to the street markets only when “they are perceived as authentic and real”.

The results gave us a clearer definition of the term “authentic experience” when most of the products sold in Ladies’ Market are non-authentic. Products there are mainly made in China and/or pirated branded products, such as luxury handbags and watches. All respondents mentioned that they are aware that the products are neither authentic nor real but they still visit and even purchase the fake products. “Authentic and real” are describing the experience of the tourists, and has no relation to the products being sold; the experience can still be authentic for the act of buying non-authentic products knowingly and consciously.

Reputation of the Local Market amongst other Tourists This study also contradicts with some previous studies, attractiveness of night
markets can purely come from its reputation instead of “a diversity of service contents and local food and affordable consumption” suggested by Chuang et. al (2014). There are no food stores in Ladies’ Market, and there is only one type of service content available, which is retail stores, but Ladies market is still successful in attracting a lot of tourists to visit. All the respondents explained the reason for visiting Ladies’ Market is either because of Word-of-mouth or they think it is famous for tourists. None of them has mentioned about the products that can be consumed in the market or about other elements reported by other studies such as cleanliness or safety etc. The respondents perceived Ladies’ Market as a must go attraction for first-time travelers; therefore, being a first-time traveler in Hong Kong, they visited the place. Demographic Factors The findings also indicate that demographics do differentiate among different markets. Gender and place of origin were found to be the key to this difference. Among the respondents, Asians have expressed more neutral or negative comments about Ladies’ market than Europeans and North Americans. Besides, none of the Asians have consumed anything from Ladies’ Market. This phenomenon may be explained by cultural similarities and differences of the respondents’ place of origin and Hong Kong, as uncertainty and estrangement caused by cultural diversity can bring positive attraction to tourists (Guo & Gu, 2013).

Extrinsic cues such as brand names are one of the sources for consumer to evaluate products and brand names were proved to be able to transmit information to consumer without applying any marketing strategies (Klink, 2000). Our findings show the word “Ladies” in Ladies’ Market has some special implication to the female tourists visiting the market; most female respondents have mentioned that they were attracted by the name of the market. If the market has renamed to “Tung Choi Street Market” instead, some of them may not visit the market in the first place as “Tung Choi” does not make any sense for the English speakers, and for those who can speak or read Chinese characters, it means Ipomoea aquatica in English, which may suggest it is a place for selling vegetables rather than gadgets or souvenirs.

CONCLUSION

Instead of possessing a diversity of food and services, findings show that the attractiveness of a local street market can be resulted from a combination of novelty-seeking opportunities and the market’s good reputation among other tourists. This research strengthen previous studies on novelty-seeking is the key factor of motivation and it also helps to clarify the term “authentic experience” mentioned in attracting tourists. Government and tourism boards are recommended to put more effort in producing marketing campaigns highlighting the street markets’ reputation. However, different campaign themes should be used to promote in different places due to cultural diversity. Responsible bodies may also consider renaming markets which may suggest a meaning that may attract tourist to visit.

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ENCOURAGING GREEN BEHAVIORS BY EVOKING GUILT AND SHAME EMOTIONS IN SOCIAL ADVERTISING

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INTRODUCTION

Every year, around 1.3 billion tons of food is wasted (United Nation, 2017). In fact, much of this waste is produced by the hospitality industry. In the U.S., café, restaurants and hotels collectively generate more than 61,000 tons of waste every single day (Buffer Go, 2017). Food waste is a result not only of the unsustainable practices by the caterers but also the irresponsible behaviors of the consumers. For example, for a hotel breakfast buffet, food needs to be replenished almost every single hour to keep it look inexhaustible and the uneaten food left over from the buffet will normally be thrown away. At the same time, it is also not uncommon to see that customers ordering too much food in the restaurant and end up wasting it. In response to the societal concerns over food waste, some hoteliers started to team up with other non-profit organizations to “rescue” uneaten food. Nevertheless, there is also a common consensus that waste must be reduced by changing the behavior of consumers themselves (Jagdish, Sethia, & Srinivas, 2011). More recent research in the tourism and hospitality discipline has called for a multi-stakeholder approach in designing firms’ sustainability initiatives (Sigala, 2014). In particular, the role played by customers cannot be overlooked. The primary objective of this research is to investigate how service providers can engage customers more effectively in reducing food waste in the hospitality industry.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Policy makers from all over the world have been thinking ways to motivate more green behaviors - behaviors that minimize the harm to the environment or even benefit the environment (Steg & Vlek, 2009), reducing food waste can be considered as one such example. Social advertising is a commonly adopted tactics for encouraging consumers to adopt green practices. But what sort of advertising can effectively induce such a behavioral change? The advertising tactics we put forth in this paper is based on the consideration that the target audience of such advertising message are those who have been consuming quite irresponsibly; such acts involve violation to societal or moral standards (i.e. transgression) which in fact often lead to the experience of guilt and shame. These two emotions, although co-exists in many cases, their influences on people’s behaviors can be substantially different (Cohen, Wolf, Panter, & Insko, 2011; Howell, Turowski, & Buro, 2012; Tangney, 1991; Tangney, Miller, Flicker, & Barlow, 1996). For example, when feeling guilt, people tend to put the blame on a specific behavior they have committed, and actively make amend to the harms they have done. In contrast, shame is experienced when people attribute the negative outcome to the self as a whole. The experience of shame is usually accompanied by the feeling that the wrong behavior is socially exposed and one is being judged by others negatively (Lindsay-Hartz, 1984; Tangney, 1991). It is therefore more associated with a desire to avoid social contact and escape from the situation. We therefore postulate that if the advertising message can make salient the feeling of guilt (as opposed to shame) upon one’s existing consumption style, the person is more likely to correct his/her wrongdoing (i.e. consuming irresponsibly) and to engage in green behaviors. The question is how can we make guilt the predominating emotion with the advertising message?

Cognitive theories of affect suggest that the onset of emotional experience is initiated by a cognitive appraisal of the emotion-eliciting situation (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990). Thoughts about the situation can determine the specific emotion that a person will experience (Weiner, 1980). For example, when
seeing a person falling in a subway, thinking that the person is ill will lead to sympathy but thinking that the person is drunk may lead to disgust. The cognitive predisposition that is activated at the moment can guide people’s thinking and shape the thoughts they have. For example, in situations where people predispose to construe events at high level, they think in broad and abstract terms, with an emphasis of the superordinate features of an event but when people construe events at low level, they process information in a local and specific manner, attending to the subordinate features of an event (Liberman & Trope, 1998; Trope & Liberman, 2000; Vallacher & Wegner, 1987). Han et al. (2014) shows that after experiencing guilt, people tend to process information in a subsequent task with low-level construal but in the case of shame, they process the information with high-level construal. Given this association, we believe that shifting people’s construal level on the other hand may also influence their experience of guilt and shame. We predict that when people are predisposed to construe their transgressions at low-level construal, guilt tends to predominate as they are more likely to pay attention to the specific behaviors (i.e. the subordinate aspect), however, when people are predisposed to construe their transgressions at high-level construal, shame instead should predominate as they are more likely to focus on the global deficiency of themselves (i.e. the superordinate aspect). In the situation we concern in this paper, an advertising message can prompt the audience to construe their existing (wasteful) consumption style at low versus high level. In the case of low-level construal, guilt tends to be predominately felt and the audience is more likely to correct such an irresponsible consumption style and to engage in green behaviors but in the case of high-level construal, shame tends to be predominately felt and the audience is less likely to engage in green behaviors. In the following, we propose a preliminary study to examine such possibility.

A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION – METHOD AND EXPECTED FINDINGS

In this experiment, we manipulate people’s construal levels (high versus low) so as to influence their experience of guilt and shame. Previous research shows that one way to alter the level of construal is to ask people to think about the why and the how aspects of an event (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987). We assume that in situation that elicits both guilt and shame (e.g. wasteful consumption), when people think about why they engage in such a behavior, shame should predominate but when thinking about how they engage in such a behavior, guilt should predominate.

We propose to test our prediction in a more naturalistic setting - real catering facility. Canteen customers who have finished their meals will be invited to participate in an “advertising pretest” for a food charity. The approximate amount of food remained by each customer will be recorded unobtrusively. The analyses will focus on those who have left over food (i.e. those who have just transgressed by wasting food). We will influence participants’ emotional experience (guilt, shame and control) by priming their construal levels with the advertising message. Participants will receive a print advertisement featuring a situation that uneaten food is being buried in the landfill, either with a tagline of “why do you waste food” (i.e. shame-inducing), “how do you waste food” (i.e. guilt-inducing) or no tagline (i.e. control condition) at the top of the advertisement. The major dependent measured include the intensity of guilt and shame experienced and the participants’ intention to join the above waste-reducing program (i.e. a green practice) if they come across this ad in real life. We expect that those who are led by the advertising message to construe their wasteful consumption at low (vs. high) level should experience predominately guilt (vs. shame) and indicate a higher (vs. lower) intention to participate in the program.

CONCLUSION

In this research, we attempt to identify an effective way to encourage green behaviors with the use of social advertising. In many resource-abundant societies, people are used to an over-consumption lifestyle. Such a lifestyle has led to severe damages to the environment and waste management has become one of the most pressing problems confronting policy makers. As the rate of
climate change is alarming, it is time for all the people to go for a more sustainable way of life. We posit that by inducing feelings of guilt (as opposed to shame) in the advertisement can provide the necessary emotional impetus for a change in people’s consumption style. With this understanding, policy makers can design more effective social campaigns that motivate more responsible consumption. The potential findings of this research also contribute to the existing knowledge of guilt and shame. Despite the fact that guilt and shame often co-exist, by shifting the way people construe the situation, these two overlapping emotions can be better separated. This is particularly important when the behavioral consequences resulted from these emotions are divergent.

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Acknowledgement

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TO TOLERATE OR NOT TO TOLERATE? WHEN ATTRACTIVE OPPOSITE-SEX SERVICE PROVIDERS MAKE MISTAKES

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INTRODUCTION

Abundant research shows that attractive (vs. unattractive) service providers bring about higher consumer satisfaction and purchase intention (e.g., DeShields, Kara, & Kaynak, 1996; Wan & Wyer, 2015). People are also relatively more forgiving of attractive opposite-sex offenders (Phillips & Hranek, 2012). Conceivably, compared to non-attractive service providers, when attractive opposite-sex service providers make mistakes, consumers should be more forgiving for their mistakes in service failures. As this research suggests, however, there are certain situations in which an attractive provider is likely to have a deleterious effect.

The “beautiful is good” stereotype suggests that attractive individuals are perceived to have more favorable attributes (goodness, innocence, social competence, etc.) than unattractive persons. Among these attributes, social competence is the most robust (Eagly et al. 1991). Socially competent individuals are able to take the perspective of others and be responsive to the needs of others (Griffin & Langlois, 2006). Because attractive service providers are stereotypically social competent, they might be expected to be particularly capable of delivering good service. This expectation may lead consumers to be less tolerant of poor service than they might otherwise be. Therefore, when this expectation is violated, they may be relatively less forgiving of an attractive provider’s mistakes than of an unattractive provider’s errors.

Service failures can either be impersonal, pertaining to the core service that the consumer receives, or interpersonal, surrounding the manner in which the core service is transferred to the consumer (e.g., Grönroos, 1984). Some researchers (e.g., Chan, Wan, & Sin, 2009) has further distinguished between social and non-social failures. A social failure is a situation in which the consumer suffers a loss of social resources (e.g., status, esteem) due to an interaction with the service provider, whereas a non-social failure is a situation in which the consumer suffers a loss of non-social resources (e.g., money, time). In other words, physical/instrumental factors are involved in a non-social failure, whereas social/psychological factors are involved in a social failure. (For example, in a restaurant, a social failure occurs if the waiter is impolite, whereas a non-social failure occurs if the waiter took the wrong order.)

Social competence may have a greater effect on reactions to a social failure than on reactions to a non-social one. Therefore, consumers may react less positively to a provider’s social failure, but more positively to a provider’s non-social failure, if the provider is attractive than if (s)he is unattractive.

METHOD

One hundred twenty female participants were paid HK$20 (approximately US $3) to take part in a 15-minute experiment. They were randomly assigned to cells of 2 x 2 (attractiveness: high vs. average) x 2 (service failure: social vs. non-social) between-subjects design.

FINDINGS

Results confirmed our hypotheses. When a nonsocial failure happens, consumers will have a lower intention to blame the service provider and are less dissatisfied if the provider is attractive than if (s)he is unattractive. When a social failure happens, however consumers will have a higher intention to blame the service provider and are more dissatisfied if the provider is attractive than if (s)he is unattractive.

Although the results of this study were provocative, it did not examine the factors that
mediated the impact of service failure type and physical attractiveness on consumer reactions. More studies will be conducted to examine the underlying mechanism of the proposed effect.

IMPLICATIONS

The present research is the first to examine conditions in which physical attractiveness of service providers increases consumers’ favorable reactions in service failures and when it decreases these reactions. The findings offer valuable managerial insights into the role of service providers’ physical attractiveness on consumers’ behavior.

REFERENCES

HOW OBSERVERS REACT TO SERVICE FAILURES? THE IMPACT OF INCIDENTAL SIMILARITY

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INTRODUCTION

A growing body of research has discovered that even the trivial attribute of similarity, that is, incidental similarity, will have significant favorable impact on initial social interactions (Burger et al., 2004; Guéguen, Pichot, & Le Dreff, 2005; Jiang et al., 2010; Martin & Guéguen, 2013). Incidental similarities are chance similarities between individuals, such as a shared first name or birthplace, which create a sense of association between two people (Burger et al., 2004). Prior research shows that people who perceive they share a birthday, first name, or similar fingerprints with a stranger are more likely to comply with the stranger’s request (Burger et al., 2004; Guéguen et al., 2005), are more willing to respond to the stranger’s questions on intimate topics (Martin & Guéguen, 2013), and, if the stranger is a salesperson, can increase purchase intentions (Jiang et al., 2010). Incidental similarities create a sense of connectedness between two strangers that is not shared by other people around them (Burger et al., 2004). This sense of connectedness generates a fleeting sense of liking and interpersonal attraction (Insko & Wilson, 1977). Existing research therefore suggests that incidental similarities lead to favorable reactions to the similar other.

We propose that the effects of incidental similarities are not invariably favorable. Incidental similarities can elicit unfavorable effects, and can make an otherwise disinterested observer become involved in an exchange between a stranger and a company that (s)he merely witnessed. For example, a service failure involves the service provider and the suffering customer. From the perspective of an individual observing the failure, the nature of the effect of incidental similarities would depend on whether one feels a sense of association with the provider or the customer.

Imagine a situation in which someone observes a customer being told that a table he had reserved is actually not available. If the observer notices that customer’s surname happens to be the same as his own, he may be disposed to view the situation from the customer’s perspective and blame the provider for the failure. However, if the observer notices from the provider’s name tag that they happen to have the same surname, he may feel more similar to the provider and attributing him less responsibility for the failure.

These arguments draw on previous research of perspective taking (Galinsky & Moskowitz 2000; Frantz & Janoff-Bulman 2000). Perspective taking affects people attributional thinking. If observers take the perspective of the target, they will tend to use more situational factors rather than dispositional reasons to explain the target’s behavior (Jones & Nisbett 1971). We expect that when consumers shared incidental similarity with the service provider, they may attribute him less responsibility for an observed failure. However, when they shared incidental similarity with the suffering customer, the reverse is true.

METHOD

One hundred eight participants were paid HK$20 (approximately US $3) to take part in a 15-minute experiment. They were randomly assigned to cells of a 2 (service provider: with incidental similarity vs. without incidental similarity) × 2 (customer: with incidental similarity vs. without incidental similarity) between-subjects design.

FINDINGS

Results demonstrate that when an incidental similarity is shared (vs. is not shared) with a service provider involved in an observe failure, observing customers will have a lower intention to blame the service provider, leading them to have
a higher patronage intention of service. However, when an incidental similarity is shared (vs. is not shared) with a customer involved in an observe failure, observing customers will have a higher intention to blame the service provider, and therefore they will have a lower patronage intention of service.

IMPLICATIONS

This is the first research to distinguish between conditions in which an incidental similarity increases the favorableness of consumers’ reactions to an observed service failure and conditions in which it decreases the favorableness of these reactions. In addition, service failure literature has largely focused on the customer who is involved in the service failure (Wan, Chan, & Su 2011). Yet the current research suggests that a service failure can have an impact on a customer who is merely observing what had happened to another customer. Although incidental similarities are trivial aspects of our lives, they trigger consumers to feel empathy with other customers (the service provider) and to blame the service provider more (less). This research offers important managerial insights.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF MONETARY AND NONMONETARY PROMOTION ON CONSUMER PERCEPTIONS

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INTRODUCTION

As competition of hotels has become intense, a role of sales promotion is a crucial element to make businesses successful in the fields of tourism and hospitality. It is identified that the promotion has influences on product sales (DelVecchio, Krishnan, & Smith, 2007), and consumers’ perceptions (Yoon, Nusair, Parsa, & Naipaul, 2010) such as brand equity (Valette-Florence, Guizani, & Merunka, 2011). The literature to advertising suggested two types of promotions, including monetary (e.g., price reductions and coupons) and non-monetary forms (e.g., free gifts, buy one get one free, and bonus) (Chandon, 1995). The two separate types of promotions generate different functions influencing consumer perceptions of value, which is attributed to a prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Consumers, in general, have mental accounts and transactions are framed as segregated gains and integrated loses. Individuals appear to concern higher value to the risk of loss than to the amount of the pleasure associated with gaining, because the value function is steeper for losses than for gains. In this sense, sales promotion in commensurable units to the product’s price (i.e., a price discount) can be regarded as reduced losses. On the other hand, another type of promotions in less commensurable units to the product’s price (i.e., buy one get one free) can be concerned as segregated gains (Lowe & Barnes, 2012). As a result, the first aim of this research is to test the different roles of sales promotion for a hotel in consumer’s responses. Furthermore, there is another belief that sales promotion (particularly for monetary approach) does not always generate positive outcomes (Buil, de Chernatony and Montaner, 2013). Thus, this paper takes into account not only positive (i.e., perceived savings) but also negative aspects (i.e., deal retraction) when measuring consumer perceptions to different forms of sales promotion.

This study, then, assessed effects of two moderating variables on consumers’ responses to sales promotion, including an individual (i.e., gender) and situational (e.g., product-premium fit) elements. There are substantial literature demonstrating that gender shows heterogeneous information processing with regard to different attitudes toward information contents and functions sought as well as actual information search behaviors (Kim, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007). From a cognitive psychology perspective, men are likely to be more independent, confident, competitive, willing to take risks, and less prone to perceive product risk than females (Darley & Smith, 1995). Women tend to engage in greater elaboration of advertisements than did men (Kahlenberg & Hein, 2010).

It is also crucial for marketers to understand how to design effective premium-based promotion add value to a product. In this sense, appeal is more likely to be persuasive when their nature of products being promoted is a good match rather than mismatch to premium products (Palazon & Delgado-Ballester, 2013). People tend to experience cognitive inconsistency and present negative reactions when the fit is low, whereas they experience cognitive consistency and report positive reactions with a high fit (Buil, et al., 2013). In other words, matched appeals elicit more favorable attitudes, cognitive responses and purchase intentions than mismatched appeals (Palazon & Delgado-Ballester, 2013).
METHOD

This research consists of three experimental studies using different scenarios to address each research question. Specifically, the first study was designed to identify the influence of types of the hotel promotion (price discount vs free night) (Study 1); the second experiment was developed to estimate a moderating effect individual factor, gender, along with the two types of sales promotion (Study 2); and the last study was to assess a matching effect between types of hotel promotion and supplementary product (Study 3) on consumers’ responses to hotel promotion. Note that all three experimental studies took into account consumer’s positive (i.e., perceived savings) and negative (i.e., deal retraction) reactions to sales promotion. For collecting data, a series of web-based survey was carried out by using M-Turk, which focus on respondents in the United States. New York City (NYC) was selected as a tourism destination because the place includes various tourist attractions and one of the most popular destinations including numerous hotels. 

In experiment 1, 68 subjects were randomly assigned into each of hotel promotion (monetary vs. non-monetary): one with price discount (20% off of room rates) and another with an extra free night. Not only the amount of price discount and a free night were determined on the basis of market practice in the product category, but also summative (5 days) room rates between two types of promotion are indistinguishable. The subjects were then asked to indicate their responses associated with perceived savings (Chandon, Wansink, & Laurent, 2000) and deal retraction (Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, & Burton, 1990). A total of 119 subjects participated in experiment 2. The identical approach to experiment 1 was applied, but a gender variable was considered as a moderating variable. Before carrying out experiment 3, a series of pilot study was conducted to test the product-premium fit. That is, in order to select suitable premiums and check for the degree of product-premium fit, a list of 8 extra premiums (e.g., free night; free spa; free dinner; voucher of online store; movie tickets; online courses; personal insurance; mobile phone top-up package) were offered to respondents (n=15) who were asked to rate three items (“this premium is appropriate for the product”, “this premium is a logical choice for the product”, and “there is a good association between the premium and the product”) by a seven-point Likert scale (Palazon & Delgado-Ballester, 2013). As a result, the products showing the highest (free dinner: Mean fit=6.07) and the lowest (online Excel course: Mean fit=3.16) fit values were identified. In fact, the experiment employed a 2 by 2 between-subjects design: promotion types (monetary vs. non-monetary) x product-premium fit (high vs. low). 137 subjects recruited from M-Turk participated in this experiment. Note that we also checked the effects of the manipulation in the experiment and that all the results showed the significant differences between subjects who were exposed to different stimulus (p < 0.05). In order to assess potential confounding effects, travel behaviours as well as levels of knowledge/familiarity to a NYC destination were compared between those subjects who are exposed to different stimulus. All the comparisons show insignificant result, which is tolerate from the issue of response bias (p > 0.05).

FINDINGS

The result of experiment 1 reveals that pricing discount (Mmonetary promotion = 5.38) makes consumers to have more perceived savings than an extra free night (Mnon-monetary promotion = 4.82; p < 0.05). Consistently, consumers are less likely to book a hotel highlighting a free night (Mnon-monetary promotion = 4.84) than one emphasizing monetary discount (Mmonetary promotion = 4.00; p < 0.01). When estimating the interaction effect of gender from experiment 2 (see Figure 1), female tend to perceive more savings with promotion of a free night than male (Mmale = 4.94 vs. Mfemale = 5.61; p < 0.05). In contrary, male consumers are more likely to have perceived savings to the hotels offering price discount than female consumers (Mmale = 5.31 vs. Mfemale = 5.04; p < 0.05). This result is consistent with previous findings that components of online promotion are evaluated differently between gender (Phillip & Suri, 2004).
Figure 2 presents an interaction effect of ‘fit’ with types of promotions, related to the experiment 3. Specifically, the promotion of a free night is more likely to discourage consumers in booking a hotel with an unmatched premium (i.e., Excel online course) than the accommodation providing a matched product (i.e., dining) (Mun-fit=4.90vs.Mfit=4.42;p<0.05). This finding places on the same line of Palazon and Delgado-Ballester (2013).

CONCLUSION

With recognizing importance of sales promotion in the tourism and hospitality industry, this research identified effects of different types of sales promotion on online consumers’ positive (perceived savings) and negative (deal retraction) reactions. This paper also found out two important moderating factors affecting the effects of promotion types. As a result, this study provides both theoretical and practical implications. Indeed, this paper took into account not only monetary but also non-monetary promotions so that comparative importance was identified in understanding consumers’ perceptions with regard to positive and negative aspects. Furthermore, it is revealed that an individual factor (i.e., gender) plays an important role in apprehending perceived savings whereas a situational element (i.e., product-premium fit) is crucial for understanding a behavior of deal retraction.

This research suggests for marketers developing an effective promotion design. For example, non-monetary promotion, free night, is a better strategy to attract female consumers. On the other hand, price discount (monetary promotion) is recommended to appeal to male consumers. The product-premium fit would be an efficient marketing strategy in order to reduce a negative effect of promotion.

REFERENCES


THE IMPACT OF GREEN RESTAURANT ESTABLISHMENTS ON GREEN POSITIONING

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INTRODUCTION

With growing public interest in various environmental issues, green consumerism has become more prevalent (Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Kim, Njite, & Hance, 2013). To meet the customer demands for sustainable practices, companies have incorporated pro-environmental initiatives in their operations (Schubert, Kandampully, Solnet, & Kralj, 2010). The restaurant industry is no exception and has been following this trend of “going green” (Namkung & Jang, 2017). An increasing number of restaurant operators are implementing green practices to reduce their negative environmental impact (DiPietro, Gregory, & Jackson, 2013; Kwok, Huang, & Hu, 2016). Several other motivations encourage restaurant managers to implement sustainable practices, such as operational cost savings and gaining competitive advantage by improving brand image (Hopkins, Townend, Khayat, Balagopal, Reeves, & Berns, 2009).

In reality, however, sustainable practices may not be visible to customers, as most green initiatives are back-of-house activities (Kassinis & Soteriou, 2003), and thus they may not generate the positive rewards sought by operators. One way of making a restaurant’s green practices more visible to consumers is through certification from a third party (Akenji, 2014; Peiró-Signes, Segarra-Oña, Verma, Mondéjar-Jiménez, & Vargas-Vargas, 2014). To support sustainable practices in the restaurant industry, the Green Restaurant Association (GRA) established a nationally recognized certification program to encourage the systematic implementation of green practices (Green Restaurant Association, 2017). Based on its functional attributes (e.g., green practice implementation), customers may perceive a distinctive green image of a firm (Lee, Hsu, Han, & Kim, 2010). In other words, implementing green practices can serve as a positioning strategy to persuade customers to receive green practices of a brand (Hartmann, Apaolaza Ibáñez, & Forcada Sainz, 2005). Despite the potential impact of implementing green certification programs on customer perception, limited studies have explored this relationship (Peiró-Signes et al., 2014), and no relevant study has been conducted in a restaurant context.

Previous studies examined the influence of customers’ perceptions or personal values on their behavioural intention related to green practice consumption (Gao, Mattila, & Lee, 2016). However, scholars have found a discrepancy between customers’ self-reported behaviours and actual behaviors because of (1) social desirability bias, (2) competing values of restaurant attributes (e.g., cost), and (3) gap between intended and actual behaviors (Vezich, Gunter, & Lieberman, 2016). To understand customers’ perceptions more precisely, it may be necessary to capture their purchase behaviors. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to analyze customers’ perceptions toward certified green restaurants. This study adopted green restaurant certification-related information (e.g., green restaurant rating, period of implementing green practices) as a proxy for degree of green commitment.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Elaboration Likelihood Model.

Online reviews are not written in consistent or standardized formats. When deciding on the content of online reviews, customers tend to include important information based on their involvement with certain aspects of business (Park, Lee, & Han, 2007). Since people have different interests and foci when it comes to purchasing decision, online reviews shared may show differences even after they have had similar
experiences (Celsi & Olson, 1988; Chiu, Lee, & Chen, 2014; Reid & Crompton, 1993). The Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983) explains individuals’ “involvement” is the key factor for motivation people to process information. Involvement refers to the degree of a person’s perceived importance, influenced by both internal factors (e.g., individual characteristics) and external factors (e.g., products or situations) (Bloch & Richins 1983; Chiu et al., 2014; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998). In other words, people may process a salient message differently depending on their degree of involvement (Matthes, Wonneberger, & Schmuck, 2014). Hence, customers may have different degrees of recognition of green practices depending on their own green involvement, although there are cues about green practice implementation in restaurants (Nyilasy, Gangadharbatla, & Paladin, 2014).

**Green Positioning.**

Customers who are more involved in and/or experienced functionality of green practices recognize green positioning of a restaurant (Matthes et al., 2014). Iterative interactions with customers, by delivering functional attributes, are important for a firm to position as a green brand (Hartmann et al., 2005; Kalafatis, Tsogas, & Blankson, 2000). In the green restaurant context, certification standards can be a proxy for the degree of implementing green practices. Therefore, as restaurants spend more resources for green certification process, customers may be more likely to shape the green image of the firm (Lee et al., 2010). Several studies have been conducted to evaluate the effects of certification programs on the hotel industry (Kim, Li, & Brymer, 2016; Peiró-Signes et al., 2014). However, green certification programs have not been tested as a green positioning strategy to influence customer perceptions in the restaurant industry. Thus, we aim to investigate question:

*The impacts of green restaurant certification program on customers’ recognition of green practices.*

**METHOD**

This study analysed customer reviews of restaurants certified by the Green Restaurant Association (GRA). GRA provides information about certified green restaurants, such as their green ratings and the year they were certified. From 218 certified green restaurants in the U.S. listed on Yelp.com, 82,826 reviews were collected. From each customer review, the content, date, and star rating scores were gleaned along with GRA rating scores and the duration of green certification. After applying text pre-processing to the online reviews to clean data, structural topic modelling (STM) was conducted to identify latent themes. Based on quantitative results (e.g., the harmonic mean values and cohesiveness and exclusivity scores), the optimal k value was determined as 40. With 40 topics, a probabilistic distribution of words over each topic (β) and the document-topic proportions (θ) were generated following STM protocol. The top 20 words from each topic were reviewed to estimate salient themes and to create suitable topic labels. Then, correlations between prevalence of green topics and green certification information (e.g., GRA rating scores, duration of green certification) were calculated.

**KEY FINDINGS**

From the 40 topics, two topics were related to food-focused green practices (Topic 11 and 20). Topic 11 was labeled “local/organic ingredients”, and topic 20 was “vegan menu”. The relationship between GRA grade and the prevalence of both topic 11 (r = .02, p < .001) and topic 20 (r = .09, p < .001) were significant. The results indicate that customers’ recognition of both green practices have increased when the restaurants’ engagement in green practices increased. Further, the longer a restaurant has been certified as green, the higher the likelihood of topic 20 appear (r = .12, p < .001). This suggests that customers are more likely to recognize whether a restaurant provides vegan options if the restaurant has implemented green practices for a long time. However, topic 11 has an inverse relationship between topic prevalence and green initiation period (r = -.05, p < .001), suggesting that the number of reviews demonstrating customer recognition of local/organic ingredients has increased in recent years. Both green practice topics showed positive relationships with the duration of green certification.
CONCLUSION

This study is the first to explore the effectiveness of green certification programs for customers’ recognition of green practices in real-life settings. In studying certified green restaurants, we found that customers’ recognition of vegan menu options increased when the duration of green practice implementation and/or GRA ratings increased. However, for local and/or organic ingredients, the duration of a restaurant’s participation in green practices did not matter, partially because customers’ interest in the use of locally sourced ingredients in the restaurant industry has increased over the last few years. This trend is expected to continue in 2017 (National Restaurant Association, 2017). This study has several limitations. Only customer sentiments that were shared online were included in the study, so opinions that were not shared online were not considered. For better understanding of the impact of green practices on customer sentiments, we suggest that future studies also include restauranteurs’ perceptions regarding the green practices and green positioning.

Table 3. Correlations among green topic proportions and green certification scores (N = 82,862)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>GRA ratings</th>
<th>Green initiation duration</th>
<th>Gap</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T11 (Local/ organic)</td>
<td>.015***</td>
<td>-.052***</td>
<td>.013***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T20 (vegan)</td>
<td>.087***</td>
<td>.115***</td>
<td>.095***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p < .001

Figure 1. Correlations among green topic proportions and green certification scores (N = 82,862)

REFERENCE


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ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING, OPERATING COSTS AND AIRLINE CONSOLIDATION POLICY IN THE CHINESE AIRLINE INDUSTRY

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Wai Hong Kan Tsui, Massey University

INTRODUCTION

The impact of organizational learning upon an organization’s performance has been an important topic of organizational studies and management practice, as many prior studies have argued that organizational learning can affect and improve the performance of an organization, such as new product development (creativity and innovation) and the creation of a learning culture within the organization (e.g. Murray and Donegan, 2003; Yeo, 2003). Researchers have defined organizational learning in many different ways. Firstly, organizational learning is defined as “a dynamic process of creation, acquisition, and integration of knowledge aimed at the development of resources and capabilities that contribute to better organizational performance” (López, Peón and Ordás, 2005, p.228). Secondly, organizational learning occurs as an organization acquires experience (Argote, 2011; Argote and Miron-Spektor, 2011). For example, an organization’s experience can be obtained from experience of success and failure or the past (Kim, Kim and Miner, 2009). In this respect, organizations like airlines are also seen to learn from prior experience of accidents and incidents in improving flight safety (Haunschild and Sullivan, 2002). Apart from prior experience, there are other factors that may also affect the phenomenon of organizational learning throughout the learning curve, such as pre-production planning activities, time, employee training and selection (Chambers and Johnston, 2000). The conceptual arguments for the impact of organizational learning on an organization’s performance (e.g. airline performance) sound rather convincing; however, the important impact of organizational learning upon an airline’s performance during and after the completion of mergers and acquisitions has received limited attention in the aviation literature. Therefore, this paper aims to address the abovementioned issue by empirically examining whether airlines can improve their performance in the context of mergers and acquisitions. In this study, our empirical investigation will focus on the Chinese airline industry, which has seen an exhibited extensive level of horizontal merger and acquisition activities between 2001 and 2010. The recent development of the Chinese airline industry (mergers and acquisitions) is discussed in Sections 2 and 3. The Chinese airline industry is tightly regulated by the Civil Aviation Administration of China (CAAC), which has directed the major structural reforms of the Chinese airline industry. One of the key reforms was the CAAC initiated the airline consolidation policy of airline mergers and acquisitions in 2001/02 and 2010. The landscape of the Chinese airline industry has substantially been changed after the CAAC’s initiatives. With this, this study will also review whether the airline consolidation policy initiated by the CAAC has improved the organizational learning and the performance of Chinese airlines after airline mergers or acquisitions.

DATA and METHOD

In this paper, the annual unbalanced panel dataset of 12 Chinese airlines from 1996 to 2014 is used for this analysis. A total of 112 carrier-year observations are used in the study. Route-level information is unfortunately not available. Financial information about Shenzhen Airlines, Sichuan Airlines, Tianjin Airlines, and Yunnan Lucky Airlines was collected from their respective initial public offering bonds prospectus. In addition, the cumulative flights (CFLNUM), revenue passenger-kilometers (RPKs), revenue ton-kilometers of passengers and cargoes (RTKs), average flight lengths (AFL), and passenger load factor (PLOAD) data were sourced from the publications of the Statistical Data on Civil Aviation of China 2005–2014, which were
released by the China Aviation Administration of China (CAAC). The total operating cost (OC) of listed airlines was obtained from the Thompson Reuters Datastream.

The literature on organizational learning has shown that airline operations may be improved through organizational experience; for example, management could comprehend more about their business processes and employ technology to save costs (e.g. using fuel-efficient aircraft) (Argote and Miron-Spektor, 2011; Haunschild and Sullivan, 2002; López, Peón and Ordás, 2005). Under organizational learning, the airline average cost follows a fixed effect regression model:

\[ AC_{it} = \alpha_i + \beta_1 CFLNUM_{it-1} + \beta_2 MERGE_{it} + \beta_3 ACQ_{it} + \beta_4 MERFNUM_{it-1} + \beta_5 ACQFNUM_{it-1} + \beta_6 PLOAD_{it} + \beta_7 AFL_{it} + \beta_8 LIST_{it} + \sum_j \phi_j Y_{ij} + \epsilon_{it} \]  

(1)

Where ACit is the natural logarithm of the average operating costs of airline i and year t. The average operating costs of an airline are disaggregated and measured by two variables: (i) total operating costs divided by RPK (OCRPKit) and (ii) total operating costs divided by RTK (OCRTKit). \(a_i\) is the fixed-effect of airline i. \(\beta\) is the vector of the parameters. \(\epsilon_{it}\) is the error term. Total operating costs include labor costs, material costs, and administrative costs, etc. In order to remove the inflation effect, total operating costs of carriers are deflated by the national GDP deflator, GDPDt (1996 = 100), which is collected from International Financial Statistics of the International Monetary Fund. The statistical program of LIMDEP 8.0 was used for the estimation.

To measure operating experience, most of researchers in the learning curve literature use cumulative production volume. Following Lapré and Tsikriktsis (2006), we use the natural logarithm of the cumulative flight number of previous year, CFLNUMit 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.

Along with these adverse events, e.g., 9/11 in 2001 and the irrational pricing behavior exercised by Chinese airlines, the CAAC decided to revamp the Chinese airline industry and consolidated the six major state-owned airlines into the so-called ‘Big Three’ airline groups in 2002: Air China, China Eastern Airlines, and China Southern Airlines (e.g. Eaton, 2013; Lei and O’Connell, 2011; Shaw et al., 2009; Wang, Bonilla and Banister, 2015; Zhang and Round, 2008, 2009). Horizontal mergers of the ‘Big Three’ were completed in October 2002. In addition, Hainan Airlines (the fourth member of the ‘Big Four’) also merged with Changan Airlines, Shanxi Airlines, and China Xinhua Airlines in 2001. The dummy variable of MERGEit is introduced to capture the impact of airline mergers on operating costs. This takes a value of 1 for airline mergers among the ‘Big Four’ airline groups during and after 2003 and 0 otherwise. Acquisitions are also the important phenomena in China’s airline industry during the study period. For example, Air China increased its control over Shenzhen Airlines from 25% to 51% of ownership in March 2010. Shanghai Airlines was also acquired by China Eastern Airlines also in March 2010. The dummy variable of ACQit introduced to capture the effect of airline acquisitions on the operating costs of the sampled Chinese airlines. This takes a value of 1 for airline acquisitions during and after 2010 and 0 otherwise. To evaluate the post-merger performance of Chinese airlines in cost improvement, the variable of MERFNUMit-1 is introduced (i.e. a product of MERGEit and CFLNUMit-1) to measure the extent to which airline mergers in 2001/02 affected organizational learning in Chinese airlines to improve operating costs. Similarly, the variable of ACQFNUMit-1 is introduced (i.e. a product of ACQit and CFLNUMit-1) to measure the extent to which airline acquisitions in 2010 affecting organizational learning to lower operating costs.

Passenger load factor (PLOADit) is a performance indicator used to measure an airline’s capacity usage when transporting air passengers between destinations (as a percentage of available
seat capacity filled), indicating how efficiently an airline’s availability is being used (Chang and Yeh, 2001; Oum and Yu, 2012). Average flight lengths (AFLit) is measured as the total flight hours of airline i in year t divided by its total flight numbers in the same year. Listed status in stock exchanges affects its performance dimensions (Backx, Carney and Gedajlovic, 2002). Considering that airline activity involves the provision of air passenger and air cargo transportation between destinations, this study also further develops two alternative cumulative production variables: (i) cumulative RPK (CRPKit-1) and (ii) cumulative RTK (CRTKit-1). Therefore, equation (3) can be rewritten as Equations (2) and (3):

\[
AC_u = \alpha_i + \beta_1CRPK_{it-1} + \beta_2MERGE + \beta_3ACQ_{it} + \beta_4MERCRTK_{it-1} \\
+ \beta_5ACQCRPK_{it-1} + \beta_6PLOAD_{it} + \beta_7AFL_{it} + \beta_8\text{LIST}_i + \sum_j \phi_j Y_{it} + \epsilon_u
\]

\[
AC_u = \alpha_i + \beta_1CRTK_{it-1} + \beta_2MERGE + \beta_3ACQ_{it} + \beta_4MERCRTK_{it-1} \\
+ \beta_5ACQCRTK_{it-1} + \beta_6PLOAD_{it} + \beta_7AFL_{it} + \beta_8\text{LIST}_i + \sum_j \phi_j Y_{it} + \epsilon_u
\]

1. Air China includes Air China, China Southwest Airlines, and CNAC. China Eastern Airlines includes China Eastern Airlines, China Northwest Airlines, China Yunnan Airlines, and Wuhan Airlines. China Southern Airlines includes China Southern Airlines, China Northern Airlines, and China Xinjiang Airlines.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Our empirical results show that there was, in general, organizational learning from their prior operating experience by Chinese airlines towards improving their operating costs. In addition, this study revealed that airline mergers and acquisitions have had different significant effects on Chinese airlines’ operating costs. Airline mergers in 2001/02 increased Chinese airlines’ operating costs. The evidence of Chinese airlines’ poor performances during airline mergers is actually not surprising if we review the nature of airline mergers in the Chinese aviation industry, as the CAAC played a crucial role in initiating and facilitating the processes of airline mergers among the state-owned Chinese airlines during 2001/02 (Chow, 2010; Zhang and Round, 2009). This prominent overhaul of the Chinese airline industry was just a result of the top-down government decisions rather than strategies and business motives being initiated by Chinese airlines. As expected, airline mergers in China’s airline industry generated much fewer economic benefits for the airlines involved than airline mergers and acquisitions initiated by the private sectors in other countries. Significantly, the performance improvement among Chinese airlines was found during the post-merger periods. However, this study found that Chinese airlines could not significantly improve their performance during the post-acquisition period through organizational learning from their prior operating experience and that of their partners. This particularly highlights that the increase in Chinese airlines’ operating costs during the post-acquisition periods mainly due to the limited integration of 2010 acquisition compared with the 2001/02 mergers in the Chinese airline industry.

REFERENCES


FOOD TOURISM POTENTIAL BASED ON SUFFICIENCY ECONOMY AGRICULTURE IN CHOM CHAENG VILLAGE, THAILAND

Amnaj Khaokhrueamuang, Wakayama University

INTRODUCTION

Food travel in rural communities can be performed the variety of activities through the integration of other tourism forms. In Thailand, currently there are more than 150 rural villages operate their own tourism business within the concept of Community- Based Tourism (CBT) (Khaokhrueamuang, 2014a). And most of the food serving in CBT is from their farm which relies on the self-sufficiency agriculture, generally known as Sufficiency Economy Agriculture (SEA). The SEA allows farmers to become self-sufficient, self-reliant, and frugal in sustainable natural resources management which tied to the cultivation of diversified crops for consumption and production (Khaokhrueamuang, 2014b). Chom Chaeng village in Chiang Mai province is one of Thailand's rural communities implementing the SEA, and the villagers want to run green tourism business. However, many small tourism enterprises fail due to not enough in doing research or planning before they set up their business. So, the community wants to make sure that if it decides to go into tourism, the enterprise is likely to be successful (Fausnaugh et al., 2004). The aim of this study, therefore, is to assess the potential of community resources toward food tourism development based on the implementation of SEA in Chom Chaeng village to support the success of the village's green tourism business.

METHOD

The potential assessment of food tourism in Chom Chaeng village was an analysis of food-related community resources based on the SEA. The assessment was taken by farmer interviews, the field observation, and the questionnaire survey. The interviews conducted to three farmers who implemented the SEA for understanding the agricultural practice and the diversity of agricultural products. The field observation was taken obviously with locals in the three types of land-use; the agricultural area, the community forest, and the residential area for two days by using the resource audit, photographing, and mapping as recording tools. The survey was employed to the tourism stakeholders associated with five locals and five outsiders on their opinions about the potential of community resources toward food tourism development based on the implementation of SEA. The average scores assessed by tourism stakeholders represent three levels of food tourism potential. The mean scores between 8.0 and 10.0 indicate the reasonable degree of food tourism development. Scores range from 5.0 to 7.9 interpreting the sufficient magnetism to attract tourists. Scores 0.0 to 4.9 are the lack of potential in developing food tourism business. The potential of food tourism development assessed by the tourism stakeholders was compared with the analyzed data from interviews and the field observation by the SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats).

FINDINGS

1. Food-related community resources based on the SEA

The agricultural system based on the SEA in Chom Chaeng village started in 2001 after the San Pa Tong Community Development Office had established the learning center of Sufficiency Economy for the villagers. During the project, some farmers applied the SEA concept to practice in their farms by dividing the land into four parts in the ratio of 30:30:30:10 as the so-called "the New Theory," which is the agricultural system of integrated farming. After ending the project, many farmlands have been reformed for producing diversified crops resulting from the implementation of SEA. However, the former system of crop rotation has still been practiced in the paddy field, namely, planting the onion and rapeseed in the cool season, cultivating soybeans to fertilize soils in the dry season. Furthermore, the rotation crops have also been planted in the spaces...
of longan plots. Mostly grown edible plants with longan are mixed fruit, vegetables, and herbs. Also, the orchard area has been retained for the pond to store water using in the dry season and to raise the aquatic animals. The diversified crops and animals can generate the self-sufficiency food for consumption and sales throughout the year. Furthermore, the SEA also involves with the community forest conservation providing sources of various seasonal local food.

2. The assessment of food tourism potential

Ten tourism stakeholders who were five key informants of Chom Chaeng village and five outsiders living and working outside the village gave the opinions to assess the potential of food-related community resources. The evaluated resources consist of four aspects: natural, cultural, built, and human resource features with five questions in each aspects (see the questions in Table 1). The rating scale of zero to five was used with six meaning: strongly agree (5), agree (4), somewhat agree (3), somewhat disagree (2), disagree (1), and strongly disagree (0). The characteristics of each community resource and the points they scored out of 25. The mean value score of the potential assessment of Chom Chane was 8.42 (see Table 2) which indicated that the village appeared to have a reasonable level of food tourism development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lists of the resource audit</th>
<th>Local Assessment</th>
<th>Outsider Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The natural resources and agricultural landscape are distinctive and attract visitors.</td>
<td>4 4 5 5 4 3 4 4 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plenty of seasonal edible plants for tourist cooking and local consuming such as mushroom, bamboo, and herbs.</td>
<td>5 5 5 5 5 4 5 5 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plenty of sources of protein for tourist cooking and local consuming such as fish, frog, shrimp, and red ant eggs.</td>
<td>4 4 5 4 4 3 5 5 4 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The irrigation systems (river, canal, pond etc.) facilitate the activities of agritourism and food tourism, for example, catching aquatic animals in the river, picking the local vegetables in the ditch.</td>
<td>3 4 5 3 4 3 5 5 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximity to the other natural tourist attractions that can be linked to the trip.</td>
<td>3 4 5 4 4 4 3 5 5 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 25</td>
<td>19 21 25 21 21 18 21 24 21 20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are attractive indigenous sites such as temples, and historical buildings.</td>
<td>3 4 5 4 4 3 4 3 4 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are attractive agricultural products and lifestyles attribute to the sufficiency economy agriculture.</td>
<td>4 5 5 4 5 4 5 4 3 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are natural and cultural conservation programs such as forest growing, irrigation ditch constructing, handicraft making, musical and traditional dance performing.</td>
<td>5 5 5 5 5 5 5 4 4 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are interesting examples of traditional equipment for farming and cooking that can be used to offer visitors understanding the food culture.</td>
<td>3 4 5 5 4 3 5 5 4 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a unique Lanna cuisine or local food that is considered to be of great interest to tourists or foodies.</td>
<td>4 5 5 3 5 3 5 5 4 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19 23 25 21 23 18 24 21 19 19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Lists of the resource audit

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Built</th>
<th>Local Assessment</th>
<th>Outsider Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electricity is available to all households and public roads.</td>
<td>5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5</td>
<td>5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient water is available to meet the extra demands for tourist use.</td>
<td>5 5 5 4 5 5 4 2 4 4</td>
<td>5 4 2 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The sewerage treatment facilities are sufficient for the demands of villagers and prospective tourists.</td>
<td>4 4 5 4 4 3 4 2 4 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roads and pathways are well maintained, and there is a space for parking.</td>
<td>4 4 5 3 4 5 4 4 4 4</td>
<td>4 4 3 4 4 4 4 4 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House or farmhouse is available to be gentrified as accommodation for homestay or farmstay.</td>
<td>3 4 5 1 4 3 3 2 3 3</td>
<td>3 3 2 3 3 3 3 3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>21 22 25 17 22 21 20 15 20 20</td>
<td>21.4 19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human</th>
<th>Local Assessment</th>
<th>Outsider Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The village leaders have a good vision toward food tourism development.</td>
<td>4 4 5 4 5 4 3 2 4 4</td>
<td>4 3 2 4 4 4 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The villagers have the necessary interpersonal and hospitality skills required to operate the tourism business.</td>
<td>4 5 5 4 5 4 4 4 4 4</td>
<td>4 4 4 4 4 4 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmers have the skills necessary to effectively interpret and describe the sufficiency economy agricultural practice.</td>
<td>3 4 5 5 4 4 4 5 4 4</td>
<td>3 4 5 4 4 4 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The villagers have the skills to demonstrate and interpret how to cook Thai food or Lanna cuisine for visitors.</td>
<td>4 5 5 4 5 3 4 5 4 4</td>
<td>4 5 4 4 4 4 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is a person who can teach the art related food decoration such as fruit and vegetable carving, Lanna style dinner table setting.</td>
<td>4 4 5 3 4 2 4 5 4 4</td>
<td>4 4 5 4 4 4 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19 22 25 20 23 17 19 21 20 19</td>
<td>19.2 19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Table 2. The mean value score of community resources toward food tourism potential

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource Features</th>
<th>Local Assessment</th>
<th>Outsider Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Natural resources</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cultural resources</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Built resources</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Human resources</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net resource characteristic scores</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>7.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean value = 8.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IMPLICATION

SWOT analysis evaluated the tourism potentiality and guided the strategic plan for the food tourism promotion in rural communities. Taking into account the Strengths (S) and Opportunities (O), the location of the village advantages the development of food trials for cycling due to the proximity to the city. The proposed guideline results from the variety of agricultural products from the farming system of SEA and the seasonal food from the community forest, including trends in cycling that is fashionable for Thai nationals. And due to the global trend of slow life and slow travel in the condition of sustainable tourism (Fullagar et al., 2012), biking in the outskirts of Chiang Mai is also favorable in groups of international cyclists. Promoting food trials to support this trend can additionally be synergized by healthy seasonal food programs and exciting food events (Getz et al., 2014).

One of the competitive benefits of community resource for promoting food trials and food events includes longan and onion. These commercial crops can provide the unique food and
beverage products of the village such as longan rice or noodle, sweet sticky rice with longan and coconut cream, longan juice, longan cookies, and local salad or soup from the onion. Like other food festivals or food events, these created cuisines can promote in the harvesting seasons with the program of longan picking as a fruit buffet or pick-your-own farm. Developing longan products such a fruit picking program comply with the notion of Takuya (2010) that it extends the distribution channel through introducing city residents to the tourism element of farm operation which provides sufficient revenues in addition to sustaining agricultural activities and maintaining the rural landscape. Besides agricultural products and seasonal food generated from the agricultural and forest systems which considered as a natural resource, other types of community resources are also the competitive advantages which can integrate with the various forms of niche tourism into food tourism as the creation of healthy food cluster. This program can connect with other tourism activities such as cooking, cycling, herbal sauna taking, dining with the traditional music, and staying overnight at homestays. These activities also stimulate the urban-rural economic revitalization in which Thai cooking schools and rural villages can be interactive and strengthen the business collaboration. As Singsomboon (2013) states on his research findings that one of the weaknesses of Thailand’s culinary tourism promotion is the lack of cooperation, network or association among Thai culinary tourism entrepreneurs which mostly clustered in major tourist areas.

On the other hand, promoting the scheme of food tourism in the village may be affected by the utilization of some chemical substances outside the area of SEA. This Weakness (W) can find on producing a large sum of longan and rice for trading. Meanwhile, the Threat (T) of an uncontrolled chemical fertilizer and pesticide absorption through the irrigation systems from the non-practical SEA area of nearby villages may effect to the cleanliness and safety of food produced in the area. As a result, in planning the food tourism strategy, creating the value added of food products through healthy food cluster development is a crucial consideration. However, when considering SWOT, the competitive advantages from the Strengths (S) are much more. This analysis, therefore, assumes that community resources in Chom Chaeng village have a high potential for food tourism development, which conforms to the result of the assessment made by tourism stakeholders.

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ALTERNATIVE WINTER TOURISM ACTIVITIES: HOW DESTINATIONS ADAPT TO OTHER ACTIVITIES THAN SKIING

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ABSTRACT

Many destinations around the world make money out of winter tourism, specifically from skiing activity. However, global warming and climate change force these destinations to consider upon another non-snow related activities in winter or all-year activities. Among these activities, ice holiday tourism, thermal tourism and gastronomy take particular attention. The paper initiates to discuss these activities through various examples in the world in a theoretical manner together with real world reflections. Starting with presentation of previous literature, the paper will consider how different destinations at a global scale are seeking for adaptation to other type of activities in the face of global warming. Then, alternative activities for winter tourism will be presented in detail. Finally, this paper concludes that alternatives are still presents for the destinations suffering from the loss of revenue due to global warming as well as destinations looking for diversifying their activities in order to attract more tourists.

Keywords: Winter Tourism, Ice Hotel Village, Thermal Tourism, Gastronomy, Climate Change

INTRODUCTION

Winter tourism is one of the key sources of income, providing economic growth especially for rural areas in various parts of world, including Switzerland (Koenig & Abegg, 1997), Austria (Breiling, 1998; Breiling & Charamza, 1999) and other European Alps such as Germany, Italy and France (Abegg et. al. 2007), Sweden (Brouder & Lundmark, 2011), Norway (Teigland, 2003; O’Brien et. al., 2006; Sygna et. al., 2004; Aall et. al., 2005), Finland (Falk & Vieru, 2016; Haanpää, et. al., 2015) and Canada (Scott et. al, 2003). Although various activities can be offered by tourism agencies as a part of winter tourism, the common sense of people is tend to equalize winter tourism with skiing activity. In reality, winter tourism changes its shape and there is a shift from skiing activity to alternative winter tourism activities (Elsasser & Bürki, 2002).

The threat of climate change led many destinations to consider upon alternatives to classical winter tourism activities (O’Brien et. al., 2006). Global warming has caused lack of snow for skiing activities and put many people who make money out of winter tourism in danger. Since stakeholders in these destinations need to maintain their income, some decided to cancel ski tourism altogether, some decided to develop new techniques in order to maintain skiing facilities and some decided to facilitate other seasonal activities, rather than merely focusing on ski tourism. The fear of climate change and global warming, together with international competition, have been used as the key arguments for constructing artificial snow-making facilities but these are not sufficient precautions for the sustainability of winter tourism (Elsasser & Bürki, 2002). Adaptation strategies regarding to the alternatives to ski tourism due to climate change are generally placed upon non-snow related activities in winter and all-year tourism (Elsasser & Bürki, 2002).

Other than skiing, there are numerous, weather independent activities that can be offered by tourism agencies in order to support the business and reduce the snow-reliance of the resorts such as congress, educational and health tourism (Abegg et. al., 2007). The examples of winter-specific tourism activities can be varied as Northern Lights (Aurora Borealis) activities; snowmobiling; arctic animal safaris and excursions including reindeer, husky, elk, wolverine, lynx, penguin, wolves, brown bear or polar bear; ice fishing (more information can be found at https://www.laplandsafaris.com); and traveling to view fjords and glaciers (Teigland, 2003).

In this paper, three alternatives of winter
tourism activities to skiing in three different destinations will be presented. First, Ice Holiday Village will be the main focus, and specifically ice holiday accommodations in Lapland/Finland will be discussed. Next, thermal tourism facilities will be considered through the examples in Baden Baden / Germany. Lastly, the place of gastronomy will be covered with the specific examples in North European countries.

**Ice Holiday Village and Lapland**

To begin with, Ice Hotel Village can be considered as a good example of alternative winter tourism activities, along with building “a strong brand identity and image through their preferences of cooperators with similar brand images” (Kulluvaara & Tornberg, 2003:1). Recently, technology has allowed destinations to create ice-architectures such as hotels, bars, and even villages. In general, these ice holiday villages present in the countries in northern part of the world, which is closer to Arctic Circle, including Norway, Sweden, Finland, Denmark, Iceland, Greenland, Scotland, Svalbard and Canada. Furthermore, there are also places in Central and East Europe which offer tourists the experience of staying in ice hotels and spend time in igloos for different activities, such as Hotel of Ice in Balea Lac / Romania and Eskimska Vas in Slovenia (more details can be found at https://www.nordicvisitor.com).

In general, the activities in ice hotel and villages go hand in hand with gastronomic experiences, since tourism agencies combines the local dishes and traditional beverages with staying in a different place experience to attract more tourists. However, the impact of gastronomy in creating alternatives for ski tourism will be discussed in the Gastronomy section in more detail.

As a unique culture of Finland, Lappish culture offers an amazing experience for tourists with traditional dress and culinary delights, providing services with some enhancements in order to satisfy the needs of luxury travelers (Hallott, 2013). Clean and simple designs that inspired by Finnish nature (minimalism) differentiate Lapland from most destinations and correct marketing appeals to visitors of all budgets (Hallott, 2013).

Ice hotel/bar is a popular experience in Lapland (Hallott, 2013). Since the beginning of 1992, Lapland inhabitants provide igloos from ice and snow for touristic purposes, such as in Jukkasjärvi / Swedish Lapland (Berg, 1998; Gough, 2013), Kemi and Rovainemi (Rahman, 2014), Jakka (Gough, 2013) and so on. Three recent examples of ice hotel village in Finnish Lapland will be useful to discuss how these facilities offer tourists an astonishing experience and appear as the candidates to become an alternative for winter tourism based on skiing activity.

Starting with the Hotel Kakslauttanen Igloo Village in Saariselka / Finland, it has been built in 1973 (Yu, 2011). The hotel offers visitors either a glass or a snow igloo. While snow igloos provides a peaceful, quiet environment surrounded by snow walls, glass igloos made by frost-resistant thermal glass offers marvelous sight of northern lights as well as the sky with full of stars. Furthermore, visitors may enjoy with ice sculpture gallery, try this craft by themselves, and even request a personal sculpture for decorating their igloo. For families with children, the facility also offers a visit to Santa Claus House, where kids may enjoy with hot drinks and ginger biscuits (more information can be found at (http://www.fodors.com/news/photos/worlds-10-cool-est-ice-hotels#!2-hotel-kakslauttanen-igloo-village)).

Every winter, these snow and glass igloos along with snow chapel and ice bar have been built and the facility is open from December / January period until the end of April (Yu, 2011). Efforts for setting up long-term marketing strategies help Hotel Kakslauttanen Igloo Village to improve its revenues and become an important facility in newly emerging but highly competitive ice hotel and village market (Yu, 2011).

Snow Village Finland in Kittilä / Finland can be given as the second example of ice hotel village tourism in Finnish Lapland. It has been decorated with intricate ice carvings, surrounded by snow tunnels with colorful lights from where guests may enter on snowmobiles. Moreover, there are log cabins, containing a 3-floor log castle less than 2 miles away from this ice village which offers visitors a forest-free night’s sleep. The opportunity for numerous exciting activities is provided by Snow Village, including husky-drawn ride, moonlight reindeer safari, traditional Lappish ceremony, Ice
Karting as well as Gondola Sauna where visitors can enjoy warm sauna lift as it glides over the enclosing mountains (more information can be found at http://www.fodors.com/news/photos/worlds-10-coolest-ice-hotels#15-snow-village-finland). Combining with different types of activities, Snow Village Finland creates an alternative in winter tourism, especially for those who get tired of skiing every winter period.

Snow Castle of Kemi, located outside of the main city (Honkanen, 2002), is a destination for astonishing ice sculptures and frozen beauty. For 19 years, it has been built in different architectural style in every season and it takes around six weeks to construct a proper ice castle. The SnowRestaurant in Snow Castle provides meal on ice tables, particularly the specialties such as cream of smoked reindeer soup, filet of reindeer with game sauce and lingonberries, as will be discussed in Gastronomy section in more detail. Furthermore, the Snow Castle contains the SnowChapel in which marriage ceremonies can be arranged. Lastly, various shows may take place at the castle’s snow stage (more detail can be found at http://www.fodors.com/news/photos/worlds-10-coolest-ice-hotels#17-the-snowcastle-of-kemi).

Together with the detailed descriptions of three ice hotel resorts in Finnish Lapland, one can claim that ice hotel village tourism has already become a significant area in winter tourism. While offering tourists a different accommodation experience, it presents a selection of traditional and modern leisure activities, which maximizes the satisfaction of tourists during their winter holidays. In the next section, thermal tourism will be discussed as an alternative for winter tourism.

**Thermal Tourism and Germany**

The word “spa” is claimed to originate from the Walloon word “espa” meaning fountain (Calin, 1987) after the discovery of thermal spring in a Belgian town Spa in 14th century (van Tubergen & van der Linden, 2002). Moreover, there are claims regarding to the origin of word, such as Latin word “spagere” meaning “to scatter, to sprinkle, to moisten” and some even argue that it can be an acronym of the Latin phrase “sanitas per aquas” implying “health through water” (Croutier, 1992). Although the word spa is currently used in Britain, other European countries prefer to use “thermal waters” (van Tubergen & van der Linden, 2002).

Historically, thermal spas are one of the oldest and most basic use of geothermal energy (Erdeli et. al., 2011), dating back to Bronze age around 3000 BC. Throughout the history, many cultures have realized the benefits of thermal spas to health. For example, American Indians considered thermal spas as a sacred place of healing. Moreover, Europeans and Japanese embraced medically supervised treatment by the use of these thermal spas. Globally, more than 60 countries offer thermal spas and around 8,000,000 visitors visit to thermal springs annually (Hoheb, 2015).

Pollmann (2005) reviews the activities of the International Spa Association and identifies seven different types of spas (as cited in Hall, 2011). These are:

1. **Club spa.** Main purpose is fitness, spa services on a daily use basis.
2. **Cruise ship spa.** Fitness, wellness, spa cuisine menu preferences and other type of spa services aboard a cruise ship.
3. **Day spa.** Spa services provided on a daily use basis.
4. **Destination spa.** On-site accommodation, spa cuisine, spa services, educational programming and physical fitness provided to improve lifestyle and health enhancement of visitors.
5. **Medical spa.** Integrated spa services along with conventional and complementary therapies and treatments in order to offer wellness and medical care, such as hospitals that provide spa treatments.
6. **Mineral spring spa.** Traditional spa with an on-site source of mineral, thermal or seawater used for hydrotherapy treatments.
7. **Resort/hotel spa.** Fitness, wellness, spa cuisine menu preferences and other type of spa services provided by and located within a resort or hotel.

The key European tourism centers continually implement new alternative and modern trends for thermal spas based on classic and traditional therapy programs, which include Indian, Chinese and Oriental therapeutic methods (Radnic et. al., 2009). The most visited destinations for thermal spa tourism in Europe can be listed as
Germany, Italy, France, Austria, Switzerland, Czech republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Slovenia, Finland, Romania, Turkey (Radnic et. al., 2009) and Vojvodina / Serbia (Košić et. al., 2011), apart from Australia (Bennett et. al., 2004) and Taiwan (Lin & Matzarakis, 2008).

Germany hosts approximately 1000 wellness and beauty hotels and 350 quality-certified health resorts and spas (more information can be found at http://www.germany.travel/en/leisure-and-recreation/health-wellness) including mineral and mud spas, climate health resorts, sea-side resorts, and Kneipp hydrotherapy spa resorts, mostly located around Baden-Baden with its hot mineral spring (Radnic et. al., 2009). Furthermore, approximately 40% of tourism overnight stays have been realized in thermal spas alone, highlighting the importance of German thermal spa resorts (Radnic et. al., 2009). Germany is also an important destination for wellness tourism, specific qualifications for wellness hotels attract large tour operators and hotel chains to invest in this market (Puczkó & Bachvarov, 2006).

Baden-Baden appears as the prominent destination for spa resort with a tradition dating back over 2000 years. Currently, there are twelve thermal springs in Baden-Baden full of therapeutic powers, bubbling up from 2000 meters below the ground and containing important minerals such as lithium, magnesium, cobalt, zinc and copper. In order to be protected against numerous illnesses including cardiovascular, rheumatic and joint disorder, tourists from all around the world prefer to come Baden-Baden and bathe in its restorative waters (more information can be found at http://www.germany.travel/en/leisure-and-recreation/health-wellness/spas-and-health-resorts/mineral-and-thermal-springs/baden-baden.html).

Combining medical treatment with leisure time activity, thermal tourism specifically takes the attention of older people who enjoy the opportunity of health tourism. However, thermal tourism and spa facilities are not limited to seniors. Tourists from any age may wish to enjoy the benefits of various kinds of mineral in hot tubes while watching the snow during winter season. Therefore, thermal tourism can be considered as a healthy alternative for winter tourism.

Gastronomy and Northern Europe

One of the most important tourism activities that take place without the seasonal limit is gastronomic tourism. In all periods of the year, tourists may taste different kind of foods and beverages from various cuisines from all around the world. While gastronomic experience is generally considered as an integral part of touristic activity of all types, as it has been previously mentioned in Ice Hotel Village section, there may be separate activities solely based on gastronomic tourism, for instance, traditional food festivals, wine tasting experiences such as Route de Vin and so on.

The reason why gastronomic experience is highlighted in certain destinations with a special care for the quality of food is basically appreciation increases as the number of substitutes decreases. It is a fact that food and beverage taste better when there are no other attractions. For example, in summer season, tourists are generally attracted by sun, sand and sea. There are various activities that are offered to tourists, therefore quality of food and beverage is the target neither for tourism agencies nor for tourists themselves. On the other hand, during winter season, the focus of attraction shifts from outside activities to indoor offerings. Since the satisfaction derived from outside activities in winter season cannot compensate with the activities in summer season, tourism agencies or stakeholders should create a difference by the means of local and traditional properties. As a result, local cuisine and traditional beverages appear as an important source of touristic revenues and moreover, the quality of taste and aesthetic of presentation constitute an indispensable part of gastronomic culture, especially in the destinations where winter season is significantly longer compared to other destinations, such as Northern Europe.

An example of Northern Europe potential for gastronomy-based winter tourism will be as following: Chaîne des Rotisseurs is an international association of gastronomy, established in over 80 countries globally, bringing together enthusiasts value the concept of quality, fine dining, the encouragement of culinary arts and the pleasures of dishes. Regardless of their profession, professionals and amateurs come together from all over the world in the appreciation of fine cuisine (more can be found at
http://www.chainedesrotisseurs.com). It is interesting that Finland with 5.5 million inhabitants has more members in Chaîne des Rotisseurs than France with 66 million inhabitants as well as the origin of this association. Even this example shows that how Northern European countries have appreciate the importance of gastronomy than any other destinations in the world.

As it has been discussed in Ice Hotel Village section, Northern Europe also offers specialties mostly on meat of local animals, including reindeer, elk, or fish indigenous to Northern Europe fauna along with cocktails and alcoholic beverages with various flavors and spices, such as hot wines, whiskeys, etc. Traditionally, inhabitants in Northern Europe could not have been relying on farming due to cold weather conditions, but instead, they harvest their food by fishing and hunting. Thus, the traditional cuisine have been shaped around this meat culture and drinks to keep body temperature up, which lure hundreds of thousands of people to visit Northern Europe every year.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, climate change represents a new challenge for tourism, and particularly for winter tourism (Elsasser & Bürki, 2002). Yet, there are numerous alternatives that take place instead of skiing, which is highly dependent on seasonal conditions such as snow-making. Generally, people are looking for adaptation strategies and transition from conventional winter tourism activities to the creative ones would be the less costly, since the tourists may be easily attracted with any combination of local tastes and distinctive experience.

Furthermore, destinations should reconsider their potentials for attracting tourists, such as natural resources for thermal tourism, which is both non-snow tourism and all-season tourism type activity. After detecting a potential for thermal resources, locals and government bodies should act together, for instance, while government protects the rights of locals to engage in thermal tourism or tourism-related activities, it should also encourage investors to build thermal hotels, spa centers and saunas, which, in turn, will contribute to the economy of all country with a small intervention of market dynamics, such as providing subsidies or tax-cuts for these investors.

All in all, winter tourism has been suffering from global warming and climate change and inhabitants in these destinations will be looking for the options to maintain their income. Strategies with respect to enhancing tourism activities in particular winter tourism destinations must be planned by the participation of every agent in the economy and serve the benefit of the society as a whole. Otherwise, the attempt for creating alternatives would not be sustainable and many people would be obliged to cancel this market, leading the loss of opportunity for spending leisure time during winter season.

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DATA VISUALIZATION FOR BIG DATA: COMPARISON OF THREE TEXT ANALYSIS TOOLS

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is a data rich domain and the tourism industry is one of the core areas where effective use of data analytics can change the way business is done. Tourism businesses have recognized the importance of big data analysis, but they face an incredible volume and variety of data to work with. Although the amount of data available today is increasing exponentially, organizations easily get confused by the complexity of data. Data visualization makes huge amounts of data more accessible and understandable and helps to communicate complex information more accurately and effectively. Therefore, this study attempts to discuss how to utilize user-generated data in the tourism industry by comparing the results of three text analysis tools.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is a data rich domain and the tourism industry is one of the core areas where effective use of data analytics can change the way business is done. Tourists leave a data trail from the moment even before they decide to travel until after they finish their trip. Tourism businesses have recognized the importance of big data analysis, but they face an incredible volume and variety of data to work with. Big Data is generally defined as “enormous amounts of unstructured data produced by high-performance applications falling in a wide and heterogeneous family of application scenarios: from scientific computing applications to social networks, from e-government applications to medical information systems, and so forth” (Cuzzocrea, Song, & Davis, 2011, p.101). Big data analysis represents a sea change in how we can access this treasure trove of knowledge.

These huge volumes of data include various types such as text, picture, video, audio and web log. In particular, as social media and user-generated content on the Internet has grown dramatically (Browning, et al., 2013; Xiang, et al., 2015), tourism organizations such as destination marketing/management organizations (DMOs), hotels, and distribution channels are trying to utilize user-generated data to expand their knowledge of target markets in order to maintain loyal customers and to identify opportunities to attract new customers. Pan, et al. (2007) stated that online user-generated reviews are an important source of information to travelers and Ye, et al. (2009) found a significant relationship between online consumer reviews and the business performance of hotels. However, as the amount of data available today is increasing exponentially, organizations easily get confused by the complexity of data. Data visualization makes huge amounts of data more accessible and understandable and helps to communicate complex information more accurately and effectively. Therefore, this study attempts to discuss how to utilize user-generated data in the tourism industry by comparing the results of three text analysis tools.

Identifying the factors that lead to customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction is the initial step for hotels to generate more demand and improve their financial performance (Sparks & Browning, 2011). In particular, identifying the determinants of customer dissatisfaction is important, because they are different than those that lead to customer satisfaction (Gu & Ryan, 2008) and dissatisfied customers tend to the service provider and they tend to voice their dissatisfaction to release tension (Szymanski & Henard, 2001). Therefore, this study focused on negative review comments on Expedia.com,
which is the world’s largest Online Travel Agency by number of bookings.

**METHOD**

We retrieved online hotel reviews on Expedia.com; customers’ negative reviews (rated as 1 and 2 out of 5) were collected in order to understand customers’ dissatisfactory experience. All 5-star hotels in Hong Kong and London were selected as the population of this study’s sample because the two cities are rated as the top two major international destinations across the world according to the Top 100 city destinations ranking (Euromonitor International, 2016): 97 hotels in London and 23 hotels in Hong Kong were selected for data collection. In total, 1,107 reviews from 5-star hotels in London and 388 reviews from 5-star hotels in HK were collected and used for data analysis. For data visualization analyses, three text analysis tools, (i.e., Voyant Links, KH Coder-co-occurrence network, and Wordwanderer) were used and the results from each analytic tool were compared.

**FINDINGS**

First, Voyant Links provides initial information about data; the data in the corpus of Hong Kong 5-star hotels includes 25,031 total words and 3,254 unique word forms. Most frequent words in the corpus are identified: room (407); hotel (402); service (120); stay (116); staff (110); good (100); star (63-5); location (56); small (47); time (20); like (16), check (15); and rooms (13). The colors of words recognized in both green and red indicate the frequency of linkages between words in two ways. Words in green have higher frequency than those in red, in this case for example, the word ‘room’ has linkages 8; hotel (8); service (7); good (6); stay (5); staff (5); star (5); small (5) are colored in green, while check (4); location (2); time (1); like (1), and rooms (1) are in red. The results as displayed in Figure 1, the size of each term indicates the frequency of a term in the corpus and thickness of line specifies the strength of the relationship between two words.

![Figure 1. Linkages of keywords in the online reviews of 5-star hotels in Hong Kong and London](image)

For 5-star hotels in London, 100,895 total words and 6,793 unique word forms are identified. Most frequent words in the corpus are room (1579); hotel (1525); staff (446); star (417); service (365). As presented in Figure 2 with the 15 level of context, ‘room’ is the most highlighted keyword. In particular, ‘room’ is mostly related to ‘hotel’, followed by ‘service’, ‘small’, ‘staff’, ‘location’, ‘stay’, ‘got’, ‘friendly’, ‘helpful’, and ‘rude’.

Second, the results of the KH coder are displayed in Figure 2. For 5-star hotels in HK, while ‘room’ is the most frequently mentioned keyword, followed by ‘hotel’, the result shows that the most centered keyword is ‘time’ as shown in darker pink than the other two keywords. Except for ‘time’, ‘room’, ‘hotel’, ‘staff’ and ‘day’, the other words in blue specify the lower degree of centrality in the co-occurrence networks. Moreover, the analysis of ‘communities between’ shows 10 different themes. For 5-star hotels in London, ‘room’ is the most frequently mentioned keyword followed by ‘hotel’. In addition, the two keywords are the most centered terms, followed by ‘night’, ‘tell’, and ‘stay’, while ‘staff’ is neutral showing in white. Only eight themes are identified for dissatisfied experiences in the 5-star hotels in London.
Third, keyword outputs from WordWanderer are presented in Figure 3 and 4. As other tools previously shown, ‘hotel’ and ‘room’ are shown to be the most frequently mentioned words. In order to investigate the concordance outcome of a negative term with others, the two negative terms ‘disappointing’ and ‘bad’ are selected to be compared. The major strength of this tool is to help researchers to recognize the reasons why consumers have felt ‘disappointing’. In addition, WordWanderer provides a particular relationship between two words. The function provides with the related common keywords between “bad” and “experience” in the reviews of 5-star hotels in London.

Customer online reviews in the hospitality and tourism industry have gained increasing attention recently from both researchers and practitioners (Schuckert, Liu, & Law, 2015). However, there has been little discussion about how to analyze these reviews. The main objective of the present study is to visually understand unsatisfactory experiences at 5-star hotels in both Hong Kong and London via visualization analytical tools. Visual data exploration helps the user to be directly involved in the data mining process (Keim, 2002). While the technology and capacity to collect and store large data grow rapidly, the ability to analyze these data volumes increases at much lower pace. Although a large number of information visualization techniques have been developed over the last decade to support the exploration of large data sets, they are not applied and tested in the academic literature. We discovered that each tool has its own way of presenting visual outcomes and practitioners or researchers should recognize the strengths and weaknesses of each tool.

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HYBRID REVENUE FORECASTING SYSTEM FOR INTERNATIONAL HOTELS

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ABSTRACT

Hotel industry is emerging sector which is actively supported by the government. Managers have to making critical decisions daily about when to make rooms available and at what price for customers, to maximize revenue. Hotel revenue management systems are characterized by uncertainty in their dynamics, making hotel revenue management forecasting very difficult and costly in financial terms. This study proposes a method for forecasting hotel revenue for Taiwanese international hotels. The proposed international hotel revenue management forecast approach is based on quantitative models, and does not incorporate management expertise. This study applies the time-series model, and neural networks with genetic algorithms, in hotel revenue forecasting. This study also compares the forecast accuracy the proposed method with other forecasting methods. The proposed forecasting approach is illustrated using actual data from a Taiwanese international hotel. Analytical results of this study could help the future development of the Taiwanese hotel industry.

Keywords: Revenue Management, International Hotel, Forecasting, Time Series, Neural Network
ANALYSIS OF YIGONG’S EXPERIENCES AT FOLKLORE INNS IN CHINA BASED ON WEB LOGS MINING

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INTRODUCTION

Work for accommodation (e.g., work exchange, working holiday, help exchange) is a very popular phenomenon in western countries. However, in China, we call them ‘yigong’. ‘Yigong’ (translated as ‘volunteer’) refers to the Chinese context volunteer and it is a very popular network buzzword and there is a large amount of yigong recruitment information on social media in China. Being a yigong at folklore inns means working just a small amount of hours per day at the inns in exchange for a place to stay, and the left time is for leisure or travel. Though the term of ‘yigong’ is the literal translation of ‘volunteer’, the phenomenon of being a yigong in China has many similarities with ‘working tourists’ in western literature.

Being a ‘yigong’ at folklore inns is different from bookstore or temple volunteers in many aspects, whose main aim is to learn. This exploratory paper is devoted to the phenomenon of yigong at folklore inns so as to shift the discussion from volunteering in western countries into the examination of yigong in China context. It employed a case study of the yigong at the local folklore inns, aiming to provide an exploratory basis to further the study of this phenomenon by exploring yigong’s experience, including their work, experience, satisfaction and experience influence factor.

METHODOLOGY

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, a constructivist approach was adopted to analyzed the data. With the help of Rost Content Mining and Nvivo 11, content analysis and thematic analysis was conducted. Considering the fact that all the data was in Chinese, the native Chinese software ROST Content Mining System Version 6.0 (ROST CM6) was chosen to conduct the content analysis. ROST CM6 is developed by the ROST research group at Wuhan University in China. It is capable of splitting, filtering, merging words, and can also count word frequencies, as well as perform cluster analysis and social network analysis (Li, Mäntymäki & Zhang, 2014). Currently, it is widely used by Chinese scholars (Fu, Wang & Zheng, 2012). The qualitative analysis tool with strong coding function, Nvivo 11, was used for coding.

All the data was collected from Douban (www.douban.com), which is one of the most popular community website in China. Most inkeepers publish yigong recruitment information and yigong share their experience at this website. This study randomly selected 89 yigong’s web logs with a total of 208,682 words, and 46 inkeepers’ web logs releasing recruitment information with a total of 44,446 words.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Content analysis of text

Yigong’s work content

According to the data analysis of Yigong recruitment web content by ROST CM6, the statistical frequency results show that the inkeeper is mainly focus on yigong’s work time demands, work content, and the character of volunteer.

yigong’s web logs

According to the word frequencies counting, social network analysis of yigong’s web logs, going out to play is mentioned frequently in the web logs, but yigong do not depict their tourism experiences much. On the contrary, more attention is paid to describe the daily work, people, stories, their heart experience and so on. At the same time, boss, like, local, guest, inn, and the front desk, for the first time, come back, every day, friend, leave are the high frequency vocabularies. It seems like that it is the daily work experience that impresses yigong rather than tourism activity. As for the sentiment analysis of the texts, more than half of the statement is positive, while only 17.78% is negative emotions.
Thematic analysis of text

Following Luborsky’s (1994) procedures, the author first became acquainted with the text. After that, some main points were identified in the following reading. Specifically, a two-step coding process was conducted: initial coding and focused coding (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007). The qualitative analysis tool with strong coding function, Nvivo 11, was used for coding. The open coding process was done line by line. The second step of focused coding was to form the categories based on the continuous comparison of the codes. In the end, the coding spectrum among these 89 journals included 456 codes and 32 categories.

Motivations of Yigong

The motivations of yigong are mainly focused on these aspects: to have a serious experience at the destination, to escape from the daily life, to meet new friends, to travel with low costs, and to spend the free time (e.g., the transfer between work and study).

Influence factors of yigong experience

Human (e.g., whether boss, staff and guests are friendly)

Working time (length, flexibility)

Working roles (workload, difficulty, content)

Among these three factors, human is the most important one. If the boss and staff are friendly, the yigong would have good experience. If the boss, staff and guest have built good friendship, a large part of the travel journal would depict these friendships, the farewell, and the influence of the travel yigong experience on themselves.

Long work time and unflexibility have negative impacts on yigongs’ experiences. Large amount of work, as well as difficult work task also have negative impacts on it. In some circumstances, even the innkeeper pay for extra work, the yigong do not like to work for extra time. Another influence factor is work content. That is, whether the work interesting or not affects the experience. However, the working related influences are different for those who in a harmonious relation with innkeeper or employees and those who are not.

Table 1. Sentiment analysis of Yigong’s web logs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sentiment</th>
<th>statistical result</th>
<th>low</th>
<th>middle</th>
<th>high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>count</td>
<td>percent</td>
<td>count</td>
<td>percent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>1414</td>
<td>56.13%</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>23.22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>657</td>
<td>26.08%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>17.78%</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>10.84%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

This analysis of web logs makes us see that yigong is different with normal tourist or regular employee of inns. Yigong’s experience more influenced by their daily work rather than by sightseeing. Daily life and work in inns occupied more important position in their whole experiences. They enjoy experiencing local culture and life deeply as part-time locals. On the other hand, yigong refuse to be treated as regular employee. Being asked for the same work time or work role as the employee’s declines their satisfaction. Yigong’s blurred role makes them attach great importance to relations with the innkeeper and other workers.

Yigong’s experiences including their work, experience, satisfaction and experience influence factor have been discussed, however, since the generalizations made here are based on web logs, more empirical research from different data is recommended. Moreover, it is suggested that this typology is preliminary, raising additional questions that call for further study. For instance, this analysis, focusing on yigong in the folklore inns, invites further study on various industries that combine volunteer, work and travel, such as business events, and explore how Chinese conceptualize yigong (or volunteer). This paper, which focused on the yigong behaviour in a commercial context-inns and also invited a follow-up research to examine the philanthropic-commercial continua of volunteering.
This current study also ignited the research interest for the not-organized volunteer tourism. These and other suggestions for further research could initiate a rich line of study around the phenomenon of yigong in China.

REFERENCES


UNDERSTANDING HOTEL EMPLOYEE SUBJECTIVITIES TOWARDS WORKPLACE PEER INTERACTIONS: Q METHOD APPROACH

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INTRODUCTION

Many studies to examine the relationships between customers and customers (Miao & Mattila, 2013; Yoo, Arnold, & Frankwick, 2012) and service providers and customers (Li & Hsu, 2016; Wieseke, Geigenmüller, & Kraus, 2012) in the hospitality have gained much attention due to the various human interactive characteristics of the industry. However, the interaction research among workplace peers in the field is scarce. The employee relationship with other employees can be viewed positively and negatively. The supports from peers and managers have shown a positive influence on employee job performance and in decreasing the turnover intention (Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; McTernan, Dollard, Tuckey, & Vandenberg, 2016). Conflicts among employees take a significant portion of reasons for job stress and emotional exhaustion (Kim, O’Neil, & Cho, 2010) which can lead to a high employee turnover intention (Han, Boon, & Cho, 2016). A few of these empirical studies on employee relationship are based on, and provide a validation for the existing theories and concepts. However, this limits the variations of workplace peer interactions and cannot further extract meaningful factors causing the interaction conflicts. The workplace environments especially in the hospitality organizations have been rapidly changing by many factors (e.g., technology, demographics) which influence the interactive relationships among employees. The existing literature does not offer an in-depth understanding of the authentic and dynamic dimensions of workplace peer interactions.

The objective of this study is to identify the hotel employees’ subjectivity toward workplace peer interactions and to extract the themes of subjectivities and significances from the human resource management viewpoint using a Q method approach. The findings of this study add enriched understanding of the hotel industry employee specific peer interactions. By identifying the hotel employee subjectivities (feeling, opinion, attitude, and work performance) toward workplace peer interactions, the hotel can develop more comprehensive training programs to improve employee relationship and teamwork. This is very first attempt applying the qualitative and quantitative combined approach of Q method to learn hotel workplace peer interaction study. The Q method allows overcoming the limitations of more standardized quantitative research and identifying the positive and negative peer interactions by analyzing the individual hotel employee’s subjectivity.

METHOD

Q Population and Q Sample.

Q-population refers to a comprehensive concourse of thoughts shared within an organizational culture and is collected for a Q method study (Stephenson, 1978). The Q population of this study is a collection of subjectivities of hotel employee interactions with their peers. In order to collect the Q population, a thorough review of previous studies in employee interactions with co-workers (Ekinci & Dawes, 2009; Kim & Choi, 2016; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Karatepe & Kilic, 2015; McTernan et al., 2016) as well as personal in-depth interviews with eight hotel employees in Korea were done. Approximately 120 statements were drawn from the two sources. The statements were studied by two social scientists from a major university in Korea and the authors for redundancy and irrelevancy, and reduced to 36 Q-sample statements. The finalized 36 Q-sample statements were reviewed one more time by three Ph.D. students from the same university for any readability and suitability issues and were revised again accordingly.
Study Sample and Q-Sorting.

The target subjects for this study were hotel employees, who have been working in hotels in the last 12 months in Seoul, South Korea during the data collection in the month of February, 2017. The study included five-star hotel employees who were available for Q-sorting and willing to share their workplace peer interaction experiences. The participants were recruited by contacting the managers at each hotel. Most of the Q-sorting was conducted at participants’ workplaces or remote locations such as nearby coffee houses. The instructions were provided prior to the Q-sorting, and it took each participant 30 minutes on average to complete the Q-sorting. First, to show all Q-sample statements, a list of all 36 Q-sample statements on a single sheet of paper was provided to each subject. Additional clarifications were provided as needed prior to the sorting. Once the sorting begins, no descriptions or personal opinions from the researchers were given at any point during the Q-sorting. The subjects were asked to rank all 36 Q-sample statements based on their subjective feelings, opinions and experiences on a 9-point scale (+4: strongly agree, 0: neutral, -4: strongly disagree). A forced-normal distribution was used to ensure the subjects ranking each statement according to the principle of Q methodology. The participant’s demographic information was also collected during the process. A total of 25 hotel employees were included in the P-set and participated in the Q-sorting process.

FINDINGS

The study P-set included seven female and 18 male employees, and their positions were from different departments including guestroom, front office, banquet, bell stand and VIP lounge. The data was analyzed by the z-scores of items and a principle factor analysis from PC QUANL program. Five factors were identified as shown in Table 1. Factors 1 and 2 were shown the highest correlation (.418) following by correlation between factors 2 and 3 (.295) and the highest negative correlation was found between factors 3 and 5 (-.468). Based on the items grouped, each factor was labeled as factor 1 (communication), factor 2 (member’s personal traits), factor 3(manager’s roles), factor 4 (off work communication), and factor 5 (teamwork). Various numbers of sorts were included in each factor. Only two sample statements for each factor along with the z-score for each statement are shown in Table 1. In addition, “the open communication amongst team members is most important” was included in four factors with z-score 1 or higher.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Five Factors</th>
<th>NO</th>
<th>Q Statement</th>
<th>z-score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>The open communication amongst team members is most important.</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>I believe my team communicates well.</td>
<td>1.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Members’ Personal Traits</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>My colleagues and boss’ emotional up-and-downs and careless verbal communication make my job stressful.</td>
<td>1.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>Recognizing colleagues and boss’ personal stress makes my job hard.</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager’s Roles</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>I can commit to the company even more when my boss supports my decisions.</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>It’s heartfelt support when I found out my boss or colleague took care of a guest complaint that I received.</td>
<td>1.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Off Work Communication</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>I don’t feel that I am totally off the work during the holidays and on my days off due to the constant communication through the group chat.</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>I get stressed by assignment of tasks after working hour.</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teamwork</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>I want to stay as a team member for my team.</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Encouraging words from my boss and colleagues help me especially when I have to deal with guest complaints.</td>
<td>1.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DISCUSSION

The ‘communication’ factor showed the importance of communication among the team members in their interactions. Even though the importance of communication amongst the employees was understood in most of the hotels for better business operation, there must be more supports for establishing more effective and productive communication system. The ‘member’s personal traits’ might be the biggest influence on employee emotions especially the negative one during guest service. Specific guidelines and training on displaying professionalism and proper protocols among employees within hotel must be in place. The ‘manager’s roles’ emphasized the manager’s leadership between the new hires and the existing employees so that the former adapts to the new work environment quickly and the latter also helps the newer employees to get trained and provide guest service at the same level as them. The ‘off work communication’ is one of the most unique factors found from this study. The group chatting function from some of the text message application on smart phone is a usually way to communicate with a large number of employees for short communication and sharing tasks needs to be done. However, the constant messages by the supervisors and managers were one of the major sources for employee stress especially on the day off or during the holidays. Employees felt their work was extended even when they were off work and not able to rest and rejuvenate. The last factor ‘teamwork’ showcased one of the positive results of peer interactions. Teamwork can be developed when there are healthier peer interactions among team members. The positive teamwork can help to increase employee’s satisfaction and organizational commitment.

REFERENCES

CONCEPTUALIZING TOURISTS’ DECISION MAKING IN MOTION

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Xuerui (Sherry) Liu, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

INTRODUCTION

Many decisions with real economic and social impacts (such as firefighting, decisions made en-route during trips, and impulsive shopping) are made in complex environments where information cues are ubiquitous and change rapidly. Studies have found that decision-making in dynamic real-world contexts is different from the predictions of classic decision-making models, which usually assume rigorous, rational cognitive processes based on static information displays (Klein, Orasanu, Calderwood, & Zsambok, 1993; Smallman & Moore, 2010). A better understanding of decision-making processes in real-world settings is needed to inform theory and provide practical insights for marketers and planners.

To fill this gap, scholars have studied naturalistic decision-making (NDM). Previous studies focused on decisions with three boundary conditions (i.e., expertise, time pressure, and ill-defined goals) and highlighted the use of knowledge by experts and the cognitive processes of proficient decision-makers (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson, 1993). However, many decisions in real life (such as decisions made en-route during trips) have characteristics that the NDM literature has not considered, including lack of expertise, loose group structure (high autonomy of group members), impulsivity, and the information processing moving through the information space (Lipshitz, Klein, Orasanu, & Salas, 2001). Also, previous research has not addressed the fact that mobile information technology such as smartphones and tablets is increasingly mediating decision-making. Therefore, this study explores decision-making in motion, with an emphasis on determining perceptions of complex information spaces, as well as processing and evaluation strategies. In particular, this study focuses on the decision processes of individuals or groups of tourists walking through an urban environment with and without smartphones.

Tourism provides an ideal context because unplanned/impulsive behaviors and changes to planned behaviors are ubiquitous in urban tourism, and the information landscape in tourism is varied and dynamic (Smallman & Moore, 2010). The goal of this study is to close the gap in our understanding of decision-making in motion, including information-processing strategies (e.g., the order in which to digest information cues and the processing of information presented in different manners) and the rules, heuristics, and themes embedded within decision-makers’ discursive accounts of their decisions. The study is qualitative and used an iteratively grounded theory strategy. It seeks to better reflect the contextual and new technological realities of decision-making while moving through urban information landscapes. In the long term, the findings from this research will provide implications for public space/signage design, urban planning, contextual advertising, and the designs of location-based services and augmented reality applications.

This study has two objectives:

a) To describe the contexts of decision-making in motion (i.e., how spontaneous decisions emerge while tourists stroll through an urban information space).

b) To identify the information-processing strategies (i.e., the order of processing different information cues, the processing of information presented in different formats, and the mediation of mobile technology).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourists’ decision-making has been studied for decades. Studies in this area are mainly based on the grand models of consumer behavior and provide insights particularly into tourist destination choice (Crompton, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005) and pre-trip information processing (e.g., Hyde, 2008; Jun, Vogt, & MacKay, 2010; Pan & Fesenmaier, 2006). In-destination decision-making is conceptualized as
opportunistic, impulsive, and dynamic but is not formally integrated into existing models (Beckon & Wilson, 2006; Decrop, 2006; Decrop & Snelders, 2005; March & Woodside, 2005). Models that assume tourists are individual, rational decision-makers engaging in static information search and careful evaluation of options against resources and preferences (Moore, Smallman, Wilson, & Simmons, 2012) are not suitable for explaining the kinds of decision-making that occur in groups, in complex and multi-layered information spaces, mediated by mobile technology, and while on the move (Smallman & Moore, 2010). Embodiment is not discussed at all in the tourism literature. The proposed research will therefore greatly develop tourist decision-making theory but will also make broader contributions to other areas as well, such as retailing and urban planning, because the basic concepts it will uncover are applicable to decision-making in motion in general. This study is developed based on the theories of constructive consumer choice process (Bettman, Luce, & Payne, 1998) and heuristic decision making (Gigerenzer & Todd, 1999).

METHOD

This study follows the ontological understanding of decision-making as a process (Smallman & Moore, 2010). It further acknowledges that previous decision-making theories cannot inform decision-making in motion. Due to the shortcomings of existing theoretical frameworks, the proposed research will be a qualitative study using an overarching research strategy of iteratively grounded theory (Orton, 1997). Different from the grounded theory which suggests that relevant theories and concepts be completely ignored, iteratively grounded theory suggests both inductive and deductive thinking and the generation of theory from both data and existing theories and concepts. In this study, the theoretical departure points are the models of naturalistic decision-making (e.g., recognition-primed decision-making model), information-processing models (e.g., serial, dual processing under a dichotomous approach, dual processing under an interactive approach), the assumptions and models in behavioral decision theory (e.g., expected utility theory, prospect theory, adaptive decision-maker model), and the process theories of tourists’ in-destination decision-making (e.g., Decrop & Snelders, 2005; Smallman & Moore, 2010; Woodside, MacDonald, & Burford, 2004). Meanwhile, this study uses an iterative process of data collection and analysis that will allow concepts and theory to emerge from the data. In general, this study conceptualizes the process of decision-making in motion through the direct identification and interpretation of the rules, heuristics, and themes embedded within tourists’ discursive accounts of their decisions (Moore et al., 2012). Tourists were invited to participate in the study by recording one day of travel around the city of Hong Kong (i.e., an independent city tour). The day trips were broken down into scenarios, such as lunch, first attraction visit, and navigating. Different kinds of decision-making in motion were identified from the scenarios and categorized.

FINDINGS & CONCLUSION

The process tracking studies with seventeen independent travel parties in Hong Kong resulted in 98 onsite decisions, which are further classified into seven decision making scenarios based on the primary goal of decision making. The seven scenarios include decisions for food, transportation mode, information seeking methods for way-finding, adding new attractions, cancelling planned attractions, places for breaks, and shopping items. The results of this study will include the description of the decision making process in each type of decision making in motion. A series of decision heuristics was identified. For example, in the decisions regarding food, tourists used FRQ (frequency of good and bad features) heuristics to develop cutoffs to differentiate good and bad features, and then choose alternatives by counting the number of good or bad features that the alternatives have. Tourists also used availability heuristics to make decisions based on immediate examples that come to mind when evaluating an object (e.g., concept, topic, method, or decision). Overall, this study identified that tourists’ decision making in motion is heuristic based rather than rationality based. The mobile Internet extends tourists’ capability to process the information cues captured in the immediate information environment.
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A MODEL OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT TOWARDS BUSINESS SUCCESS FOR THE SMALL AND MEDIUM TOURISM INDUSTRY

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This paper proposes a total quality management model as affecting business success for the small and medium tourism industry in Asia. Total Quality Management (TQM) is a philosophy of management that is holistic in approach and aims for continuous improvement in all the organization’s operations. This can be achieved if the concepts of total quality are used from acquiring resources to customer service (Kaynak, 2003). According to Chase and Aquilano (1992), TQM is “managing the entire organization so that it excels in all dimensions of products and services that are important to the customer”. Miller (1996) defines TQM as “an ongoing process whereby top management takes whatever steps necessary to enable everyone in the organization in the course of performing all duties to establish and achieve standards which meet or exceed the needs and expectations of their customers, both external and internal”. Thus, TQM practices would enable the food sector to be able to integrate with the regional and global supply chains and thus enhance its performance. The resource-based theory suggests that the business performance of an organization depends on its organizational resources. Several authors (Baum, Locke, & Smith, 2001; Chrisman, Bauerschmidt, & Hofer, 1998; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996) propose that business performance is affected by various factors and one of these is its resources, such as TQM. At present, no studies had been done yet that take into account the total quality management practices of the food industry in the Philippines, particularly the small and medium enterprises.

Small and medium enterprises have workforce of not more than 250. Its technical definition differ by country and is usually classified according to capitalization and workforce (Kotelnikov, 2007). The small and medium-sized enterprises are important to the local and national economy, since in Asia, these sectors comprise majority of its business base. For example, in Indonesia, SMEs employ 90 percent of the workforce (Tambunan, 2008) while Vietnam employs 97 percent of the workforce (Tran, Le, & Nguyen, 2008). In Thailand, SMEs are also considered a job generator (Swierczek & Ha, 2003). Moreover, these sectors contribute to the lowering of poverty incidence, specifically in the rural and regional areas (TID, 2009).

This paper aims to propose a model of Total Quality Management Practices affecting business success for the small and medium tourism industry in Asia, on the basis of the resource-based theory. Business success is defined as productivity and profitability of the firm. This paper shows the impact of TQM as an organizational resource on business success of the firm and will therefore aid industry practitioners in improving or implementing their TQM practices to build up their strategic resources and thereby increase their chance for quality performance and business success.

RESOURCE-BASED THEORY AND TQM

The Resource-based theory claims that organizations depend on the endowment of their resources (Rangone, 1999). Barney (1991) define resources as “assets, capabilities, organizational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, etc. that allow the firm to develop strategies benefiting its efficiency and effectiveness.” According to Amit and Schoemaker (1993), resources are “stocks of available factors that are owned or controlled by the firm.” The theory further claims that the differences in business performance of firms are affected by their resources which are unique to the firm (Wernerfelt, 1984; Galbreath, 2005). Firms implement strategies to manage their resources which then affect their business performance (Daft, Daft, Murphy, & Willmott, 2010; Mosakowski, 1993). Makadok (2001) claims that the choice of resources of firms affects the economic rent they generate. In order for firms to
be at a competitive advantage, the said resources should be rare, valuable, non-substitutable, and perfectly inimitable (Barney, 1991; Peteraf, 1993; Rumelt, 1987). According to Barney (1991), resources become valuable if they contribute to the efficiency and effectiveness of the firm, rare if not all firms have the same resource; inimitable if other firms cannot copy the said resource because of the resource’s social complexity, historical conditions, or causal ambiguity, and nonsubstitutable if the resource cannot be replaced simply by another valuable resource. The said resources contribute to the firm’s competitive advantage and therefore enhance business performance if the firm makes strategic decisions leading to a unique service or product attribute (Gibcus & Kemp, 2003; Wernerfelt, 1984; Conner, 1991; Schulze, 1992; Helfat & Peteraf, 2003; Amit & Shoemaker, 1993; Wernerfelt, 1984).

Total Quality Management is one of the firm’s resources that can provide a sustainable competitive advantage. The imperfectly imitable, tacit, and behavioural features of TQM, such as employee empowerment, open culture, and commitment at the executive level can all lead to a firm’s competitive advantage, TQM success, and outperformance over the organization’s competitors (Powell, 1995). Total Quality Management also enables the firm to attain differentiation, strong brand image, meeting of customer needs, and reduction of costs through minimization of wastes (Abraham et al., 1997; Harber et al., 1993; Dale, 1999). Total Quality Management practices include management leadership, quality data and reporting, employee relations, training, supplier quality management, product/service design, and process management (Saraph, et al., 1989).

Management leadership enhances the business performance of the firm because it influences other elements of TQM practices (Wilson and Collier, 2000; Flynn et al., 1995; Anderson et al., 1995). A concentrated effort of the management towards open communication, continuous improvement, and cooperation within the firm contributes to the successful implementation of TQM (Daft, 1998; Abraham et al., 1999; Handfield and Ghosh, 1994). Management is critical in providing the needed resources to train employees in the change process and in creating an atmosphere where the employees can be involved in the change process. In this way, the employees will work harder and will contribute ideas that can enhance the process of change (Adebajo and Kehoe, 1999; Handfield et al., 1998; Wilson and Collier, 2000). A clear strategy should be communicated by the management to the employees in terms of improving quality and this can be enhanced by implementing quality-based incentive and compensation scheme (Flynn et al., 1995; Bonito, 1990). Thus, management has a critical role in the implementation of TQM. Therefore:

Proposition 1: Management leadership positively affects employee training

Proposition 2: Management leadership positively affects employee relationships

Management leadership is also considered an important factor that affects the interactions with the supply side of the firm. They are responsible for promoting mutually beneficial relations with their suppliers and for assuring that there is quality and delivery performance (Trent and Monczka, 1999; Flynn et al., 1995). Managing supplier relationship is important to the success of the relationship between the supplier and the firm as this requires a level of commitment and exchange of information (Ellram, 1991). Thus,

Proposition 3: Management leadership positively affects supplier quality management

Training of employees, which should emphasize statistical process control, problem solving in work groups, and effective communication, is an important part of workforce management, especially when implementing changes in the organization (Flynn et al., 1994). According to several researches (Easton and Jarrell, 1998; Hackman and Wageman, 1995; Bonito, 1990), an increase in the number of skills of employees due to trainings increases their involvement in the jobs and increase in awareness of issues related to quality. They also learn how to measure and use data in the right manner, leading to a positive relation with product quality and thereby firm performance (Ho, et al., 1999; Ahire and Dreyfus, 2000). Therefore,

Proposition 4: Employee training positively affects the quality data and reporting

Employee relations include employee
participation in decision-making, employee recognition, teamwork, and effective communication leading to creating awareness of the goals of the organization (Burack et al., 1994; Ford and Fottler, 1995; Holpp, 1994; Daft, 1998). Various studies have shown that employee relations are positively associated with quality data and reporting (Ho et al., 1999, 2001; Flynn et al., 1995). These can be due to the fact that effective implementation of quality measurements and monitoring would need continuous awareness of quality-related issues by the employees (Kaynak, 2003). Thus,

**Proposition 5:** Employee relations positively affect quality data and reporting

Quality data and reporting encompasses monitoring the performance of the supplier to enhance the quality of raw materials, decrease development costs and purchase prices, and improve the responsiveness of the supplier (Krause et al., 1998). Through supplier performance databases, firms can track defects, process capability rations, rejects, and reliability (Trent and Monczka, 1999; Forza and Flippini, 1998). Moreover, suppliers will be able to learn the information they need to improve their performance. Thus,

**Proposition 6:** Quality data positively affects supplier quality management

Quality data affects the process management of informs as workers are informed of the changes that should be done to meet the firm’s process specifications (Ho et al., 1999). Several studies (Handfield et al., 1999; Flynn et al., 1995) have shown that quality control data such as process capability data are important in process improvement. Therefore,

**Proposition 7:** Quality data positively affects process management

The studies by Ho et al. (1999) and Flynn et al. (1995) have shown that improved relationship with the suppliers contribute to the performance of both the buyers and the suppliers. Quality products that meet the buyers’ specifications are dependent on the suppliers’ quality management. If the process and product variability are minimal at the suppliers’ end, the buyer would have less difficulty in meeting their customers’ specifications (Flynn et al., 1995; Forza and Flippini, 1998). Thus,

**Proposition 8:** Supplier quality management positively affects process management

Process management involves proper production scheduling and work distribution to decrease process variation leading to product uniformity and reduction in losses due to rejects or reworks (Saraph et al., 1989; Flynn et al., 1995; Handfield et al., 1999). This also includes preventive maintenance of equipment to prevent or reduce interruptions during production (Ho et al., 1999). According to Flynn et al. (1995), process management leads to a decrease in reworks and thus an improvement in product quality. Moreover, the study by Forza and Flippini (1998) has shown that process management positively affects the quality of the products. Therefore,

**Proposition 9:** Process management positively affects quality performance

Quality performance, through the reduction of rewords and improvement in efficiency increases the return on assets and therefore improves the profitability of the firm (Handfield et al., 1998). It also enhances the product quality which positively affects consumer preferences, thereby increasing sales and market share (Choi and Eboch, 1998; Reed et al., 1996). Thus,

**Proposition 10:** Quality performance positively affects business success

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EFFECTS OF TOURIST INCIVILITY ON THE EMOTIONAL LABOR AND
JOB BURNOUT OF TOUR LEADERS AND TOUR GUIDES:
MODERATING EFFECTS OF PASSION FOR WORK

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INTRODUCTION

Emotional labor has attracted attentions from practitioners and academics. Several previous studies also have explored the effects of emotional labor on the service providers and service receivers in the context of tourism (e.g., Guerrier & Adib, 2003; Williams, 2003; Constanti & Gibbs, 2005; Wong & Wang, 2009; Van Dijk et al., 2011; Shania, Uriely, Reichel, & Ginsburg, 2014; Çolakoğlu, Yurcu, Atay, & Yanik, 2015). Most of aforementioned studies mostly focused on consequences of emotional labor, namely effects of emotional labor (Van Dijk et al., 2011). However, studies of antecedents of emotional labor are still somewhat lacking (e.g., Shania et al., 2014).

Tour leaders and tour guides are the critical interface between destinations and tourists and the frontline employees that affect overall image and satisfaction for their customers (Ap & Wong, 2001; Wang, Hsieh, & Chen, 2002; Bowie & Chang, 2005; Mak, Wong, & Chang, 2011). Their performance can thus make or break the tours. As consumer interests are overemphasized, tour leaders and tour guides have to directly take uncivil behaviors from tourists of tour groups under the motto of “customer is always right.” They thus have to undertake higher emotional labor and also suffer higher job burnout.

The emergence of the concept of workplace incivility can be traced back to the proposal of the external behaviors outside the role of organizational members by Katz (1964). Workplace incivility can be considered as negative behavior. It is defined as a low intensity deviant behavior that violates the principle of mutual respect and does not have any obvious harm intentions (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). It can be described as rudeness and lack of politeness and respect towards others (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).

Study exploring the tourist incivility on the emotional labor and job burnout is still wanting. The purpose of this study is taking tourist incivility as an antecedent to explore the effects of tourist incivility on the emotional labor and job burnout of the tour leaders and tour guides. Furthermore, passion for work is also introduced as a consequence to explore the moderating effects of passion for work on the relationships between tourist incivility and emotional labor and between tourist incivility and job burnout. Hypotheses of this study are listed below.

H1: Tourist inactivity has a positive effect on the emotional labor.

H2: Tourist incivility has a positive effect on the job burnout.

H3: Emotional labor has a positive effect on the job burnout.

H4: Passion for work has a moderating effect on the relationship between tourist incivility and emotional labor.

H5: Passion for work has a moderating effect on the relationship between tourist incivility and job burnout.
METHOD

Items for tourist incivility are adapted from customer incivility scale (CIS) proposed by Sliter, Sliter, and Jex (2012). Items for emotional labor are adopted from discrete emotions emotional labor scale (DEELS) proposed by Glomb and Tews (2004). Items for job burnout are employed from Maslach burnout inventory (MBI) proposed by Maslach and Jackson (1981). Items for passion for work are adopted from the passion scale (TPS) proposed by Vallerand, Blanchard, Mageau, Koestner, Ratelle, and Léonard (2003). The abovementioned scales both used the Likert five-point scale which ranged from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Tour leaders and tour guides in Taiwan are invited to participate in this study. Convenience sampling is used in this study. Self-administrated questionnaires were delivered. A total of 312 usable questionnaires are achieved finally.

FINDINGS

Most of our respondents were male (61.5%). Structural equation modeling (SEM) is used to test the hypotheses. The results of this study are depicted as figure 2. Accordingly, $H_1$ ($\gamma_{11}=0.38^*$), $H_2$ ($\gamma_{21}=0.42^*$), and $H_3$ ($\beta_{21}=0.32^*$) are supported. Furthermore, the ‘multi-group’ strategy in SEM was employed to test $H_4$ and $H_5$ in this study. The moderating effect of passion for work on the relationship of tourist incivility and emotional labor is significant (df=1, $\chi^2=4.12$, p < 0.05). $H_4$ was thus supported. Furthermore, the moderating effect of passion for work on the relationship of tourist incivility and job burnout is significant (df=1, $\chi^2=4.37$, p < 0.05). $H_5$ was thus supported.
REFERENCES


PLANNING OF TANGIBLE AND INTANGIBLE FOODSERVICE PRODUCT USING SYSTEMATIC QUALITY FUNCTION DEPLOYMENT (QFD) TECHNIQUE

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Hei Ryeo Yoon, Kongju National University
Mi Sook Cho, Ewha Womans University

INTRODUCTION

As industry structure changes, foodservice companies are constantly striving to develop new products for survival. Quality Function Deployment (QFD) technique for systematic product development based on customer's voice is widely used in service industries, restaurant management, food development, healthcare, software products, manufacturing, IT projects, government and many other fields (Costa et al. 2000, Lee et al. 2015). In fact, QFD technique was developed by Prof. Mizuno Shizuu and Prof. Akao Yoji of Japan in order to enhance customer satisfaction in the manufacturing sector in the 1960s, reflecting customer requirements before production (Akao & Mazur 2003).

Foodservice products consist of tangible (menus) and intangible (services) product but most product planners develop only tangible or intangible products without considering both. In order to be selected by the consumer, it is necessary to consider all the tangible and intangible characteristics of the product before development. (Lovelock & Gummesson 2004).

In order to construct the house of quality (HOQ), an important component of QFD, engineering characteristics were derived according to customer requirements by Delphi method. Ultimately, the purpose of this study is to derive the step-by-step strategy of the foodservice company for the development of foodservice products using QFD technique.

METHOD

A Delphi survey was conducted to derive engineering characteristics, to correlate engineering characteristics with customer requirements, and the panel consisted of eight experts, including food and nutrition professors, restaurant managers and experts. After the preliminary survey, the Delphi survey was conducted three times from August 1, 2013 to September 30, 2013, all conducted by self-report. In a previous study, we have driven the requirements for products from 500 consumers, the customer’s requirements for tangible product (menu) were classified into the sensory factor, health factor, hygiene factor, and external factor (Oh & Cho 2016). Those of service which is an intangible product, were also classified into response factor, visual factor, spatial factor, packaging factor, and promotion factor. The validity of responses after the Delphi survey was analyzed based on Lawshe's Content Validity Ratio (CVR) (Lawshe 1975). After analyzing the content validity, consensus and convergence of the responses, the final engineering characteristics were derived and the degree of correlation between the customer's requirements and the final engineering characteristics was determined. The model of the HOQ in this study is shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Modified house of quality](image-url)
FINDINGS

The engineering characteristics of tangible products were classified into planning, purchase management, production management, and information management based on the production system of foodservice. The engineering characteristics of intangible products were also classified into physical evidence, human interaction, and pre-communication based on the service operation and delivery system (Table 1).

Table 1. The engineering characteristics of tangible & intangible products

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Engineering characteristics</th>
<th>CVR(^1)</th>
<th>Consensus(^2)</th>
<th>Convergence(^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tangible products</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>planning</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>purchase management</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>production management</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>information management</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intangible products</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>physical evidence</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>human interaction</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>pre-communication</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1) CVR(content validity ratio) - 8 panelists, at least 0.75 is valid
2) Delphi panel's consensus and convergence were limited to 0.80 or more, 0 to 0.5.

As a result of QFD analysis, it was investigated that customers desire to improve hygiene factors and response factors. These results suggest that consumers are unconsciously concerned about hygiene as hygiene is often a problem in the process of manufacturing and selling dumplings in Korea. In the future product planning stage, companies should reflect the consumer’s requirements and provide accurate product information (origin, nutrition information, etc.) to consumers and manage product production based on manuals.

Step-by-step product development strategies are as follow(Table 2). In the short term, the company must build a standard production system. In the case of dumpling, it is more important to differentiate not only the material and temperature but also the packaging container and the safety because packing sales are much higher than those at the store. In the medium term, companies need to improve their production processes. To prevent a customer escape, you should always keep the facility hygienic and develop new products periodically. Considering the needs of consumers, it will be necessary to use seasonal ingredients or fashionable foods to make changes, or to develop products that are not in traditional shapes but in various forms. A long-term strategy is to innovate old facilities and strive to attract new customers. Promotions and events must be planned and implemented in a variety of ways to enhance the loyalty of existing customers. In the case of traditional dumpling stores, most of them were grown up around large shopping malls and relied on shopping mall marketing rather than individual product marketing. In order to achieve continuous growth, it is necessary to establish and implement an individualized marketing strategy using SNS of various routes.

Table 2. Step-by-step food service product planning strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>short-term</td>
<td>Build a standard production system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mid-term</td>
<td>Process improvement and new product development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long-term</td>
<td>Strengthen PR through Innovation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The study was conducted to develop a strategy to improve the quality of foodservice products using QFD. Companies can reduce losses caused by product failures by developing products through this systematic process. In the future, if a systematic product development process is applied in developing a variety of foodservice products, the satisfaction of consumers can be improved.

REFERENCES

CONFIGURATIONAL PATTERNS OF SMART TOURISM ECOSYSTEMS: FROM A STRUCTURAL CONTINGENCY THEORY PERSPECTIVE

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Namho Chung, Kyung Hee University

INTRODUCTION

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO 2016), the number of tourists worldwide is increasing every year. However, the performance of the tourism industry varies from country to country. This result can be attributed to the difference in the composition of tourism ecosystem in each country. The tourism ecosystem is made up of various stakeholders such as tourists, tourism-related companies, and government agencies. The performance of the tourism industry is also different depending on how these ecosystems are structured. Especially, the tourism ecosystem is changing smarter than ever with the development of information technology (IT) (Buhalis and Law 2008; Kim et al. 2010; Koo et al. 2015; Poon 1988). For example, tourists get travel-related information such as destinations, accommodations, attractions, cost, and time more easily through the Internet, mobile apps, or social media such as Facebook, Twitter, or Instagram. Travel agencies can develop or promote customized travel services tailored to each tourist’s preferences through the analysis of accumulated data and information. Government agencies such as destination marketing organizations (DMOs) can collect and analyze data from around the world to develop sustainable tourism policies and strategies. Smart means "optimized for a specific need supplied by individual assets in a specific context either on demand or real-time basis" (Koo et al. 2016, p.1301). Smart tourism consists of multiple components (i.e., smart destination, smart business ecosystems, and smart experience) and layers (i.e., data collection, exchange, and processing) of smart that are supported by IT. Based on these considerations, smart tourism is defined as "tourism supported by integrated efforts at a destination to collect and aggregate data derived from physical infrastructure, social connections, government/organizational sources and human bodies/minds in combination with the use of advanced technologies to transform that data into on-site experiences and business value-propositions with a clear focus on efficiency, sustainability and experience enrichment" (Gretzel et al. 2015, p.181). However, research on smart tourism ecosystem that can generate various values is still in the early stage and most of them are only presenting the concept of components. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the configurational patterns of smart tourism ecosystems in terms of the structural contingency theory.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND METHODOLOGY

Figure 1 shows a conceptual configuration model producing tourism performance of a country based on the literature review on smart tourism and the structural contingency theory. Scott (1981) described contingency theory as "the best way to organize depends on the nature of the environment to which the organization must relate". Several researchers have complemented this theory with an emphasis on the importance of structural factors by examining environmental uncertainty, organizational structure, and various aspects of performance. Especially, as society develops, IT has become the most powerful factor to shape organizational configurations such as organizational structure, strategy and environment.
(Miller 1987; Weill and Olson 1989). Therefore, this study considers tourism, environment, and IT as the factors for configuring the smart tourism ecosystem as shown in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. A Conceptual Configuration Model Producing Tourism Performance of a Country](image)

In line with the configurational approach, the fuzzy set qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA) was applied to explore how the key elements systemically combine into configurations (Fiss 2007; Ragin 2008). The fsQCA, a set-theoretic method, is suitable for investigating possible alternative patterns of conditions that can lead to the intended outcome (Misangyi and Acharya 2014; Fiss 2011; Ragin 2008). It also assumes that cases consist of combination of theoretically relevant attributes and that the relationships between these attributes and the intended outcome can be understood by examining the subset relations (Ragin 2008). Thus, the configurations in the fsQCA were denoted as causal recipes that indicate the causally relevant conditions combined to produce a given outcome (Ragin 2008). To analyze the proposed model, data was collected from ‘The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2015 (TTCR 2015)’ by the World Economic Forum. A total of 141 countries’ data was used for the analysis. The value for each configuration element was extracted using TTCR 2015 data (see Appendix: Table A). The analysis was performed using the fsQCA 3.0 software.

**FINDINGS**

The analysis results were graphically depicted using the notation system introduced by Ragin and Fiss (2008) (see Figure 2). Each rectangle in Figure 2 (i.e., ITA-S1~S4 and ITR-S1) shows one configurational pattern of conditions (i.e., elements) for achieving the outcome. In Figure 2, there are two types of measures for validating each and overall solution: **consistency** and **coverage**. Consistency measures the degree to which each and overall solution are subsets of the outcome. For example, overall solution consistency of ITA measures the degree to which all configurations together consistently result in high performance of ITA. In this example, overall consistency is 0.77 above the usually accepted level of 0.75 (Ragin 2006; 2008). Coverage measures how much of the outcome is covered (or explained) by each solution term and by the solution as a whole. Raw coverage is roughly the extent to which each configuration covers the cases of the outcome. Thus, countries can achieve high performance of ITA with four different paths (i.e., equifinality), but individual paths are different in its empirical importance and effectiveness. In these equifinal solutions, the coverage of configuration ITA-S4 is largest although there is no big difference compared to ITA-S1 and S3. Therefore, ITA-S4 means empirically most relevant and effective solution for achieving high performance of ITA.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Configuration Elements</th>
<th>Configurations for ITA</th>
<th>Configurations for ITR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IIA-S1</td>
<td>IIA-S2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Policy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Infrastructure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Technology</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT Readiness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistency</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw Coverage</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique Coverage</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall Solution Consistency 0.77 0.83
Overall Solution Coverage 0.64 0.58

Note: Full black circles indicate the presence of a condition (i.e., element), and crossed-out circles indicate its absence. Large circles indicate core elements, whereas small ones mean peripheral elements. Blank spaces indicate “don’t care” situations where the element may be either present or absent.

In the case of IIA-S1, it is a pattern that tourism infrastructure, IT readiness, and social environment play a key role for achieving high performance of ITA. IIA-S2 is a pattern in which IT readiness, social and natural environment play an important role in achieving high performance of ITA. IIA-S3 and S4 show a similar pattern. Both solutions include tourism policy, IT readiness, and natural environment as core conditions (i.e., elements) in achieving high ITA performance. In addition, IIA-S4 includes the tourism infrastructure and social environment as a key element to consider. On the other hand, the results show that tourism infrastructure, social and natural environment are important elements for high ITR performance. Based on the analysis results, the following propositions can be suggested:

**Proposition 1.** The presence of IT readiness exerts the positive influence on the international tourist arrivals (ITA) of a country.

**Proposition 2.** The presence of tourism infrastructure, social and natural environment exerts the positive influence on the international tourism receipts (ITR) of a country.

**CONCLUSION**

This study examined the configurational patterns of smart tourism ecosystems in terms of the structural contingency theory. The fsQCA analysis was performed using the TTCR 2015 data collected from 141 countries. As the analysis results, four configurational patterns for high ITA performance and one configurational pattern for high ITR performance were derived. Overall, the results show that IT readiness plays an important role for development of the tourism industry for the sustainable smart tourism ecosystem.

**REFERENCES**


Acknowledgement
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Table A. Measurements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Configuration Elements</th>
<th>Measurements (TTCR 2015)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>Tourism Policy (Policy)</td>
<td>Prioritization of Travel &amp; Tourism International Openness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism Infrastructure (Infra)</td>
<td>Air Transport Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ground and Port Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tourist Service Infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Technology</td>
<td>IT Readiness (IT)</td>
<td>ICT Readiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental</td>
<td>Economic Environment (Economy)</td>
<td>Business Environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Human Resources and Labor Market Price Competitiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social Environment (Society)</td>
<td>Safety and Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Health and Hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Natural Environment (Nature)</td>
<td>Cultural Resources and Business Travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Environmental Sustainability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Natural Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Performance of a Country</td>
<td>International Tourist Arrivals (ITA)</td>
<td>International Tourist Arrivals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International Tourism Receipts (ITR)</td>
<td>International Tourism Receipts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
UNDERSTANDING OF USING EXPERIENCE OF BICYCLE-SHARING SERVICE BASED ON THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR AND EXPECTATION DISCONFIRMATION THEORY

Ahyoung Yoon, Kyung Hee University
Namho Chung, Kyung Hee University
Chulmo Koo, Kyung Hee University

INTRODUCTION

Recently, it has become common to ask people ‘How do we consume resources?’ rather than ‘what resources do we consume?’ In this context, Airbnb, the room-sharing service regarded as one of the most successful business models of the sharing economy, might be becoming familiar to most people (Zervas et al., 2014). The increasing attention drawn by it in the sharing economy has been a strong influence not only on non-profit and for-profit businesses but also on government policies (Belk, 2014).

Among Asian cities, Seoul has been noted for its fast-growing sharing economy (Schor, 2016). In 2012, Seoul Metropolitan Government in Korea declared Seoul the ‘Sharing City’ to ‘mitigate economic, environmental, and social problems by promoting shared use of both public and private resources’ (Sharehub, 2016). A bicycle-sharing service, which began in October 2015, enables people to rent and return bikes called ddarungi with their smartphones at any rental station in Seoul once they have registered (Seoulbike, 2016). The bicycle-sharing service has the following main objectives: 1) to solve the problems of traffic jams, air pollution, and high oil prices, 2) to make a healthy society, and 3) to improve the quality of its citizens’ lives (Seoulbike, 2016). It thus seeks to increase social value as well as environmental contribution. In terms of social value, a sharing economy encourages the public to engage in collaborative consumption, participate voluntarily, and solve common problems with mutual trust and cooperation (Hamari et al., 2015; Mohlmann, 2015). Considering the bicycle-sharing service implements a shared economy, it is necessary to understand the nature and meaning of participating in a sharing service from a consumer perspective.

In the tourism research, studies of bicycle users have recently increased and mainly focus on investigating users’ decision-making processes or identifying attributes of bicycle-sharing (Lee & Huang, 2014; Lee et al., 2014; Meng & Han, 2016; Han & Kim, 2017; Han et al., 2017). Among them, only a few studies verify the relationship between the attributes of bicycle-sharing and behavioural intention (Han & Kim, 2017; Han et al., 2017). In addition, since people have different expectations of specific services, researchers might need to investigate whether users assess the attributes of the bicycle-sharing services differently according to the gap between expectation and perceived outcomes after actual use (Lankton et al., 2014).

Given this, the current study attempts to develop a model explaining continuous intention to use a bicycle-sharing service based on the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and expectation disconfirmation theory. More specifically, we first verified the relationship among users’ attitudes toward the bicycle-sharing service (BSS), subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to use BSS. Then, this study identified disconfirmation between expectations and outcomes on the attributes of BSS. Finally, we examined the moderating effect of the level of disconfirmation on the relationship among users’ attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and continuous intention to use.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The ‘theory of planned behaviour’ has been widely used to explore behavioural intention, which means the probability of a person behaving in a specific way, in the field of social science. According to the Ajzen (1991), who developed the theory, behavioural intention is influenced by three core variables: attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. The ‘expectancy
disconfirmation theory’ developed by Oliver (1981) addresses the relationship among expectation, outcome, and satisfaction. According to his research, consumers have a series of expectations of the particular benefits that different products or services will bring before purchasing them. After experiencing the performance of the products or services, consumers use the expectations they had as criteria to judge their satisfaction with the products or services. Based on the background and literature review of the study, the following conceptual model was designed.

METHOD

All items of the structured questionnaire were closed-ended questions and divided into the following sections: attributes of using BSS, users’ attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and continuous intention to use. The participants were required to indicate their level of agreement using seven-point Likert scales (i.e., 1=disagree and 7=agree).

In particular, based on previous studies by Chang and Chang (2005) and Han and Kim (2017) that dealt with determinants of bicycle use, attributes of BSS in this study were measured by four variables: hedonic, social, economic, and technical attributes. Users’ attitudes toward BSS, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control were measured with 10 items from Han and Kim (2017). The scale of continuous intention to use, which is divided into use for leisure purposes and transportation purposes, was adapted from Lankon et al. (2014) and Han and Kim (2017).

To collect the data, we conducted a survey of undergraduates and graduates at a university located in Seoul for three weeks, beginning March 6. Participants completed the first questionnaire, which measured expectations of the bicycle-sharing service based on the attributes before using the BSS. After a few weeks, the same participants completed the second questionnaire, which measured outcomes of the bicycle-sharing service, users’ attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and continuous intention to use the BSS. Only participants who completed both surveys received monetary compensation.

In this study, multiple regression analysis was applied to test the causal relationship among users’ attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to use, and also to verify the moderating effect of expectation disconfirmation on attributes of BSS on the relationship.
RESULTS

In terms of main effects, based on the theory of planned behaviour, the results indicated that users’ attitudes toward BSS and subjective norms among predictors of continuous intention to use significantly influenced continuous intention to use for leisure purposes. However, there was only a causal relationship between perceived behavioural control and continuous intention to use for transportation purposes. In addition, the moderating effect of expectation disconfirmation on attributes of BSS was examined. The results showed that there were several significant interaction effects of predictors of continuous intention to use and expectation disconfirmation on attributes of BSS on the continuous intention to use.

CONCLUSION

Given these results, the current study has significant implications that the expectation disconfirmation perceived by users is an important variable as a moderator to explain users’ continuous intention to use based on the theory of planned behaviour.

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Acknowledgement

This work was supported by the Ministry of Education of the Republic of Korea and the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF-2016S1A3A2925146).
STUDY ON THE EXPERIENCE MARKETING AND CUSTOMER INVENTION OF DESIGN INN

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Clarissa Nathania, Tunghai University  
Ai-Lin Wang, Tunghai University  
Wei-Ling Chen, Tunghai University

In 1990, the design genius Philip Starck designed the first building designed Paramount Hotel after the birth of design hotel became popular in all over the world, since the beginning of the year 2000, a local hotel and international hotel chains have joined the Taiwan Hotel competitive market, operators are actively building brand image. Taiwan at present, for the so-called design hotel of the definition does not seem to have a certain consensus and rich in exploring space, spiritual level than superficial, material level need to upgrade human services and systems management. (Fang Yuankai, 2009)

This study aims to explore the imagination of hotel design, hotel design experience through experiential marketing experience, and try to suggest specific design concepts of the design hotel. Taking into account the motives, the purpose of this study was: (1) exploring the hotel's design and marketing experience. (2) Experience in marketing, customer value and customer loyalty and influence the relationship between. According to historical research, and experiential marketing experience marketing strategy proposed module is comprised of sensory experience, experience, experience, experience and relevant experience. Customer value is the customer value of existing papers. Customer's intent was to sort out the scholar’s ways to measure customer loyalty. Attitude is a major factor, including buybacks, willingness to pay and willingness to recommend. Research framework and assumptions used to explore the relevance and mediator, and profiled with the sampling method has experience in hotel design samples.

The reason why people want to travel, there are a lot of reasons, and the study (John Crompton, 1979) pointed out that the purpose of entertainment for passengers with nine motives to make their travel will. Seven of them are identified as social psychological levels, including: escape the perceived secular environment, find and develop self, relax, wealth of the prominent, return, promote kinship, promote social; the remaining two for the novel and education, the formation of alternating culture category. Among the social psychological factors, it is mentioned that people are eager to leave home, leave the familiar environment, to explore the self, to maintain or promote a relationship, but at the same time but want to have a comfortable environment, and this environment is the hotel , That is, research data show that tourism in product development and marketing strategy should pay more attention to the needs of social psychology.

And then with the production of boutique hotel, the hotel in addition to the meaning of living comfort, social psychology, the more fashion, luxury indicators. (Zhao Xiangyu, Zhao Yiwen, Liao Jingqing, 2016) After the design of the hotel, then take a low profile, personalized style, showing the life of aesthetics business opportunities. However, compared to other countries and regions, the Taiwan market for the design of the hotel is less mature (Fang Yuankai, 2009), therefore, this study would like to explore the consumer for the design of the image of the hotel, through the scholars of the experience of marketing (Bernd Schmitt, 1999), as well as customer value, customer loyalty as a measure of the specific understanding of the customer experience for the design of the hotel, and try to design the future design of Taiwan in the future design of the specific concept.

METHOD

This study hopes to explore the relationship
between the experiential marketing of the design hotel for the customer's intention, mainly to explore the practical use of experiential marketing in the design of the hotel. As shown in Figure 1, this study is based on the empirical marketing strategy module proposed by Schmitt (1999), which includes sensory experience, emotional experience, thinking experience, action experience and relevance experience. Experience module, reference to "experiential marketing and customer value, customer loyalty of the relevance of the study - to lavender forest restaurant as an example -" the finished customer value of the measurement factors, and correction of the customer loyalty to the measurement of customer loyalty Face to face, including re-purchase / return will and recommended wishes.

![Experience module diagram](image)

**Figure 1. Research architecture**

**RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS**

According to the conceptual architecture of Figure 1 and the inference of the literature, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

- **Hypothesis 1:** Different strategies for experiential marketing will have a significant impact on customer loyalty's attitude
- **Hypothesis 2:** Customer value will have a significant impact on the attitude of customer loyalty
- **Hypothesis 3:** Different strategies for experiential marketing will have a significant impact on customer value
- **Hypothesis 4:** Experiential marketing of different strategies for the customer loyalty attitude of the face of the impact of customer value through the intermediary effect

![Research hypothesis diagram](image)

**Figure 2. Research hypothesis**

**REFERENCE**

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"Design Hotel" (Fang Yuankai, 2009)
"big play design hotel" (Zhao Xiangyu, Zhao Yiwen, Liao Jingqing, 2016)

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THE HEALING SERVICESCAPE OF RESORT HOTELS: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

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Chih-Hung Wang, National Taichung University of Education  
Pei-Chun Lo, Taipei City University of Science and Technology

ABSTRACT

The servicescape is the product of the many efforts that businesses make to differentiate themselves. Recent studies have emphasized subjects who are in pursuit of a healthy balance of body, mind, and spirit when traveling. Therefore, this study aims to explore the healing factors of the hotel servicescape from the service providers’ and customers’ perspectives. The following research methods were utilized: a review of the literature relating to the healing environment; and in-depth interviews with hotel staff from wellness, hot spring, and resort hotels, as well as with customers. The empirical data is based on semi-structured interviews with 10 hotel staff and 2 customers from wellness, hot spring, and resort hotels in Taiwan. Based on the literature review and content analysis of the data, the healing servicescape of resort hotels can be summarized into five major categories: healing landscape design; healing physical design; healing layout; healing ambience; hygiene; and warm and thoughtful services. Hopefully, these results can give lodging managers a better understanding of the design of a healing servicescape and may serve as a reference for the hospitality industry in the fields of service design.

Keywords: healing, servicescape, resort hotel

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is essentially an amalgam of service industries. The psychological environment, also describable as the service experience, the subjective personal reactions and feelings experienced by consumers when they consume a service, has been found to be an important element in a consumer’s service satisfaction evaluation (Orsingher & Marzocchi, 2003). Martin-Ruiz, Barros- Castro, and Rosa-Diaz (2012) found the servicescape to be the strongest driver of service value when creating service experiences, followed by service equity. Major elements (e.g., service atmosphere and hotel facilities) in the service experience are significant contributors to the ease with which customers are able to relax and escape from their routines.

Modern lifestyle-related stress can have a negative impact on health, leading individuals to seek out sources of relaxation. With the increasing commercialization of and demand for health services and treatment landscapes, many businesses choose health and well-being tourism as part of their corporate strategy. It is the spas, wellness centers or programs that address this demand for wellness in society, and deal in the psychological, the spiritual, the physical and the behavioral (Wu, Robson & Hollis, 2013). In Taiwan, domestic tourism and leisure activities seek mainly to provide relaxation and a balance between the physical and mental (Chen, Chang, & Wu, 2013). Chen, Prebensen and Huan (2008) found the desires to relax, look for diversified health activities, take leisure, experience nature, enhance physical ability and socialize to be the main motivational factors for the wellness traveler (which is a denomination not limited to the elderly), with going on vacation and enjoying recreation the main customer motivations for those staying at wellness hotel in the North Great Plains region.

Healing is harmonious to the overall body, mind and spirit (Zborowsky & Kreitzer, 2008; Wickersheimer, 2013). Mehrabian and Russell (1974) suggested that, when an organism receives environmental stimulation, its mental state will be affected, resulting in approach or avoidance behaviors. This stimulus is interpreted as external, and includes a plurality of entities ultimately constituting the factor of ambience (Bagozzi, 1986). Therefore, when the customer experiences hotel service, the stimulation from the servicescape may generate a sense of healing, and thus produce
leisure benefits or behavioral intentions. The servicescape is also a physical factor, and can be used to increase or limit employee or customer actions (Bitner, 1992). Many previous studies have confirmed that the design of hotels, restaurants, professional offices, banks and retail facilities do indeed affect customer behavior and brand image (Baker, 1987; Bitner, 1992; Kotler, 1973).

Dryglas (2013), in considering both the healing and travel functions of a health resort, sorted them into two kinds of travel: healing tourism and health tourism. Dryglas (2013) suggested spa and wellness travel as innovative products suitable for adoption by health leisure resorts in Poland wishing to enhance their competitiveness. The current research related to the healing environment is mainly related to medical-based facilities. However, Lee’s (2011) outpatient study looked at medical care from a service design point of view and, taking medical healthcare facilities as a servicescape, constructed a conceptual framework, considering: medical facilities; perceptions of the servicescape; and the emotional and physiological states of the users, along with how they related to attitudes towards healthcare. The empirical results showed that the servicescape can be classified by both ambient conditions and serviceability factors, and that there exists a relationship between satisfaction with the facilities, the perceived quality of care, and approach behaviors.

Today, although some hotels have high standards and attractive aesthetic designs, they do, in general, lack physical, emotional and spiritual healing and restorative qualities (Malkin, 2003). Furthermore, Ezeh and Harris (2007) saw that the facets of the servicescape likely varied between different service industries. Therefore, with hospital becoming ‘hotelized’ and hotels becoming ‘healthlized’, healing hotels are on the rise. What are the factors in a resort hotel servicescape that can help customers produce a sense of healing? These issues currently lack for empirical research. Therefore, this study aims to explore the healing design factors of the hotel servicescape through a literature review and in-depth interviews to ascertain the service providers’ and customers’ perspectives on resort hotels. Hopefully, these results can give lodging managers a better understanding of the design of the healing servicescape and may serve as a reference for the hospitality industry in the fields of service design.

METHODOLOGY

Participants
This study used purposive sampling to select hotel staff and customers who could articulate their viewpoints and experiences in order to enhance the researcher’s understanding of the factors of healing servicescape of resort hotels. A total of 10 staff and 2 customers from five-star level wellness or resort hotels in Taiwan participated in this study.

Procedure and data analysis
An interview handbook ensured that the survey and interview proceeded smoothly. The handbook explained the definition of healing physical environment, and then listed the interview questions (Tsaur & Tang, 2013).

This study used purposive sampling to select the interviewees. Prior to the main interviews, one member of the wellness hotel staff was recruited for individual pilot interviews to identify the themes and to develop an interview guide for the main interviews. The employees were asked to respond to the question: “What are the existing servicescape designs that enhance the customer’s healing in body, mind and spirit? What are the principles of these designs? And what leisure benefits do they hope to give to customers? Please describe in detail.” The customers were asked to respond to the question: “What hotel servicescape designs have you experienced that have enhanced your healing in body, mind and spirit? Please describe in detail.” A content analysis method was used to analyze the results. The finalized interview format consisted of two parts, including questions relating to the resort hotel staffs’ viewpoints on the healing servicescapes of hotels, along with the staffs’ demographic information. The interviews ranged from 1 to 1.5 hours, with an average duration of 70 minutes. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim into text for data analysis. The researcher also took field notes after each interview highlighting significant areas covered in the interviews. Subsequently, content analysis method was used to analyze the results. Finally, each of the hotel staff member’s opinions concerning the composition of the healing
physical environment of hotels was separately coded and categorized.

To increase the reliability of the analysis, the researcher and two research assistants performed coding and examined the data to reach consensus regarding themes and categories. The analysis of respondents’ data, researchers’ interview notes, as well as the hotel websites of the participants were all used to achieve triangulation.

PRELIMINARY FINDINGS

Nature has always played an important role in humanistic medical care, with its strong relationship in myth and history to resurrection, healing and death (Gerlach-Spriggs, Kaufman, & Warner, 1998; Gougeon, 2008), and nature has helped inspire depressive patients, and has also provided positive mental and emotional therapy (Marcus & Barnes, 1996; Gougeon, 2008). Based on the literature review, and semi-structured in-depth interviews with staff and customers from five-star level wellness or resort hotels, the preliminary findings indicated that the principles of the healing servicescape of Resort Hotels are as follows: (1) Healing landscape design: Emphasizing the natural landscape to make people feel calm, relaxed and pleasant; (2) Healing physical design: Natural feeling, aesthetic design, and domestic atmosphere are the main concepts of interior design, creating a simple and stable experience for the soul; (3) Healing layout or decoration: Using artistic or green layouts gives people a feeling of healing; (4) Healing ambience: Light music and soft yellow lighting make people feel relaxed and warm; (5) Hygiene: Hotel sanitation and disinfection are regularly inspected; (6) Warm and thoughtful services: Treating the customers like family or friends makes them feel at home; thoughtful butler service.

CONCLUSION

The results of this study found that the factors of a resort hotel servicescape that can help customers experience a sense of healing could be the natural landscape, vitality, and domestic feeling. It appears that these can make customers experience healing feelings such as feeling relaxed and warm.

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BACKPACKERS AS MOBILE CONSUMERS IN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: FOCUS ON KOREAN BACKPACKERS

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INTRODUCTION

In this paper, experiences of Korean backpackers as mobile consumers are brought up as a main focus for a possible beneficial market segment in the hospitality industry. The demands of consumers are shifted from in an atmosphere of ‘having’ to ‘being’ and from ‘experience like’ to ‘authentic.’ Based on the concept, attention is drawn to investigate the mobile consumers with the dynamic economic growth in one of the Asian countries, particularly the Korean backpackers and their abroad experiences. Attracted by the fast growing numbers of Korean and Asian backpacking cultures, the experiences of Korean backpackers are selected as the topic to be introduced and analyzed in the perspectives of experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). More than a quarter of the Korean nation, 13 million out of 48 million people, traveled abroad in 2007 (National Statistical Office of Korea, 2010). The number of Korean people traveled increased to 19 million in 2015, an increase of 20% from the previous year (Korea Tourism Organization, 2016). Many factors such as the development of science and technology, demographic changes, economy, lifestyle, and value orientation have accelerated the development of outbound travel and the phenomenon in Korea since the liberalization of travel market in 1989 (Lee, 2007). As an effect of globalization and a rise of capitalism in Asia, the impact of the Korean wave or ‘Hallyu’ has significantly increased the popularity of South Korea culture around the world in the 21st century (Dator & Seo, 2004; Onishi, 2006; Hanaki et al., 2007; Ju, 2007; Couper, 2008; Nam, 2008; Jitlementcheep, 2010) and this newfound interest in all things ‘Korean’ has motivated Korean people to increase their interactions with other cultures as well. In addition, the soft power has been expanded through growing appeal and attraction of its popular culture worldwide enhancing Korea’s international standing and national image as well as shaping foreigners’ attitudes and preferences on issues of importance to Korea (Kim, 2016, August 4). Korean people’s backpacking overseas was considered as a way to fulfill and satisfy a personal interest and curiosity about foreign cultures, life styles, nature, etc. and a purpose of self-development and improvement in knowledge and experience (Choi & Kim, 2000). Somehow the attitude of the Korean backpackers based on the background of the current situation reflects the demand of consumers today which has emphasized by Pine and Gilmore (1999) and their way of consuming traveling experience is observed as mobile consumers who are able to move from one place to another buying experiences.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A literature review about the experience economy can be accomplished based on the understanding of the backpacking phenomenon in experience economy, evolution of hospitality industry in emergence to experience economy, and how they all are related. The research on existing literature is grounded. Cohen differentiated between institutionalized and non-institutionalized tourists and a typology of tourist role around a major distinction between them and his summary provides a fundamental base for contextualizing behavior in terms of society and change (as cited in Richards & Wilson, 2004, p.60). Later, Uriely et al. (2002) presented the theoretical distinction between types and forms of tourism that deconstruct backpacking. In their distinct tourism category, backpacking is considered as forms while the experiences of backpackers are the types. Their study raises questions, firstly, if Korean people will choose the form of backpacking as a way to travel and secondly, what are the types of experiences backpackers are looking for.
Backpacking falls into the study of tourism in hospitality context, and the understanding of hospitality activities is essential in order to explain the experiences of Korean backpackers under the concept of the experience economy. Hospitality activities can be divide into three domains; social, private, and commercial (Lashley, 2000). Therefore, backpacking can be explained as hospitality activities which involve and incorporate all three domains. Schmitt’s strategic experiential modules guide this study to focus on the sense, feel, think, act, and relate experiences of Korean backpackers (Schmitt, 1999). In addition, one of the seven philosophies on building great customer experiences suggested by Shaw and Ivens (2002) which is related to customer’s physical and emotional expectations is considered in the analysis. It is recognized that such a study on the elements of their experiences may contribute to understanding and knowledge of the interesting niche market.

METHOD

The research has been conducted based on three distinct backpacker groups in different stages of travel with ethical consideration, the first backpacker segment was evaluated while they were traveling Europe between 2008 and 2010, the second backpacker segment was evaluated post trip in 2009, and the third segment of veteran backpackers from 2009 and 2016. Total of twenty-seven samples were analyzed, nine of them were translated from Korean to English, through a marketing perspective of the experience economy in order to explore backpacking as a niche market area of hospitality tourism looking at what to focus on the experiences of Korean backpackers and what to consider in the creation of tourism products for backpackers to consume. In order to stay closer to the data and any observations to be made for backpackers, the qualitative approach is used which can increase the validity by taking the advantages of extended and intensive contacts with the interviewees (Phillimore & Goodson, 2004; Richards & Wilson, 2004). The process of the research is conducted going through multiple phases (Van Maanen, 1983, p.9) based on the topic from collecting natural language data, addressing methodological questions, analyzing, and concluding. Ethnography research method is applied for gathering empirical data through observations, interviews, and diaries in order to describe the nature of Korean backpackers (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). As a qualitative data analysis for the obtained data, the grounded analysis is used which provides a more open approach to data analysis and is closely linked to the idea of grounded theory (Easterby-Smith et al., 2009). Grounded theory is concerned with the discovery of new theoretical insights, innovations and the avoidance of traditional logical deductive reasoning (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Due to its characteristics, data collection and analysis occur simultaneously, with conceptual development arising from the data rather than through existing theory. Number of the formal coding processes is involved identifying themes, dividing the research material into units, and allocating the units to the theme. Discourse analysis takes place during the translation process (Pym, 1992). Hermeneutic or interpretative analysis is used in the analyzing process which allows not only material involving in the text, but other things in the interpretative process. Due to a language barrier and the cultural differences from the data, the hermeneutic approach is proper in order to include the prior aspects that affect communication.

FINDINGS

After merging all the inducted data gathered from the Korean backpackers, the research questions were answered which also guided to resolve problem statement through the analysis. Schmitt’s experiential modules are applied on what Korean backpackers sense of, feel about, think of, act towards, and relate to the places they have visited and things they have tried. Firstly, what the Korean backpackers have seen, heard, touched, smelled and tasted has been identified following the five senses of consumers which are known as the primary elements and based to a corporate or brand expression in the business world. The sensory experience plays as the reference point for the further experience in the future. Secondly on feel about, backpacking was not definitely the most pleasant way of traveling, in fact, each journey was somewhat consisted with some tough
challenges which caused negative emotions of anger, disgust, sadness, fear, etc. although the backpackers often felt joy, happiness, interest, pleasure, love, hope, etc. throughout the journeys. Thirdly on think of, they have become stimulated by observing the differences and particularly attentive to detail and differentiating things from one another. Backpacking journeys provide time for ones to go through some extent of reasoning and making rational decisions by recalling and remembering even small incidents.Fourthly on act towards, the participants learn about themselves by their physical body experiences and interaction with other people. Lastly on relate to, being with unfamiliar people and or being a stranger in some places is a very unique experience for Korean backpackers. It certainly invites the Korean backpackers to relate to other cultures, values, and differences based on their experiences of the social categorization and identity with cross-cultural values, reassessing who they have become after returning home. The analysis also reflects the second philosophy of Shaw and Ivens (2002) and the physical and emotional experiences of the participants have a positive influence on their lives after their return. All the participants answered “yes” to the question if they would like to backpack again. Some of them even insisted that they could not stop themselves from backpacking again with very open attitude for new, different, and authentic experiences.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Korean backpackers are highly ‘mobile people’ who seek for authentic experiences of the global world in the experience economy and they can be considered as stay-over consumers in the hospitality context. This research meant to explore the niche area of hospitality in the experience economy on Korean backpackers’ overseas backpacking hopefully can be contributed to the understanding and learning as a business activity. Backpackers are mobile people traveling from place to place, human beings who have to eat and sleep, and thinkers who communicate with the people around them. In fact, backpackers are type of consumers who frequently change places, compare, share or criticize about the consumed products and services based on their authentic experiences. However, what makes it unique to study the experiences of Korean backpackers is that they backpack in quite different style from the westerners. Unlike true drifters, nomads, wanderers, and hitchhikers, the Korean backpackers were determined to be more like affluent travelers or experience seekers who want to consume the backpacking experience. The findings give an assignment for the hospitality industry to work on the creation of authentic experiences for consumers. Careful research on Korean backpackers, especially physical and emotional experiences about their trips, has convinced tourism stakeholders that the backpacking experience can be determined as a sustainable differentiator. This will aid the hospitality industry to work on building great customer experiences and to enhance tourism sustainability. Traveling markets of the hospitality industry have been monopolized by older, wealthier people demographically and controlled by the government policies in the past. Due to the rise in incomes of newly industrializing countries and the globalization of traveling culture, there is likely an expansion of backpacking markets in the hospitality industry. Development of backpacking infrastructure has to be proposed by the hospitality industries and supported by the government and nations. As the experience seekers are expanding in numbers in the experience economy, an in depth study over the Easterner backpackers is necessary as well.

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WEARABLE TECHNOLOGY IN TRAVEL IS TAKING OFF

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INTRODUCTION

Pricewaterhouse Coopers (n.d.) forecasts sales of wearables could reach over 130 million units and gross almost $6 billion by 2018. Some of the advances in technology that are contributing to the growing acceptance of wearables include the natural evolution from smartphone technology that has become so prevalent and indispensable. Lowering costs of Micro-Electro-Mechanical Systems or MEMS sensors is a factor. The adoption of lightweight messaging standards that push traditionally heavy messages to smaller devices have encouraged the use of specific wearables as well. Another contributor is progress towards standardization in protocols for connecting devices and interoperability of devices through organizations such as the Industrial Internet Consortium (IIC) (Conyette, 2016b).

Aside from these contributing technological factors are the consumer behavioral factors that could influence acceptance of wearable technology devices. This paper identifies theoretical models and related variables such as the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), traveler’s prior knowledge and experience, and social acceptance of wearables that could help explain the adoption of wearables. The paper also anticipates the use of a conceptual framework that may be applicable in the future for assessing factors that lead to adoption (Conyette, 2016a).

A focus group was conducted to understand consumers’ experience and sentiments when using mobile devices and to anticipate consumers’ way of thinking when dealing with wearables and their possible impact on travel activities. Respondents embrace these devices because of what mobile and wearable devices do for users and also what the products mean to users. Technological advancements incorporated into devices empower consumers; the devices also provide reassurance that travelers could remain in touch with the people and information sources they deem important. The general views towards technology were positive but there are gender differences in attitudes towards technology. There is also a growing dependency on technology. Users and travelers are demanding more than simple streams of data and metrics.

METHOD

A focus group explored respondents’ experiences using mobile devices, perspectives on issues, frames of reference, sentiments, and ways of thinking when dealing with mobile devices, wearables and their impact on travel activities. The focus group consisted of 12 people ranging in age from early twenties to mid-sixties. There were seven women and 5 men. Focus group participants were selected given their interest and experience with travel, mobile devices and wearables and willingness to share their experiences. The sentiments expressed were useful in anticipating the popularity and demand of wearables and they provide some guidelines for makers of such devices if they wish to accelerate the adoption of such devices for the travel market.

FINDINGS

What mobile and wearable devices do for users and also what the products mean to users. Respondents want devices that provide more than simple streams of data and metrics; they want valuable, readily accessible and refined information that will improve their travel experience. They want to be enabled or empowered by such information and devices. In order to deliver this we could expect that devices will become truly wearable, easy to use and useful, not just portable devices containing data. Therefore, devices need to interface with humans like their second nature and become part of them. Imagine for instance, stretchable and flexible soft sensors that are developed in order to record stretch, bend, shear, and pressure such as those provided by a company called StretchSense (Kosir, 2015).
The general views towards technology are positive. The feelings of connectedness and comfort while using technological devices were evident in the focus group. For example, consumers using Android Wear devices and the Pebble watches can now receive TripCase travel notifications directly to their wearable devices. Smartwatch users with TripCase will receive real-time flight alerts, gate changes, and other travel information on their wrists (http://travel.tripcase.com/). Some information once exclusively provided by travel agents is now automated and sent to mobile or wearable devices.

Gender differences. There are gender differences in attitudes towards technology, and users depend on devices for communication and remaining in touch particularly during travel activities. Women view smart glasses as possibly intrusive; they don’t want to be removed from human connections. Men’s focus is on reliance on cellphones for their functionality or capability, availability, and durability.

Dependence on technology. This dependency applies perhaps predominantly to when one is travelling. Thus, reliability is a main concern when using cellphone or wearable technology. Travelers need to ensure their mobile devices are durable, charged with a back-up battery and ready to go. Dependency on mobile devices is understandable, but participants also show a “kind of anxiety” when not with their devices. People in general depend more and more on technology these days. Consumers do demand reliable and relevant power sources that enhance, monitor, or support their lives in some way. Consequently, it is easy to accept that further advances in battery technologies, including flexible fabric options, will further speed a smart textile’s adoption (Taraska, 2015).

Interrelationship of technological factors with theoretical variables. Insights from the focus group are interrelated with technological factors listed above and consumer behavioral factors described in theoretical models to explain adoption of mobile and wearable devices. For example, users’ intentions for adoption of various technology products have relied on Davis’s technology acceptance model (TAM). Many empirically researched models such as Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT) have also evaluated end users’ innovation adoption behavior. A singular model however may not be sufficient to explain the many variables influencing consumers to adopt the revolutionary technologies described in this paper. The characteristics of the innovations identified, flexible electronics and (MEMS) sensors, flexible smart fabrics, flexible batteries, and the nature of travel are unique; this distinctiveness could have an impact on the adoption of these technologies. Consider for example a new product, My UV Patch, which protects against skin cancer by monitoring exposure to the sun and sending the readings to a connected app (O’Hare, 2016). This product will be a welcomed sensor for vacationers to sunny destinations. However, adoption of this sort of wearable may be more related to variables such as traveler’s prior knowledge and experience with skin protection, and social acceptance of such a wearable.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Makers of wearables are taking note of user sentiments and understand the enabling nature of wearables for consumers, business and industry. Consequently, manufacturers are creating wearable devices to better facilitate travel activities, improve consumers’ lives and business operations. This paper investigated how and why travelers use mobile and wearable devices and how these devices and accompanying software could be improved to better facilitate travel activities.

It described the nature of innovations in wearables such as flexible sensors, smart fabrics and flexible batteries that could impact travelers in the future. It outlined some of the theoretical models and related variables that could affect adoption of such wearables. It also delineated some of the constructs of a conceptual framework that could be applicable for assessing factors that lead to adoption.

It is through flexible sensors, smart fabrics and pliable energy harvesting methods that can be easily attached, worn, sewn, ingested, embedded, implanted, or affixed to an individual or their clothing that wearable technology devices will make a giant leap forward and truly provide the empowering and attractive features that will make them very widely accepted in the 21st century.
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ADOPTING RECOMMENDATIONS FROM GUIDEBOOKS AND WOM WEBSITES: A STUDY OF JAPANESE INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

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INTRODUCTION

Tourists often rely on paper-based guidebooks to search for information before and during their travels. Moreover, with the development of technology and the growth of social media, which was born through the spread of social network connections, user-generated content (UGC) seems to play a more important role in tourists’ vacation planning (Leung et al., 2013). The development of social media makes UGC a far more valuable information source than traditional paper-based guidebooks for tourists to use as a reference (Adam, Cobos, & Liu, 2007; Parra-Lopez, Bulchand-Gidumal, Gutierrez-Tano, & Diaz-Armas, 2011). This study aims to explore how Japanese tourists consult guidebooks and word-of-mouth (WOM) websites when searching trip information, including how they adopt the recommendations from guidebooks and WOM websites during their travels. Among the total number of Japanese outbound tourists in 2015, 19% of tourists visited the American mainland (Japan Tourism Marketing Co., 2017), which is considered one of the major travel destinations in the Japanese outbound travel market (see Figure 1). Therefore, Japanese tourists who travel to the American mainland were selected as the focus of this study.

Figure 1. Outbound tourists in Japan, from 2006 to 2015
Source: Japan Tourism Marketing (2017)

In order to explore the research topic, variables used in previous research such as “Attitude” (Ayeh, Au, & Law, 2013), “Information quality” (Filieri, Alguezau, & McLeay, 2015), “Source credibility” (Filieri, et al. 2015), “Recommendation adoption” (Filieri, et al. 2015; Ayeh, et al. 2013), and “Perceived trust” (Filieri, et al. 2015) were adopted in this study for developing a conceptual framework. Attitude is believed an essential psychological construct because of its influence on and predication of many behaviors (Kraus, 1995), and it has been
shown to be positively related to behavior intention (Ajzen, 2001). Information quality refers to the quality of information that customers perceive based on information characteristics (Filieri, et al. 2015). Credibility is traditionally defined as the believability of some information (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953). In the tourism context, source credibility is particularly important due to the high perceived risk brought about by tourism's intangibility (Ayeh, et al. 2013). Tourists often find it difficult to evaluate a certain destination without having visited or prior knowledge. In this study, source credibility is approached as the perceived believability according to tourists of the publishers of guidebooks and the operating companies of WOM websites. Perceived trust refers to the trustworthiness according to tourists of the guidebooks and WOM websites they use for traveling to the American mainland, and recommendation adoption is believed a result of information search behaviors (Filieri, et al. 2015). The following hypotheses were developed for this study (see Figure 2).

Note: (a) refers to the case of guidebook; (b) refers to the case of WOM website.

Figure 2. Conceptual Framework

METHOD

A questionnaire was developed for this study adopting items that have been used in past research. All items were measured based on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The data for this study were collected by an online survey conducted by one of the biggest research companies in Japan in February, 2017. A screening test was conducted to select suitable respondents who have visited the American mainland in the past three years. In total, 10,078 respondents attended the screening test, of whom 979 reported they had visited the American mainland in the past three years. Within the number, 282 respondents indicated they had used both a guidebook and a WOM website before and during their travel to the American mainland. In this paper, 282 samples were used for the data analysis.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

A covariance structure analysis was employed to analyze the inter-relationships among “attitudes,” “information quality,” “source credibility,” “recommendation adoption,” and “perceived trust” in both a guidebook model and WOM website model. Based on the results of data analysis, hypotheses H2-1 (a), H2-1 (b), H2-2 (b), H4 (a), and H4 (b) were rejected, whereas other hypotheses were accepted. Table 1 and Figure 3 present results of the analysis.
Table 1. Hypotheses and Goodness of fit indexes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypoth.</th>
<th>Result</th>
<th>Hypoth.</th>
<th>Result</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1-1 (a): Attitude =&gt; SC</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>H1-1 (b): Attitude =&gt; SC</td>
<td>Supported</td>
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<tr>
<td>H1-2 (a): Attitude =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>H1-2 (b): Attitude =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-3 (a): Attitude =&gt; PERTR</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>H1-3 (b): Attitude =&gt; PERTR</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-1 (a): INFOQUAL =&gt; SC</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
<td>H2-1 (b): INFOQUAL =&gt; SC</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-2 (a): INFOQUAL =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>H2-2 (b): INFOQUAL =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-3 (a): INFOQUAL =&gt; PERTR</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>H2-3 (b): INFOQUAL =&gt; PERTR</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 (a): SC =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td>H3 (b): SC =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 (a): PERTR =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
<td>H4 (b): PERTR =&gt; ADO</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5: Attitude &lt;= INFOQUAL</td>
<td>Supported</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Model (a): $\chi^2$/df 3.662; CFI .939; NFI .918; RMSEA .097
Model (b): $\chi^2$/df 3.983; CFI .933; NFI .913; RMSEA .103

Note: SC = Source Credibility; ADO = Recommendation Adoption; INFOQUAL = Information Quality, PERTR = Perceived Trust

![Diagram of model (a) Guidebook](image1)

![Diagram of model (b) WOM website](image2)

**Figure 3. Standard Regression weight**

Note: *** indicates p<.001; ** indicates p<.05; no star indicates non-significant.

The results of a data analysis show that attitude had a positive effect on source credibility, recommendation adoption, and perceived trust in both models. This result implies the critical role of attitude in tourist information search behaviors using a guidebook or WOM website. Conversely, information quality did not affect recommendation adoption in the case of WOM websites. Interestingly, perceived trust did not influence recommendation adoption in comparison with source credibility, which implies that tourists treat the publishers of guidebooks and the operating companies of WOM websites as more important than the content of the guidebooks and WOM websites themselves in terms of decision-making.

As discussed previously, this study selected the American mainland as a focus of this study due to a large share among the Japanese outbound market. Therefore, the results of this study may not be applied to Japanese tourist traveling to other geographical locations such as Asian and European countries. The future research is suggested to include diverse destinations to extend the current knowledge on this topic.

REFERENCES


**Funding Acknowledgements**

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- Title of research project: “Exploring the theory and practice of Social CRM in service industry”.
- Research project number: 15K17151
- Research representative: Kaede Sano (Faculty of Tourism, Wakayama University)
DO THE ONLINE CUSTOMERS’ OVERALL RATINGS MEDIATE THE OPERATING CHARACTERISTICS AND HOTEL PERFORMANCE OF THE TOURIST HOTELS IN TAIWAN?

Yin-Ting Chiang, National Taiwan Normal University  
Chin-Yi Fang, National Taiwan Normal University

INTRODUCTION

With the view to expanding worldwide vision, the Tourism Bureau stopped the plum blossom rating system, and reevaluated and considered replacing the plum blossom rating system with a star rating system in Taiwan. The first star rating system launched in 2010. The hotel star rating is one of the indicators for tourists to evaluate hotel facilities and service quality. With the emergence of new technology tool, customers’ overall ratings on the online travel agencies (OTA) also undoubtedly influence tourists’ choices. Online customers’ overall ratings are the strongest predictors of hotel financial performance (Kim, Lim & Brymer, 2015). Hence, the aim of the paper is to investigate whether the new star rating system, customers’ overall ratings on OTA and other hotels’ characteristics influence the hotel performance in Taiwan. In particular, supported by the literature, the star rating and the operating characteristics had a positive impact on the customers’ overall rating and hotel performance. The customers’ overall rating had positive impact on hotel performance. Hence, the aims of the paper are to investigate the mediation effects of online customers’ overall ratings on the relationship between star rating, the operating characteristics and the hotel performance.

METHOD

The paper using the secondary data retrieved from the Executive Information System of the Tourism Bureau in Taiwan 2016 and OTA such as Expedia.com. The operational data and star ratings of the tourist hotels in Taiwan were also utilized at the same period as the observed sample of the study. Based on the model developed by Baron and Kenny (1986), the multiple regression analysis examined the mediator effects of the online customers’ overall ratings between the independent variables including star ratings, number of online reviews, number of rooms, number of employees, years of service, numbers of congress facilities and banquet facilities, contributing factor of foreign tourists, corporate affiliation, distance of hotel from the transportation hub and hotel performance measured by revenue per available room (RevPAR) and average daily rate as the dependent variables.

FINDINGS

Examined online customers’ overall ratings as a mediator.

Table 1 and Table 2 list the empirical result. Customers’ overall rating is a partial mediator between hotel star ratings and operating performance measured by both RevPAR. The direct effect and indirect effect of RevPAR are 0.275 and 0.095, respectively.

| Table 1. Multiple regression results with standardized coefficients—RevPAR |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
|                  | Model 1          | Model 2          | Model 3          |
|                  | Coeff. t-Value  | Coeff. t-Value  | Coeff. t-Value  |
| Independent variables |                  |                  |                  |
| star ratings      | .370*** 4.258    | .429*** 4.382    | .275*** 2.731    |
| number of online reviews | -.054 -.647       | .070 .742      | -.069 -.846      |
| number of rooms   | -.382*** -3.289  | -.313** -2.388  | -.313** -2.601  |
| number of employees | .363** 2.408    | .191 1.122      | .321** 2.146      |
| number of years in business | -.128 -1.504     | -.329*** -3.425 | -.055 -.592      |
| number of conference facilities and number of banquet facilities | .037 .412 | -.013 -.123 | .040 .452 |
## Model 1 - Percentage of Chinese travelers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of Chinese travelers</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>-1.78**</td>
<td>-2.218</td>
<td>-2.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>-1.78</td>
<td>-2.218</td>
<td>-2.29**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 2 - Percentage of Japanese travelers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of Japanese travelers</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>0.138*</td>
<td>1.686</td>
<td>0.143*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>0.138</td>
<td>1.686</td>
<td>0.143</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 3 - Percentage of South Korean travelers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of South Korean travelers</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.100</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.100</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 4 - Percentage of Hong Kongese and Macanese travelers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of Hong Kongese and Macanese travelers</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>0.206**</td>
<td>2.035</td>
<td>0.220**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>0.206</td>
<td>2.035</td>
<td>0.220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 5 - Percentage of Malay travels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of Malay travels</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.069</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.069</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 6 - Percentage of North American travelers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of North American travelers</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>0.252**</td>
<td>2.251</td>
<td>0.218*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>2.251</td>
<td>0.218</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 7 - Percentage of European travelers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of European travelers</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>-0.266**</td>
<td>-2.597</td>
<td>-0.257**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>-0.266</td>
<td>-2.597</td>
<td>-0.257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 8 - Percentage of other travelers (i.e., overseas Chinese travelers and travelers from other regions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Percentage of other travelers (i.e., overseas Chinese travelers and travelers from other regions)</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>-0.206</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>-0.206</td>
<td>-0.023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Model 9 - Enterprise chain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enterprise chain</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>-0.108</td>
<td>-1.498</td>
<td>-0.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>-0.108</td>
<td>-1.498</td>
<td>-0.194</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Table 2. Multiple regression results with standardized coefficients—Average daily rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>t-Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Star ratings</td>
<td>.341***</td>
<td>3.314</td>
<td>.429***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of online reviews</td>
<td>-1.82*</td>
<td>-1.848</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of rooms</td>
<td>-3.47**</td>
<td>-2.520</td>
<td>-3.13**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of employees</td>
<td>.377**</td>
<td>2.111</td>
<td>.191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years in business</td>
<td>-0.999</td>
<td>-0.976</td>
<td>-3.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of conference facilities and number of banquet facilities</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.342</td>
<td>.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Chinese travelers</td>
<td>-1.88*</td>
<td>-1.978</td>
<td>-2.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Japanese travelers</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.320</td>
<td>-.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of South Korean travelers</td>
<td>-1.07</td>
<td>-1.130</td>
<td>-.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Hong Kongese and Macanese travelers</td>
<td>.236*</td>
<td>1.966</td>
<td>-.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Singapore travelers</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Malaysian travelers</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>-.481</td>
<td>-.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of travelers from other parts of Asia</td>
<td>-.066</td>
<td>-.788</td>
<td>-.171**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of North American travelers</td>
<td>.209</td>
<td>1.572</td>
<td>.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Other travelers (i.e., overseas Chinese travelers and travelers from other regions)</td>
<td>-.301**</td>
<td>-.248**</td>
<td>-.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of New Zealand and Australian travelers</td>
<td>.331**</td>
<td>2.027</td>
<td>.178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance between hotels and their nearest transportation hub in meters</td>
<td>-.115</td>
<td>-1.344</td>
<td>-.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online customers’ overall ratings</td>
<td>.276***</td>
<td>3.458</td>
<td>-.101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Adjusted R2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>Model 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coeff.</td>
<td>.774</td>
<td>.713</td>
<td>.784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Model 1. dependent variable = RevPAR
| Model 2. dependent variable = Online customers’ overall ratings
| Model 3. dependent variable = RevPAR

* p<0.1 ** p< 0.05 *** p<0.01.
Investigated the relationship between other characteristics and operating performance.

For number of rooms, customers’ overall rating is a partial mediator to operating performance based on Table 1 and Table 2. Moreover, number of rooms had significantly negative effect on hotel performance. Chen (2009) also found the hotel size had negative impact on performance. However, customers’ overall rating is the only complete mediator between visitor arrival rate from Mainland China and RevPAR and it revealed negative effect. Radojevic, Stanisic and Stanic (2017) indicated that GDP of the inbound tourists had the positive impact on the customer ratings; however, this paper found that the visitor arrival rate from Mainland China had the negative impact on hotel performance. This findings supported that the price of package tours from Mainland China had been lower than the average market price during the severe competition in Taiwan, leading to the price cut competition and negative impact on the hotel performance.

IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of the study indicated that hotel executives should devote themselves to not only customers’ overall ratings on OTA but also hotel star ratings to increase the hotel operation performance in Taiwan. The facility and service quality are the key factors to influence the star rating result. Hence, the hotel managers need to benchmark the five-star hotels to enhance the facility and service quality in order to increase the RevPAR and average daily rate.

The empirical results also supported that customer overall rating is the partial mediator on the relationship between the star rating and hotel performance. Baka (2016) developed the online reputation model including (1) identifying the reputation landscape; (2) assessing rating changes over time; (3) ascertaining publication reach & readership; (4) comparing against industry competitors; (5) reviewing & contrasting ranking methodologies; (6) increasing reputational scores in order to increase the customer overall ratings.

Future research could extend to include other OTA to generalize this empirical result and also have the benefit for the hoteliers.

REFERENCES


STUDENTS’ TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS: A MULTINATIONAL COMPARATIVE STUDY

Asad Mohsin, The University of Waikato Management School
Jorge Lengler, Durham University
Catarina Marques, ISCTE Business School

INTRODUCTION

The student travel market continues to attract researchers due to its multidimensional and unique characteristics in terms of activities preferences, interest in natural and cultural attractions, and what motivates them to travel. This appeal is further enhanced due to limited research and the promising potential evident from receipts reaching US$165 billion in 2010 (UNWTO and WYSE, 2011; Limanond, Butsingkorn, and Chermkunthod, 2011; Kim, Hallab, and Kim, 2012; Chen, 2012; Xiao, So, and Wang, 2015). Other studies suggest that even short study trips could influence their attitudes towards and perceptions of travel (Peggy, 2011; Eom, Stone, and Ghosh, 2009; Bywater, 1993; Carr, 2005; Hobson and Josiam, 1992). The growing trend of international student exchange programmes, international internships, ease of travel due to reduced fares and flight connections, have all added to an increase in student travel. Several studies suggest that perceptions and previous travel experiences influence travel motives to a destination (Bonn, Joseph, and Mo, 2005; Beerli and Martin, 2004; Chon, 1991; Echtner and Ritchie, 2003; Xiao et al., 2015). Hence, assessing perceptions about destinations, touristic attractions/activities, trends and specific interests is of both literal and commercial benefit. Comparative studies help to create synergies in marketing. In other words, this study adds to the literature and provides information for practitioners, in this case destination managers and marketers.

According to a meta-analysis undertaken by Li (2014), between 1988 (when the first paper on comparative studies in tourism management was published) and 2011, only 91 articles reported comparative investigations; these covered a range of eight topics, one of which was travel motivation (represented by only nine studies, thereby reflecting a dearth of comparative research focusing on travel motivation). Moreover, of those with a travel motivation focus, none involved more than three countries. In other areas of the literature, however, such as marketing and human resources, researchers have been prolific in producing comparative studies. For instance, in the area of marketing there are journals which are dedicated to international studies, including the comparative ones (Cadogan, 2010). The current study attempts to fill the gap identified and to bring new insights to the tourism literature through a comparative study that explores the travel motives of students from eight countries, i.e. Brazil, India, Malaysia, Pakistan, Portugal, Spain, Thailand and the USA. A sample of 3,431 students is obtained, and considered valuable as students are regarded as tourists of the future in the current study.

METHOD

To meet our purpose of describing the patterns of interest in touristic activities/interest and behaviour across different countries, students from eight countries - Brazil, Portugal, Spain, the USA, Malaysia, Thailand, Indian, and Pakistan – have been surveyed. The same structured questionnaire was used in all eight countries to gather datasets. Initially, the instrument was written in English and then translated into the local language, if English was not used as the main language of instruction.

The data analysis procedure was composed of three major drivers according to the aims of the research: (1) the characterisation of potential tourists by country, and identification of their differences and commonalities in terms of destination attractions/activities, travel motives, and socio-demographics, (2) the definition of tourists’ typologies according to the touristic attractions/activities provided by destinations such as New Zealand (NZ), and lastly, (3) the relationship between country and typologies of potential tourists. To characterise the potential tourists, two Principal Component
Analyses (PCA) were undertaken on the touristic attraction/activities and motivation statements for data reduction purposes. Parametric (One way ANOVA and the Robust Test of Brown-Forsythe) and Non-parametric (Kruskal-Wallis and Chi-Square) tests were used to assess differences between groups and between nationalities of respondents. Measures of descriptive statistics were also used in order to characterise the sample and the potential tourists by nationality and typologies.

FINDINGS

Eight principal components were identified, and these were responsible for explaining 61.4% of total variance. Promax rotation was used because it achieved a simpler and theoretically more meaningful solution than the traditional varimax method (Hair et al., 2005). The significance of Bartlett’s test of sphericity (p<0.01) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistic value of 0.924 indicate that the data are suitable to identify dimensions. The principal components were named “Experiencing Adventure”, “Experiencing Native Culture”, “Complementarity/Experiencing Sites”, “Experiencing Generic Wildlife”, “Country Pursuits”, “Functionality”, “Urban Experience”, and “Experiencing Specific Wildlife”. A second PCA was carried out to reduce the 16 items of students’ travel motivations. Four dimensions were uncovered explaining 55.5% of total variance and named as follows: “Relax”, “Challenge and Enjoy”, “Social Connections” and “Discovery”.

The typologies of students as potential tourists were created using the Ward and K-means clustering methods based on the preferences for touristic destination attributes. Seven clusters were identified by the Ward method. The obtained Ward solution was used as initial solution for the K-means method. The name assigned to each cluster was based on its distinctive attractions/activities as (1) Explorers (2) Soft Explorers (3) Sightseers (4) Novelty Seekers (5) Avoiders (6) Functionality Seekers (7) Adventurers.

Table 1 shows how students of each country are distributed across the clusters. The Western respondents are more concentrated in clusters 3 and 4 while Asians appear in larger proportions in clusters 1, 6 and 7. Brazilians are an exception: they are distributed across clusters 4, 1 and 7. These findings are not surprising as they are in accordance with the above description of what attract respondents the most. That is, more than half of Americans, Portuguese, and Spanish students are Sightseers and Novelty Seekers as they are more attracted by the idea of visiting different places. Pakistanis, Indians, Thais, and Malaysians are mainly distributed across the groups of Explorers, Functionality Seekers, and Adventurers (clusters 1, 6 and 7 respectively); they are more attracted by the country pursuits, the functionality of destinations, and also by site experiences, which are characteristics of the members of these groups. Thais have more than a quarter of their respondents in the second cluster, the Soft Explorers, who are mainly focused on the functionality of destinations as they are close to places where they can do business and study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>(1) Explorers</th>
<th>(2) Soft Explorers</th>
<th>(3) Sightseers</th>
<th>(4) Novelty Seekers</th>
<th>(5) Avoiders</th>
<th>(6) Functionality Seekers</th>
<th>(7) Adventurers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>22.9%</td>
<td>11.6%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
<td>31.2%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
<td>33.2%</td>
<td>27.6%</td>
<td>1.9%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>37.6%</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>23.5%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
<td>19.2%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>30.0%</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
<td>8.4%</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>16.6%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>25.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
<td>17.2%</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The travel motivations and attractions/activities debate has been relevant in the tourism management subject area for the last 20 years, yet all of the studies conducted by scholars have predominantly included samples limited to one or a few countries (Li, 2014). Consequently, recent studies have advocated the need for more studies comparing samples from different nationalities and countries. To bridge this gap in the literature, this study not only explores an under-researched segment of student travel (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Shoham et al., 2004; Hallab, Price, and Fournier, 2006; Chhabra, 2012; Bicikova, 2014), but also generates a comparative study of which there is a dearth in tourism literature (Wang and Walker, 2010; Li, 2014; Ballantyne, Gannon, Berret, and Wells, 2012). The uniqueness of the study is reflected by the fact that it surveys 3,431 respondents representing eight countries i.e. Brazil, India, Malaysia, Pakistan, Portugal, Spain, Thailand, and the USA, and compares the behaviour of students as potential tourists from those countries. All responses from the eight countries were collected using the same questionnaire. Our aim was to understand tourists’ typologies based on touristic attractions/activities, the specific characteristics of respondents by country, and the identification of differences and commonalities of tourist motivations from the eight countries surveyed. Research about Portuguese, Spanish, Brazilian, and Pakistani students’ travel motives and attractions/activities in the English literature is almost non-existent. Overall, the countries represented the Asian, European, North and South American parts of the globe.

Finally, like all studies, this one has limitations which relate to the subjectivity of responses, and hence, the results should be considered in light of this. Moreover, the type of respondents – university students – represent a particular market segment, and other potential tourist groups (e.g. elderly tourists, business, family) should be targeted by future studies. Further research can also expand the comparisons to other developing countries, especially those from other regions of the world (e.g. Africa). Nonetheless, despite these limitations, the study provides valuable findings for other researchers undertaking comparative studies, in addition to the significant information it produces for destination marketers and managers to help them use their resources effectively and efficiently in generating customised strategies.

REFERENCES


**Acknowledgement:**
The authors acknowledge the help from Dr. Lada Kurpis (Gonzaga University, USA) and Dr. Alejandro Fernandez (CESUGA, Spain) during the data collection process.
ANTECEDENTS OF HOSPITALITY STUDENT EXPATRIATION WILLINGNESS

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INTRODUCTION

The global expansion of hospitality operations makes it imperative for international hospitality firms to function effectively in foreign environments. Scholars and practitioners alike agree that a firm’s success in cross-border business endeavors depends not only on competitive management but, even more importantly, on well-trained and motivated expatriate managers (Causin & Ayoun, 2011). Therefore, given the need for effective expatriate managers, one of the most urgent responsibilities of hospitality educators and scholars is to identify and develop students who possess characteristics that give them the ability to work as an expatriate.

Despite the recognition of the important roles of effective expatriate managers, however, the topic of student interest or willingness to perform in expatriate assignments (or expatriation willingness, EXPAT) has not been considerably discussed in hospitality academia, and subsequently received little attention to the determinants of student EXPAT.

To date, only a few researchers have identified factors that determine hospitality student willingness to accept expatriate assignments in the future. Further,

Theoretical attention has not been directed toward the effect of personal-capability factors although research generally suggests that one’s willingness for future commitment can be leveraged by certain personal capabilities (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, previous research concentrated more on identifying determinants of student EXPAT, so explaining and proving through theoretical underpinning how identified determinants lead to EXPAT is limited. These gaps in research result in a critical need for rigorous exploration seeking factors in personal capabilities.

In this regard, cultural intelligence (CQ) is a meaningful concept to fill these research gaps because it is an important personal-capability variable that relates to cultural diversity. CQ refers to the ability to detect, assimilate, reason, and appropriately act on cultural cues in situations characterized by cultural diversity (Earley & Ang, 2003). Given that one of the primary causes of expatriation failure is the inability to adapt to the destination culture, cultural traits, and business environment as well as interact with local staff (Magnini & Honeycutt, 2003), CQ may very well predict EXPAT and show the relationships between EXPAT.

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to investigate the role of CQ on EXPAT among hospitality students. To achieve this purpose, we developed a relationships model consisted of CQ, EXPAT, and two forms of hospitality students’ intercultural experience: international travel and intercultural social contact (ISC) with foreigners. We proposed that students’ (1) intercultural experience of international travel and ISC are positively related with EXPAT; (2) international travel and ISC are positively related with CQ; (3) CQ is positively related to EXPAT; and (4) CQ mediates the relationships between intercultural experiences and EXPAT.

These hypotheses are drawn upon the job demands-resources theory (i.e., job-related resources help employees in personal growth and achieving goals, Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and self-efficacy theories (i.e., a job-related sense of self-efficacy can increase effort and persistence in working toward goals, finishing tasks, and meeting challenges, Bandura, 1997).

These hypotheses are also supported by previous study findings. For example, according to Ayoun et al. (2014), Moon et al. (2013), and Shaffer and Miller (2008), travelling abroad and previous work or non-work experiences in a
foreign country bring an enriching, first-hand experience which gives one experience of other cultures of the world and affords their comfort level with other ways of life in different cultures facilitate the formation of accurate work expectations in the foreign cultures. Extended, direct contact with culturally diverse people may also develop more positive intergroup attitudes and social acceptance like a reduction of stereotyping and enhancement of personalization, ultimately leading to further growth in CQ and EXPAT.

METHOD

The sample consisted of 370 undergraduate students majoring in lodging management, food and beverage management, convention and event management, and tourism in 14 hospitality programs in public universities in the U.S. Online survey questionnaire was used to collect data. CQ was measured using the 9-item Mini-Cultural Intelligence Scale (Mini-CQS) developed by Ang and Van Dyne (2008). Intercultural travel and living experiences were measured using three items that ask frequency of international travels, the number of previous travel, and the length of stay in foreign countries. Daily ISC was assessed using three items that asks frequency and intensiveness of face-to-face interactions and interaction on social media. EXPAT was measured using nine items designed to assess students’ desire or willingness to accept international assignments. Overall the scale reliability alpha coefficient of these measures exceeded the standard cut-off value of .70 in previous research. The hypothesized relationship models were tested and analyzed via structural equation modeling (SEM). Respondents’ age, gender, ethnicity, school year, GPA, and work experience were included as control variables when testing direct relationships.

FINDINGS

Hypotheses 1 predicted that international travel and ISC would increase student EXPAT. Results of this study showed that both international travel (β = .11, p < .001) and ISC (β = .20, p < .001) significantly contributed to predicting CQ when demographic variables were controlled. Hypothesis 2 proposed that international travel and ISC predict CQ. The result also showed that the effect of international travel on CQ was significant (β = .10, p < .001) along with that of ISC on CQ (β = .41, p < .001), supporting Hypothesis 2. Additionally, the estimates of the standardized coefficients indicated CQ and EXPAT are linked (β = .28; t = 4.17, p < .001), supporting Hypothesis 3. Finally, Hypothesis 4 proposed the mediating effect of CQ on the relationships between international travel and EXPAT and between ISC and EXPAT. Result showed that the strength of the direct relationships reduced when CQ was added to the models (For the relationship between international travel and EXPAT: constrained model, β = .27 and mediating model, β = .21; for the relationship between ISC and EXPAT: constrained model, β = .36; mediating model, β = .22). The Sobel (1982) tests also confirmed the statistical significance of the mediated effect.

CONCLUSION

This study focused on determinants of the future intention of expatriation among hospitality students and found that hospitality students who traveled internationally, have social interactions with people from different cultures, and have high CQ are more likely to accept the possibility of expatriate assignments. More importantly, this study revealed that international travel/living experiences enhance student CQ, and therefore, students become psychologically comfortable and confident, considering themselves as more equipped with the skills and abilities needed for carrying out international tasks.

By extending the focus of research on the determinants of EXPAT to an individual-level personal capability factor, this study enriches our understanding of what makes students more likely to accept expatriation and succeed and increases awareness of CQ as a practically and theoretically valuable construct that can be further studied for future cross-cultural research. Furthermore, by unravelling the relational mechanism from intercultural experiences to EXPAT via CQ, this study contributes to the hospitality literature in broadening the understanding of the mechanism explaining why students with intercultural experiences are more likely to accept expatriation.
assignments.

For hospitality businesses, the findings of this study help practitioners select the best employee for expatriate employment. By using CQ, human resource professionals can determine the best applicant for international employment. Increasing knowledge of CQ, hospitality managers can have a positive influence on their organizations, and also on the customers of their organizations.

For educators, our results could be used to formulate new ways of increasing CQ throughout the hospitality management curriculum. Educators should go beyond educating students in technical skills needed to succeed in the hospitality industry, but also focus on soft skill development, particularly in CQ because of its potential impact on future career success.

The findings of this study should be interpreted in light of its limitations associated with common method variance, use of cross-sectional data, and generalizability of the findings to other contexts. Furthermore, future research may extend our findings by identifying mediating variables and developing more extended, theory-based path models that link the antecedents and EXPAT via these as yet unidentified mediators.

REFERENCES


ANALYSIS OF STUDENT VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE AT CONFERENCES: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE FIRST WORLD CONFERENCE ON TOURISM FOR DEVELOPMENT

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Karen Smith, Victoria University of Wellington
Ian Yeoman, Victoria University of Wellington
Jiaojiao Xie, Shandong Tourism Vocational College

INTRODUCTION

According to the World Tourism Organization (2014), meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions (MICE) have become the key drivers of economy growth globally. As an essential branch of MICE, the conference industry is booming. Contrasting the recent conference industry developments with the current focus of academic research, it is noted that there is a paucity of research on the issues of volunteering at this emerging event type. Even as related studies on event volunteering have investigated sports event volunteerism and festival volunteerism extensively (e.g. Alexander, Kim, & Kim, 2015), there has yet to be a produced specific study employing in-depth interviews for an international conference such as the First World Conference on Tourism for Development (FWCTD). This failing leaves a crucial knowledge gap where volunteers are concerned. Further, relatively little of the research that has investigated event volunteering has been conducted focusing on students. To fill this gap and provide stimulus for further work in this emerging area, this research explores the student volunteers’ experiences taking the FWCTD as a case study, and mainly focuses one overarching question– What are student volunteers’ experiences at this conference? To do this, there are four sub-questions:

1. Who are the student volunteers?
2. What do the student volunteers do at the conference?
3. Why do student volunteer at the conference?
4. What are the student volunteers’ perceptions towards their volunteering?

METHODOLOGY

The FWCTD was held in Beijing, China from 18th to 21th May 2016 with a specific view to advancing the contribution of tourism to the Sustainable Development Goals (Regional Programme for Asia & the Pacific, 2016). It was jointly organized by the China government and the UNWTO. This conference brought together leaders in the areas of tourism and development to spur dialogue and create a better understanding of tourism’s contribution to development, including poverty alleviation and peace.

Considering the fact that this research is exploratory and constructivist in nature, in-depth interviews were selected as the most appropriate method. One-to-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with 18 student volunteers. This study initially recruited two Bachelor students for a pilot study before the interviews. The results led to minor changes to the interview guide and questions asked, and also laid the foundation for the main phase of the data collection. Based on a review of existing event volunteering literature and the pilot study, the interview questions were developed. The finalized interview guide consisted of four sections and student participants were asked to describe their: (a) roles at the conference; (b) motivations of volunteering at this conference; (c) experiences of volunteering; (d) perceptions towards their volunteer activities. The interviews, which generally lasted around an hour, were conducted in Chinese, audio-recorded, and then transcribed for analysis. The recorded interviews were transcribed into MS word comprising a total word count of 50,071, and content analysed the data thematically.

Thematic analysis is a method of content analysis especially appropriate for the analysis of qualitative interview data obtained from in-depth semi-structured interviews (Kelley et al., 1999). Following Luborsky’s (1994) procedures, the
author first became acquainted with the texts by reading the transcripts without taking notes. After that, some main points were identified in the following reading. According to Luborsky (1994), themes are generalized verbatim statements about their thoughts, attitudes, and values from respondents. In this paper, themes consist of statements concerning participants’ roles, motivations, experiences and perceptions of volunteering at the FWCTD.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to understand student volunteers experiences and perceptions of the volunteer activity at the FWCTD. This was identified from the descriptions of their experiences, their attitudes towards this conference, and descriptions of the activity. Taking the numbers of categories references and the word frequency statistics into consideration, the 17 categories and 86 codes were reduced to 15 categories and 25 codes.

Who are volunteers?

Features of the student volunteers were the first question discussed in this research. The categories identified therein were university students, rigorous selection process, high language ability, and systematic training.

What do they do?

A variety of volunteer roles. The volunteer service involved a variety of job categories, like airport arrival and departure, protocol and language, press and communication, registration services, and conference/forums services. Many of these roles had high requirements for the volunteers. Many participants (interviewee 2, 6, 13, 15, 18) had the perceptions of difficulty to perform their roles well.

Why do they volunteer at the FWCTD?

Students get involved in the volunteering at this conference for a range of reasons. Responses from the participants ranged from “it’s worthy to get involved in such a world-class conference” (interviewee 11), to “gain information in the field of tourism” (interviewee 4), to “sense of participation” (interviewee 5). On the whole, the following three themes are the main reasons for why students volunteered at this conference: a major-related learning process, experiences that make a difference, for its world-class reputation.

What are volunteers perceptions?

Participant interview data revealed that volunteers’ perceptions of their volunteer activity ranged from “it is no longer a pure volunteer activity, more like a social practice” (interviewee 14) to “an extracurricular activity that relates to my own study” (interviewee 7). The characteristics of conference work and the selection process make volunteering a challenging experience, and volunteers see this as a practice and training opportunity. In this sense, the volunteers perceive this volunteer activity as no longer a pure volunteer behaviour, rather an activity with the elements of social practice and service learning.

CONCLUSION

Findings from the present study indicate that student volunteers at the FWCTD have certain expertise and they help the operation of the conference with their talents. The relatively high ‘thresholds’ differentiate them from volunteers in other fields, so ‘professional’ is a new characteristic of this group. A variety of reasons have been found for why they volunteer, while ‘to learn’, ‘to experience’ and ‘reputation’ are three key motives among their motivations. Volunteering at the FWCTD brings them different feelings with volunteering at other events or fields, so their experiences, in turn, may be influenced by motivations and types of volunteer activities.

There are three implications for this research. Firstly, conference organizers should target volunteers equipped with the required expertise, and put the right people in the right roles to make sure there are good matches for their skills. Students are well-educated and have certain fields of knowledge, so they are the ideal candidates, but training is necessary to make sure that they are qualified volunteers. Secondly, volunteer to learn is a depiction of student volunteers at the conference, so maximizing the opportunities for them to gain new skills and develop abilities could be a good way of recruiting volunteers. Unavoidably, training is an important way to gain new skills and also a criterion for students to judge the normalization of volunteer activity. The reputation and influence of the conference directly related to volunteers’
perceptions, the higher level of the conferences are, the more eye-opening experience they expect. Thirdly, comparing with volunteering at non-profit fields or even other events, volunteering at conferences has its own features as discussed above. When marketing the volunteer program, the organizers should emphasize the platform they can provide to the volunteers for them to practice and to learn, rather than trying to appeal to students’ sense of their volunteerism or social responsibility.

With the help of qualitative in-depth interviews, this research described some aspects of student volunteering at the FWCTD held in China. Although the interviews provided a variety of information to understand this phenomenon, this study was limited to only 18 participates. Though it has apparent that the data has already been saturated after the 10th interview, the sample size could have been extended. Also, the participants were mainly from four universities in Beijing, so it maybe slightly biased. It is very likely that students from other universities or regions do not agree with the participants in this research.

The FWCTD is a worldwide conference in the tourism field and the volunteer program is organized by the government (Beijing League Committee). Certainly, volunteers’ motivations, roles, and experiences will be not the same as those at the conferences of regional or national levels, and conferences in other fields. More research is recommended to uncover student volunteering at different conferences. When analysing individuals’ experience of volunteering, the cultural and social background plays an important role. It can be assumed that many facets of motivations, experiences, and perceptions exist due to the conference destination’s culture variables. This research was conducted in the Chinese context, and the unique characteristics of China’s political and cultural constellation pose fundamental challenges to using the western conceptual lens (Hustinx, Handy, & Cnaan, 2012).

In China, volunteering fundamentally differs as volunteering behaviour is seen as a superior type of morality and respectable social behaviour (Xu & Ngai, 2009). Especially students are the main force of volunteering in China and volunteering initiatives are driven from the top-to-bottom (Xu, 2013). This explorative study may provide a starting point for investigating student volunteering at conferences in China. However, it should be very cautious to generalize the findings in other countries.

REFERENCES


SOURCING TOURISM MANPOWER BEHIND BARS: TOURISM INDUSTRY–ORIENTED SKILLS TRAINING IN A PROVINCIAL JAIL

Bernadeth B. Gabor, Bataan Peninsula State University

INTRODUCTION

The Bataan Peninsula State University (BPSU) created by Republic Act 9403 on March 22, 2007 has the mandate to provide advanced instruction and professional training, undertake research, extension services and production activities in support of the socioeconomic development of Bataan and provide progressive leadership in its areas of specialization. For almost a decade, the University has been consistent in this mandate. With the various extension projects conducted with barangay folks all over the province, the BPSU Office of Extension Services charted a unique community in 2010 by identifying the Bataan District Jail as one of the recipients of development programs from the University. Anchored on the mandates of both institutions, the training program on tourism-related activities for the inmates of BDJ started with the profiling and needs assessment of the inmates. After the series of trainings, one of the visible and quantifiable results of the program is the establishment of tourism-related industries inside the facility. Moreover, after many of the inmates were released, majority of them are now employed in tourism industries, applying the skills they learned inside the detention facility. Over the past years, there has been a growing trend towards the better use of evaluation to understand and improve practice. The systematic use of evaluation has solved many problems and helped countless community-based organizations do what they do better. (CDC, 1999). Based on the results of the study, the program has impacted the lives of the clients from the inside to the outside of the facility. This shows that even in a secluded place such as a jail, hope can thrive and enable people to still take part in society and that tourism education professionals can take part in providing solutions to the unique problems of Philippine society.

METHOD

Program evaluation (CDC, 1999) developed by the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) offers a way to understand and improve community health and development practice using methods that are useful, feasible, proper, and accurate. This method is also applicable with other community development programs. The framework described below is a practical non-prescriptive tool that summarizes in a logical order the important elements of program evaluation.

More than 100 detainees and ex-detainees from the Bataan District Jail were included as respondents in this study. For data that need statistical treatment, Mean and standard deviation and Pearson Product Moment of Correlation were used.

FINDINGS

The following are just some of the major findings of the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills Training and Technology Transfer Level of Implementation</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Over-all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indicators</td>
<td>Mean ± SD</td>
<td>DR</td>
<td>Mean ± SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The skills I learned are functional.</td>
<td>4.12 ± 0.86</td>
<td>VH</td>
<td>3.91 ± 1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The skills taught me helped me in increase my income.</td>
<td>3.71 ± 1.15</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>2.89 ± 1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The skills I learned improved my self-esteem</td>
<td>4.43 ± 0.75</td>
<td>VH</td>
<td>4.46 ± 0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have taught other people the skills I learned.</td>
<td>4.17 ± 0.90</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>4.18 ± 0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVER-ALL</td>
<td>4.11 ± 0.75</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>3.86 ± 0.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Over-all Descriptive Rating of the Level of Administrative Capability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Over-all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>DR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>VH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel and Staff</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>VH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>VH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVER-ALL</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>VH</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive Rating of the Economic and Social Impacts of the Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic: Employed as a result of the skills learned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES 15 16.3 5 10.9 20 14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO 77 83.7 41 89.1 118 85.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL 92 100 46 100 138 100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Social: House: Able to improve their house as a result of the income derived from the income generated after the training

| YES 12 13 3 6.5 15 10.9 |
| NO 80 87 43 93.5 123 89.1 |
| TOTAL 92 100 46 100 138 100 |

Social: Appliances - Able to buy appliances because of the income generated from the employment as a result of the skills learned

| YES 15 16.3 4 8.7 19 13.8 |
| NO 77 83.7 42 91.3 119 86.2 |
| TOTAL 92 100 46 100 138 100 |

Social: Self-esteem - Has your self-esteem improved because of the skills you learned?

| YES 78 84.8 42 91.3 120 87 |
| NO 14 15.2 4 8.7 18 13 |
| TOTAL 92 100 46 100 138 100 |

Social: Health and Nutrition - Health has improved because of the information received

| YES 85 92.4 46 100 131 94.9 |
| NO 7 7.6 0 0 7 5.1 |
| TOTAL 92 100 46 100 138 100 |

Social: Environment - Backyard has improved as a result of the information drive on environmental management

| YES 72 78.3 40 87 112 81.2 |
| NO 20 21.7 6 13 26 18.8 |
| TOTAL 92 100 46 100 138 100 |

Correlation Matrix of the Implementation of the BPSU Extension Office Programs and Administrative Capability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Capability</th>
<th>Personnel and Staff Capability</th>
<th>Financial Capability</th>
<th>Over-all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.732**</td>
<td>.707**</td>
<td>.699**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Implemention of BPSU Extension Programs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attainment of Objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Adopt a Community and School Program    |
| Pearson Correlation                     |
| Sig. (2-tailed)                         |
| N                                       |
| 138                                     |

| Over-all                                |
| Pearson Correlation                     |
| Sig. (2-tailed)                         |
| N                                       |
| 138                                     |
Correlation Matrix of the Level of Program Outputs in Terms of Skills Training and Technology Transfer and the Economic and Social Impacts of the Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Program Outputs in terms of Skills Training and Technology Transfer</th>
<th>Economi c Impact</th>
<th>House</th>
<th>Appliances</th>
<th>Self-esteem</th>
<th>Health and Nutrition</th>
<th>Environment</th>
<th>Over-all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.301**</td>
<td>.317**</td>
<td>.221**</td>
<td>.374**</td>
<td>.471**</td>
<td>.305**</td>
<td>.400**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Number of Detainees and Ex-Detainees Involved in the Industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Currently Trained but Detained</th>
<th>Number of Involved in the Livelihood Program Inside Facility</th>
<th>Number of Released Detainees</th>
<th>Number of Involved in Tourism Industry Employment</th>
<th>Overall Involvement in the Industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION

The administrative capability of the Training Implementers is “Very High”. In the same way, the extent of implementation of the extension programs of the Training Implementers and the program outputs of Training Implementers are “Very High”.

In terms of the economic and social impacts of the programs of the BPSU Extension Services Office, a greater percentage of the respondents believed that they were not employed as a result of the skills learned, some were able to improve their houses as a result of the income derived from the income generated after the training, and some were able to buy appliances as a result of the income generated from the employment as a result of the skills learned. Moreover, the respondents perceived that their social status have improved in terms of self-esteem, health and nutrition, and environment. The level of involvement/employment in tourism industry related industry is at 83%.

The perception of the respondents on the implementation of the BPSU extension programs yielded a significant positive relationship. The respondents perceived that the implementation of BPSU extension programs is directly influenced by the extent of participation of the development partners. Moreover, the respondents assessed that the economic and social impacts of the BPSU Extension Programs are directly affected by the level of program outputs in terms of skills training and technology transfer.

REFERENCES

TRANSFERRING THE EVENT IMAGE OF IBONG DAYO FESTIVAL TO THE DESTINATION IMAGE OF BALANGA, BATAAN

Kathleen Liz Morante, Centro Escolar University

INTRODUCTION

Ibong Dayo festival is the first ever festival recognizing the different bird species migrating at the tourist destination of Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park in Bataan Province. The festival is held annually during the first or second week of December. The objective of the festival is to protect the environment and save the migratory birds. Among the collaborators of the festival is the City of Balanga, Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR), Department of Tourism (DOT) and environmental groups, Bird Watching Club of the Philippines and World of Outbound.

The influx of migratory birds visiting Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park during the period from December to February is also one of the reasons why the festival was formulated. This annual environmental event calls the attention of bird lovers and tourists, both local and foreign.

Creating an event is expected to increase the number of visitors to a destination and also an increase in expenditures; thus, resulting in additional revenue for the destination and stakeholders (Morgan, et al, 2011). The Ibong Dayo festival just reached its 5th year last December, 2014 with the intention of doing the event in perpetuity to promote conservation and protection of the environment, especially the migratory birds.

Randall (2011) affirms that events have become an attraction for a given destination. In this instance, for the tourists to flock to Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park during its peak season, the local government of Balanga developed an event which is the Ibong Dayo Festival. Marzano and Scott (2011) further discussed that events are part of the attraction of a destination and as such should be included in the marketing tool for a destination. Having an event marketing tool will further enhance the image of the destination. Having said that, Ibong Dayo Festival is a marketing tool that can be used to further market the host destination of Balanga City.

In 2009, the province of Bataan started coining the tagline, Behold Bataan for its campaign to boost the tourism industry in the province. Since it is just a tagline and no branding strategy was used by the local government, they decided to tap a legitimate branding agency to procure the province its own tourism campaign. Currently, the tourism campaign and branding of the province is not yet complete.

As of the writing of this case, the city of Balanga does not have any definite brand associated with it. The local government is trying to infuse the only festival in Balanga as their image and consequently brand. A reason for this is a lot of towns here in the Philippines use their festivals as their brand. An example of this is in the capital of the Province of Cebu, Cebu City wherein it is known for the Sinulog festival. The local government wants Ibong Dayo festival as its image and brand in promoting tourism services.

The research topic is worthy of study for it tackles destination branding which is an emerging branch of tourism marketing. Using an event for destination branding is not discussed a lot in the industry and the academe, even though a lot of tourism destinations associate its own events to further promote and attract visitors far and wide. This research will help in broadening the subject matter of destination branding. The study will contribute in the tourism industry by clarifying on how to use a special event as a tool for marketing a specific destination.

Shone and Parry (2011) adapted a framework from O’Toole (2005) characterizing special events. O’Toole (2005) discussed special events having four (4) characteristics. Namely: Uniqueness, Perishability, Intangibility and Heterogeneity. He discussed the characteristics as follows:

From four (4) characteristics of O’Toole (2005), Shone and Parry (2011) added four (4) more. Those are:

Ambience which is defined as the over-all surrounding of an event is important for it affect the outcome. Labour Intensive which states that if the event is unique and complex, the more it needs to be planned and prepared for. The organizers need to plan extensively to make the event successful.
Fixed-timescale is explained as that every event is said to have a fixed-timescale. It has a start and an end. It will never carry-on indefinitely. Ritual and ceremony stated that an event is said to be special if parts of it have rituals and/or ceremonies.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (2002) describes tourism destination as a physical place in which a tourist spends and visits for tourism purposes and that includes tourism products such as: support services and attractions.

The tourist destination is described as having five (5) interrelationships, namely: Visitor; Local Community; Local Authority; Destination Management Organization; and Tourism Industry Services.

The relationship between the destination and the visitors exists simply because the destination will not be a destination if there are no visitors. The destination will just be simply a place.

The Local Community have a relationship with destination for the reason that the local community will either contribute or neglect from the destination.

Local authority shares a relationship with the destination for they are the ones that have a responsibility towards a destination.

In this instance, the destination management organization is simply the people behind the care and management of a destination.

Lastly, tourism industry services are services found in the destination. Examples of these are: accommodation providers, food and beverage providers, tourism related services and others.

Randall (2011) discussed that there is an image transfer between events and destinations. He said that mere pairing of an event to a destination is not important but rather the event must be tailor fit to the destination in order to promote positive image transfer rather than a negative image.

In order to better understand the relationship of events and destination regarding image transfer, Deng and Li (2013) developed a model that depicts the event-destination model. As can be seen in the figure, there is a mutual relationship with the destination image and event image. When the visitor went to an event, he or she will create a destination image and an event image. That will greatly affect the destination itself as a tourism destination be it a positive or a negative image. When the visitor has a concrete image for the destination, it will have an over-all attitude for the host destination. With this attitude, the visitor can now determine his or her behavioral intentions toward the said host destination.

Event-Destination Image Transfer Model by Deng and Li (2013). It illustrates the relationship between the event image and the destination image in creating intentions towards a destination.

Contains the input variables which consists of the following: (1) the Over-all attitude of the respondents of the destination image; (2) the event image in regards to: Uniqueness, Perishability, Ambiance, Intangibility, Ritual or Ceremony; and Heterogeneity; and (3) The usage of an event for Destination Branding in regards to Tourism.

Next step is the collection of the data from the respondents using the questionnaires and the process between the festival concepts and the organizational performance.

The last step in the process signifies the output of the study wherein the researcher organized the established facts and information. The results were used to improve or enhance brand image of the destination using the event.

![Image of paradigm](image_url)

Figure 1. Paradigm depicting the process of the study. It illustrates the relationship between the destination image and event image resulting to destination branding.

This study focused on the use of Ibong Dayo Festival as a destination brand identity/image for Balanga, Bataan.

Five research questions with underlying sub questions were proposed:
1. What is the profile of the subjects in terms of the following: age; gender; respondent type; local resident of Balanga, Bataan; visitor; Local Government Unit/Department of Tourism; and, tourism industry services?
2. What is the respondents’ rate of the destination image?
image in terms of: physical aspect; festival organization; and, tourism Industry Services provided?

3. What is the respondents’ rate the event image in terms of: uniqueness; perishability; ambiance; intangibility; ritual/ceremony; and heterogeneity?

4. What is the relationship between the event image and the destination image?

5. How can the festival image be transferred to Balanga, Bataan to achieve Destination Branding?

The results of the study will be beneficial to the local community which is the city of Balanga in the Province of Bataan; for the study will contribute in the enhancement of the Ibong Dayo Festival as a positive attraction for the said destination.

This study can be used as a basis to determine if there are any improvements/ deterioration in the destination image of the Balanga, Bataan. Moreover, it can also be used as a guide to determine if there are any improvements/ deterioration in the festival image of the Ibong Dayo festival.

The study is also going to be instrumental for the Department of Tourism and the Provincial Office of the Department Tourism in Bataan. The results of the study could assist in the future administrative decisions in the growth direction of the local and national tourism. Tourism policies can be strengthened with the conclusions that can be drawn from the study.

The study could also be useful to the local and national tourism industry. It will help the other tourism destinations that have special events or festivals to duplicate the strengths of the locale of the study and expel the weaknesses which will be drawn from the conclusion of the study.

Finally, this study can serve as a channel for other researchers for reference when they conduct a study on the relationship between events and destination branding. It can also be used as a platform regarding the issue of using a festival or an event as a marketing tool for promoting a destination. Furthermore, the study can also be used for deeper understanding and study of destination marketing and destination branding.

The scope of the study was limited to the local community of Balanga, Bataan and the participants and visitors of the Ibong Dayo Festival in Balanga, Bataan last December 9-12, 2015. In the events characteristics, the variables labour intensive and fixed timescale were excluded from the study.

In the tourism destination framework, the visitors and local community will be under one category and named local community. The variables of local authority and destination management organization will be under one category. This is because the organizers of the festival are also employed by the local authority.

METHOD

The study aimed to determine the relationship between the image of Balanga, Bataan and the image of Ibong Dayo Festival to be able to produce an ideal Destination Brand. Thus, the study used descriptive method of research. The descriptive method, according to Fraenkel & Wallen (1993), is describing a state of affairs as fully as careful as possible.

The correlative method was also used in the study. Wherein, the participants answered the questions that were administered through the questionnaires and had determined whether or not the two variables are correlated.

The study was conducted in the capital of the province of Bataan, Balanga City. It can be found on the eastern part of the province of Bataan. According to the local government, the city is located in rich alluvial plains that have contributed to the growth on agricultural economy.

According to the December 2010 Census, it has a total population of 91,059. Balanga has a total area of 11,163 hectares. The city also consists of twenty-five (25) barangays.

The study focused was in one of Balanga’s tourist site which is the Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park and the City of Balanga itself. Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park is specifically located at Brgy. Tortugas. This tourism attraction celebrates the Ibong Dayo Festival that is held annually on the first week of the month of December. The aim of the festival is to recognize the different bird species migrating at the Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park in the months of January and February.

There were four (4) groups of respondents that were considered for the study: the residents of Balanga City, visitors of the Ibong Dayo Festival and Balanga, local authority of the city together with
the provincial Department of Tourism and tourism industry services within the city of Balanga.

Stratified random sampling was used to compute the sample size of the four (4) groups of respondents. The population of the province is approximately ninety-one thousand (91,000). Based on the computation, the sample number of respondents under this category is three hundred ninety-eight (398). For the category of visitors, two hundred twenty-six respondents were needed from the population of five hundred and eighteen (518). The total combined population of the local government unit of Balanga and the Department of Tourism Bataan was three hundred and fifteen (315). Deriving the sample from that population, the computed sample was one hundred seventy-seven (177). For the last category of respondents, tourism industry services, the computed sample was three hundred forty-one (341) from the population of six hundred fifty-five (655).

Stratified and quota sampling techniques were used to determine the local authority and tourism industry services who would be involved in the study. This means that only sample respondents from the local authority and tourism industry services were selected proportionately based on the lists of employees secured that were involved in the study. In gathering the data required for the study, the researcher used a researcher-developed questionnaire.

The questionnaire was divided into three (3) parts. Part 1 is the general profile of the respondents indicating their gender, age and from what category they belong. Part 2 are questions composed based on a 5-point Likert scale that indicated their view on the destination image to strongly agree to strongly disagree. Part 3 are questions composed based on a 5-point Likert scale that indicated their view on the event image to strongly agree to strongly disagree.

<p>| Table 1. The researcher used the following scale to interpret the numerical data of the study. |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean Interval</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.50 – 5.00</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.50 – 4.49</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.50 – 3.49</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.50 – 2.49</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.00 – 1.49</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After completing the design of the questionnaire, it was subjected to a revision according to the adviser’s suggestion. The said questionnaire was also validated by a tourism professional, thesis expert, and event’s specialist, grammarian and a psychologist to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire. The researcher conducted a test to examine reliability of the questionnaire by stratified convenience sampling. A total of fifty (50) questionnaires were pre-tested to a group of respondents in selected establishments in the local authority, tourism industry services, visitors and residents who were not respondents of the study but possess the characteristics as those target subjects of the study. The reliability of the questionnaire was high and was approved to be used as an instrument for the study.

Before the copies of the questionnaire were distributed to the respondents, the researcher asked for permission from the local government authority of Balanga City, provincial office of the Department of Tourism and other tourism related establishments. The letter of intent was attached to the questionnaire to guide the respondents regarding the purpose of the study. At the same time, the respondents were asked to give their sincere and honest opinions.

The study was conducted during and until a week after the 6th Ibong Dayo festival in Balanga, Bataan which was held December 9-12, 2015.

In order for the study to be carried out, the researcher targeted first the visitors and tourists who went to Balanga last December 9-12 for the event. It was followed by the local residents of the City of Balanga. The questionnaire was distributed during the festival itself. Next, the researcher targeted the different tourism industry services such as food and beverage, transportation and accommodations. The last group were the local authorities and festival organizers until a week after the Ibong Dayo festival.

The questionnaires were answered within two weeks after the said festival so that their experience of the destination and event was still fresh.
After which, the researcher then forwarded the questionnaires to the Centro Escolar University Center for Data Analysis for tabulating, interpreting and analyzing.

This part of the study includes the various statistical measures that will be applied to the study for the purpose of analyzing the data and interprets the result.

The statistical treatments that were applied to the study were as follows:
1. Frequency and percentage were used to determine the profile of the respondents.
2. Mean and standard deviation were used to determine the rating of the respondents on the event image of Ibong Dayo festival and destination image of Balanga, Bataan.
3. Pearson Correlation was used in order to determine the relationship between the destination image and the event image of the respondents.

RESULTS

The primary purpose of the study was to use the festival image of the Ibong Dayo festival as a branding tool for Balanga, Bataan by using the destination image and event image as a guide. This chapter discusses the result from the 1246 respondents who answered the questionnaire that was created for the study. The representations are from the local residents of Balanga, Bataan; visitors and guests of Balanga, Bataan; local government unit and Department of Tourism personnel. Aside from that, there also from the different local tourism industry service providers such as accommodations, food and beverage and transportation. The study also identified the suggestions and recommendations of some of the respondents.

There were 8 respondents or a percentage of 0.6 under the age of 14 years. All of them were students who attend the public primary school. The age bracket of 15 years until 24 years had 401 respondents or 32.2 percent. This group of respondents were mostly students who were enrolled in the university near the venue of the event and were curious enough to participate in the event. Meanwhile, majority of the respondents fell under the age bracket of 25 to 54 years of age with a frequency of 639 or half of the respondents at 51.3 percent. These age groups were mostly consisted of the local residents of Bataan who were active in participating in the events of the local community.

These groups were also consisted of the guests and wage earners. At the age bracket of 55-64 years old, there were 171 respondents at 13.7 percent. The group was mostly made up of residents who came to the event because they were curious and their local government then wanted to be included in the festivities by their local government. For the last age bracket of 65 years and over, there were 22 respondents or 1.7 percent of the total respondents. There were 5 respondents or 0.4 percent that had no response on the questionnaire. This last group are consisted of seniors from the local community.

Majority of the respondents were female. There were 644 female respondents with a percentage of more than half of the respondents at 51.70 percent. Also, the females were willing to answer the survey without any help from the researcher. There were 588 male respondents with a 47.20 percentage. Most of the male respondents had to be asked verbally by the researcher instead of physically answering the questionnaire themselves. There were 14 respondents or 1.10 percent having no response for their gender.

Since the respondents were computed using the stratified method, majority of the respondents were local residents of Balanga, Bataan with a total of 437 respondents with 35.10 percent. It was followed by the respondents from the Tourism Industry Services with a percentage of 31 percent or a total of 380 respondents. The respondents that fell under the tourism industry services came from some of the establishments of the following sectors of tourism: accommodation sector, food and beverage sector and the transportation sector.

The visitors were made up of 19.70 percent of the total respondents with 246 respondents. The visitors were consisted of tourists, local politicians from other towns and cities, bird enthusiasts, nature-lovers and representatives from the different regional offices of the Department of Tourism. Lastly, there were 183 respondents or 14.70 percent from the local government unit of Balanga and Department of Tourism in Bataan. Most of the respondents were working in the city hall, provincial hall, local government offices and first responders such as medical and police staff.
**Destination Image**

1.1. Physical aspect of Balanga, Bataan. Table 3 shows the destination image assessed by the respondents in terms of the physical aspect of Balanga, Bataan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Aspect</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Balanga City has noticeable man-made attractions.</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanga has eye-catching natural attractions.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanga has rich and beautiful scenery.</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanga has distinctive history.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanga has unique culture and heritage.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.14</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.57</strong></td>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the destination image assessed by the respondents in terms of local community was 4.14 and had a standard deviation of 0.57 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. The researcher noted that the city of Balanga in Bataan has a noticeable range of man-made and natural attractions. The most noticeable man-made structure in Balanga City is its own city hall situated in the middle of the hustle and bustle of the metropolis itself. Opposite of the city hall is another man-made structure which is the Cathedral of Saint Joseph or also known as Balanga Cathedral. ("Physical Attributes," n.d.)

On the other hand, the city’s most well-known natural attraction is the Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park. It is rich with flora and fauna that makes it suitable for the migratory birds to visit every December and January. Mangroves are abundant inside the park and the local government made sure that it is well protected and maintained. The province of Bataan also has a rich history for it is one of the most significant sites during the 2\textsuperscript{nd} world war. A monument on a mountain was built for this happening and can be found in the neighboring town of Pilar. This man-made structure commemorates the heroism of the Filipinos and Americans during the 2\textsuperscript{nd} world war. The culture of the province of Bataan is uniquely Filipino. The province boasts different kind of delicacies such as tinapa, uraro, cashew nuts and many more. ("Visiting," n.d.)

The first factor which was Balanga had noticeable man-made attractions, suggested that majority of the respondents sighted the different infrastructures and superstructures inside the city. While the factors history and culture was the least noticeable of the majority of the respondents.

1.2. Festival Organization. Table 4 shows the destination image assessed by the respondents in terms of the festival organizers such as the local tourism office of Balanga, Bataan and the provincial office of the Department of Tourism.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Festival Organization</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The LGU and DOT offer wide varieties of activities for the Ibong Dayo festival.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The LGU and DOT promotes good network of tourist information</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The LGU and DOT presents safe and secure environment</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The LGU and DOT presents clean and tidy environment</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The LGU and DOT has enough signage as indicators</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.95</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.67</strong></td>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the destination image assessed by the respondents in terms of the festival organization by the Local Government Unit of Balanga City and the provincial Department of Tourism of Bataan was 3.95 and had a standard deviation of 0.67 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. With its verbal interpretation, the table shows that the that the Local Government Unit of Balanga City and the Department of Tourism of Bataan offered a wide varieties of activities for the event. Some of the activities were: seminars on bird migration, bird migration’s role in the tourism industry, talk on conservation of the environment and the sustainability of the different natural attractions that pertains to bird migration. There were also
make sure the event would finish without any incidents. This presented a safe and secure environment for all the attendees of the event. Since a lot of tourists and guests came in for the event, the LGU prepared and made sure that Balanga was as clean and nice as it can be for the attendees of the event.

The first factor which was the festival offered a wide range of activities, suggested that majority of the respondents were satisfied by the activities in regards to the event. While the factor for the signage for the festival received the least result which indicated that majority of the respondents were not satisfied with the number of signage around and during the event.

1.3. Tourism Industry Services. Table 5 shows the destination image assessed by the respondents in terms of the different Tourism Industry Services offered in Balanga City.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tourism Industry Services</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It has reasonable price for food and beverages</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has good bargain for shopping</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has a wide variety of shop facilities</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has a wide selection of restaurants</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has a wide choice of accommodations</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the destination image assessed by the respondents in terms of the Tourism Industry Services provided in Balanga, Bataan was 3.98 and had a standard deviation of 0.67 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. Tourism industry service providers are abundant in Balanga City. These operating sectors are the accommodations, restaurants, food and beverage suppliers, and shopping facilities.

The highest ranking and most popular accommodation in the city is the Crowne Royale Hotel and almost of the high ranking guests for the festival were housed here. There are about ten (10) different accommodations that are available for tourists that Balanga can offer. Tourists can enjoy the different food and beverage establishments in Balanga. The Beanery is one of the most popular food establishment in the city for they offer local food and the produce used for their menu came locally. There are also different establishments available for consumption such as Korean restaurants, Japanese restaurants, Chinese restaurants, cafes, bars and the fast food chains. As for shopping facilities, Balanga boasts two shopping centers and a lot of establishment that cater to local produce especially the local wet and dry market where they sell Bataan’s famous dried fish or what the locals calls, tinapa.

The first factor which stated that majority of the respondents indicated that Balanga City offered reasonable prices for food and beverage. While on the other hand, the respondents answered that Balanga City had an adequate range of restaurants and shops for selection.

2. Event Image.

2.1 Uniqueness. Table 6 shows the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the uniqueness of the Ibong Dayo Festival.
1. Table 6 Event Image in Terms of Uniqueness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Uniqueness</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival is a one of a kind event.</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanga has tempting and colourful celebration of Ibong Dayo festival.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival highlights the Balanga Wetland and Nature Park.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival uniquely presented the theme of the event. (Bird</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festival)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival vibrantly showcased the theme of the event.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Costumes, Decorations etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.95</strong></td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of Uniqueness was 3.95 and had a standard deviation of 0.66 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. The Ibong Dayo festival showcased the different birds that can be seen during the bird migration in the months of December to January by using the birds as the main focus and the main theme for the their activities such as street dancing. Their costumes were colorful and vibrant representing the bird that was assigned to them. Another way of showcasing the migratory birds were through paintings made by the local children of Bataan and were displayed in one of the halls of the Balanga Wetland and Nature Park. Some artworks were also prominently displayed in the public square during the gala dinner for the VIP guests. Anywhere you went before and during the event, different kind of posters and paraphernalia were posted around the city.

The first factor which stated that majority of the respondents indicated that Ibong Dayo festival was unique. While on the other hand, the majority of the respondents agree that the festival was colorful but did not meet their expectation that is why the last factor resulted with the least number.

2.2 Perishability. Table 7 shows the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the perishability of the Ibong Dayo Festival.

Table 7 Event Image in Terms of Perishability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perishability</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival coincides best with the period of bird migration in</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanga, Bataan.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All activities of Ibong Dayo festival adhered to the time line of the event.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All activities of Ibong Dayo festival started on time.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All activities of Ibong Dayo festival ended on time.</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival will be repeated for many years to come.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.91</strong></td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of Perishability was 3.91 and had a standard deviation of 0.67 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. The Ibong Dayo Festival is considered to be Perishable as it coincides best with the period of bird migration which is during the months of December and January. The event is impeccably timed with the season of bird migration.

The schedule of activities during the event was religiously followed and adhered to. The activities that started right on time were the seminars conducted by the bird watching enthusiasts. One of the activities during the festival was bird watching. The researcher was able to see three (3) different migratory birds during the event.

The Ibong Dayo festival during the writing of this research is already on its 6th year. It is safe to say that the festival will be repeated for many years to come.

The first factor which was the festival coincided with the period of migratory birds, suggested that majority of the respondents agree with that assessment. While the factor for the factor which stated that the festival started on time received the lowest result by the majority of the respondents indicating that most of the activities during the festival did not start on time.
2.3 Ambiance. Table 8 shows the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the perishability of the Ibong Dayo Festival.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ambiance</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival was well-organized.</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival was of high quality.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival was well-executed.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival’s atmosphere is comfortable.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival’s surrounding is enjoyable.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.92</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.69</strong></td>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of Ambiance was 3.92 and had a standard deviation of 0.69 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. Based on the of the researcher, the festival was well prepared by the organizers and the execution of the whole event was above satisfactory. The whole event is comfortable and enjoyable to say the least. The organizers from the event were approachable and very hospitable to tourists and locals alike. A lot of the attendees were having fun with the different activities prepared by the organizers especially the students. The organizers prepared prizes for raffles for them. The visitors from the different non-government organizations that caters to bird watching and other affiliates had fun in the Balanga City Wetland and Nature Park during the bird watching. The culminating event which was hosted by the local government for the international guests and other high ranking visitors was well-planned and well-executed and as noted by the researcher, only served the best quality for food and entertainment.

The first factor which stated the festival was well organized by the festival organizers received the highest result which indicated that majority of the respondents agreed with the statement. While the last three factors indicated that the majority of the respondents agreed to the statements that the festival was well-executed, comfortable and enjoyable but with reservations.

2.4 Intangibility. Table 9 shows the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the intangibility of the Ibong Dayo Festival.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intangibility</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival promotes awareness about the environment and the seasonality of the birds.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival promotes educational value and better appreciation of the avian community.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival promotes the culture and heritage of the local community.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival promotes socialization among local and foreign bird enthusiasts.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival assists in the economical aspect of Balanga, Bataan.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.94</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.67</strong></td>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of Intangibility was 3.94 and had a standard deviation of 0.67 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. Part of the activities done during the festival was to showcase the objectives of the event which were promoting environmental awareness by doing seminars and further elaboration on the role of bird migration in the country. During the said seminars, the target audience were the students of public and private schools. The seminars promoted educational values and for the youth to better appreciate the avian community.

From the previous Ibong Dayo festival, a representative from the local tourism office shared to the researcher that the local government had an increase of revenue due to the festival and influx of tourists to the city. The exact income generated from the festival were not released to the researcher for unknown reasons.
The first factor which was the festival promoted environmental awareness and information regarding the migratory birds suggested that majority of the respondents agree with that assessment. While the factor for the factor which stated that the festival promoted cultural and heritage received the lowest result from the majority of the respondents indicating that the respondents agree up to some level that there was a promotion of culture and heritage but not at the forefront of the goals of the festival.

2.5 Ritual and Ceremony. Table 10 shows the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the ritual and ceremony showcased in the Ibong Dayo Festival.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ritual and Ceremony</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are enough activities in the Ibong Dayo festival.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoyed the activities in the Ibong Dayo festival.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware of the purpose of the Ibong Dayo festival.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware of the theme of the Ibong Dayo festival.</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibong Dayo festival has a big impact on social-economic aspect of Balanga, Bataan.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the Ritual and Ceremony was 3.90 and had a standard deviation of 0.68 which was verbally interpreted as Agree. As previously discussed, the festival itself was swarmed with activities. Based on the of the researcher, different kinds of activities for the event were done simultaneously especially the seminars. The researcher found it very hard to attend all the seminars.

The different barangays of Balanga were encouraged to join in the festival and with it comes socialization. The researcher noted that each barangay was represented in the different activities and even the senior citizens group of each barangay were actively participating.

For the activities especially during the street dance competition, the theme of bird migration was highlighted and the purpose of the event was discussed as a whole to those who attended the event.

The first factor which stated that there were enough activities for the festival received the highest results indicating that majority of the respondents agreed with that statement. While the majority of the respondents indicated that the factor which indicated the theme of the festival resulted with the least result. This indicated that most of the respondents did not know the theme of the event before they attended the said festival.

2.6 Heterogeneity. Table 11 shows the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the heterogeneity in the Ibong Dayo Festival.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heterogeneity</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival is pleasant.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival is exciting.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival is encouraging.</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival is enjoyable.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ibong Dayo festival is fun.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall mean of the event image assessed by the respondents in terms of the Heterogeneity is 3.93 and had a standard deviation of 0.68 which is verbally interpreted as Agree. The event was a success and a lot of the respondents including the researcher herself, enjoyed the whole duration of the festival. The researcher was blessed to be part of the event as a VIP guest.

The first factor which stated that there the festival was pleasant received the highest rating among the factors stated. This indicated that majority of the respondents agreed with the
statement. While most of the respondents answered that the festival was fun but since it received the lowest rating, some of the respondents had reservations.

3. Relationship between Destination Image and Event Image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Event Image</th>
<th>Physical Aspect</th>
<th>Destination Image</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Festival Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uniqueness</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.329**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perishability</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.341**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiance</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.393**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
<td>Substantial Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangibility</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.352**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
<td>Substantial Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ritual or Ceremony</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.299**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
<td>Substantial Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneity</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.318**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over-all Correlation</td>
<td>r</td>
<td>.322**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
<td>Low Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The group of respondents from the local residents of Balanga City and the visitors of Ibong Dayo festival assessed that there was a significant relationship that existed with the destination image of the city of Balanga and event image of the Ibong Dayo festival. However, it had a verbal interpretation of Low Correlation on all of the values of event image. Based on the results, the local residents and the visitors were mostly unsatisfied with the event. The event did not meet the expectations of most of the respondents. The researcher noted that most of the respondents that were students were there for incentives in their respective classes. They were also mandated to go to the festival by their teachers. Some of the respondents that were part of the event were there for socialization only. Most of them were there to look and observe but not to participate in the event. The researcher also noted that the event was showcased primarily for the VIP guests that arrived for the festival.

The group of respondents from the local government unit of Balanga City and the provincial Department of Tourism of Bataan assessed that there was a significant relationship that existed with the destination image of the city of Balanga and event image of the Ibong Dayo festival. Furthermore, it had a verbal interpretation of Low Correlation on the Uniqueness, Perishability, and Heterogeneity values of event image and a Substantial Correlation on the Ambiance, Intangibility and Ritual or Ceremony values of event image. The result suggested that for the organizers of the event, the Ibong Dayo festival is not a one of a kind event when it comes to bird festivals. The organizers themselves know that there are other festivals locally that also celebrate the migratory birds. Since Balanga,
Bataan is not the only town or city that offer such event to tourists, there is a chance that the festival may not meet the goals and expectations of the organizers themselves. There is also a chance that the festival may not be continued in the years to come for they have the knowledge of knowing what is happening inside the event itself.

The result also suggested that the organizers of the Ibong Dayo festival planned and executed the event in order to meet the event’s goals and objectives when it came to the event’s theme. The organizers made sure that there was environmental for the migratory birds and social awareness for the local community and visitors coming in the city for the festival. They also made sure to educate people on the trends and issues that surround the main theme of the festival. The organizers also educated the people on the preservation and sustainability of the environment of the city.

The group of respondents from the local tourism industry service providers assessed that there was a significant relationship that existed with the destination image of the city of Balanga and event image of the Ibong Dayo festival. Moreover, it had a verbal interpretation of Low Correlation on the Ambiance, Ritual and Ceremony, and Heterogeneity values of event image and a Substantial Correlation on the Uniqueness, Perishability and Intangibility values of event image. The local tourism industry service providers that were part of the respondents came from three sectors of tourism, such as accommodation, food and beverage, and transportation sector. These service providers are the frontline of the tourism industry, therefore they were the ones who are observant on the daily activities of the local tourism industry.

The result suggested that for some of the service providers, the event is not well-organized by the organizers, there was not enough activities for the participants and the over-all atmosphere of the event was antithesis of fun and exciting. The service industry saw the chaotic side of the event for they were the ones who provided the services to the participants and may not have a clear view of the whole event. Their interaction with the festival was through the participants. The event mostly caused negative factors for the tourism service sectors. However, the tourism industry service providers had a more positive result when it came to the event’s theme, goals and objectives. For the service providers, the event educated them on the awareness of migratory birds and its environmental factors.

The relationship between the destination image and event image was definitely there but still it was not enough for the respondents. If the destination image received a high mark, the event image also received a high mark but still not enough with the markers set by the researcher in the study.

There was significant relationship between the destination image and the event image. However, the different values of the two factors yielded a verbal interpretation of Low Correlation. This suggests that the destination image and the event image was not yet at par with the standard set by the respondents.

2. Transferring the event image of Ibong Dayo festival to Balanga, Bataan

The results on the correlation indicated that the image of Ibong Dayo festival is on the weak side. The destination image of Balanga, Bataan need to be enhanced for it to be accepted by most of the respondents. Same with the Ibong Dayo festival, it had to be improved to be received as an image for the city.

**SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

The following are the findings of the study:

Destination Branding is one of the most powerful tools for marketing a tourist destination. One of the most notable tools used for destination branding are events such as festivals. A great example of such an event is the Sinulog festival of the city of Cebu. The researcher took the initiative to study another local festival, Ibong Dayo festival, if it is feasible to be used as a marketing tool for the city of Balanga in Bataan Province.

During the Ibong Dayo festival held last December 9-12, 2015, the researcher gathered data from different respondents representing from the local residents of Balanga, Bataan, visitors of the event, organizers of the event from the local tourism office and provincial Department of Tourism, and local tourism service providers from selected hotel, food and beverage establishments.
and transportation. The researcher used a combination of research methods for the study which are descriptive and correlative method.

The destination image was collectively given a verbal interpretation of Agree, based on the scale that was used. An overall mean of 4.14 with a standard deviation of 0.57 were given by the respondents in regards to the physical aspect of the destination which is the city of Balanga in Bataan. The respondents gave a rating for the festival organization of Agree with an overall mean of 3.95 with a standard deviation of 0.67. The tourism industry services were given an overall mean of 3.98 with a standard deviation of 0.67 by the respondents.

In terms of the variables on the event image of the Ibong Dayo festival, the respondents gave all the variables a verbal interpretation of Agree. Uniqueness got an overall mean of 3.95 with a standard deviation of 0.65. The respondents gave an overall mean of 3.91 with a standard deviation of 0.67 for the Perishability variable. An overall mean of 3.92 and a standard deviation of 0.69 were given by the respondents to the Ambiance variable. The intangibility variable was given a 3.94 overall mean and a standard deviation of 0.67. Ritual and ceremony variable was given a 3.90 overall mean and a standard deviation of 0.68. The last variable, Heterogeneity was given an overall mean of 3.93 with a standard deviation of 0.68.

The correlation between the destination image and festival image was also gathered. It showed that when the physical aspect of Balanga, Bataan was correlated with all the different variables of the event image of the Ibong Dayo festival, it showed a very low correlation as compared to the other two destination variables which are festival organization and tourism industry services. Festival organization and tourism industry services got a higher result than the physical aspect but still all of the destination image variables yielded low correlation results.

Overall, it was shown from the results, that the different destination image variables and the different event image variables showed a significant relationship of having a weak and low correlation.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:
1. Balanga, Bataan has a positive physical image to the local community, visitors, local government unit and tourism service industry providers.
2. Based on the results, Ibong Dayo festival has a low impression from the local community, visitors, local government and tourism industry service providers.
3. The Ibong Dayo festival is relatively new since it was just the fifth time it was held, resulting to low impression on the respondents. Because of this, the festival is not yet popular to represent Balanga, Bataan.
4. Based on the results of the correlation between the festival image and the destination image, it is safe to say that it is still premature to transfer the festival image of the Ibong Dayo festival to Balanga, Bataan.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the formulated conclusions, the researcher offers the following recommendations:
1. The researcher recommends to adapt the proposed measures as stated on Chapter 4. This is to strengthen the festival image of Ibong Dayo festival in order for it to be used as a marketing tool for Balanga, Bataan.
2. The researcher also proposes to make another study in the next five (5) years to determine if the event image of Ibong Dayo festival will have a higher reputation that may be used as a marketing tool for the Balanga, Bataan.
3. Lastly, the researcher also recommends to the future researchers to do further study on the aspects of co-branding a destination with an event.
SPOILLOVER IMPACT OF NON–GAMING AMENITIES ON GAMING VOLUMES IN A DESTINATION CASINO RESORT

Ji Hye Min, University of North Texas
Shane Blum, Texas Tech University
Harold Lee, University of North Texas

INTRODUCTION

Non-gaming amenities, such as restaurants, entertainment venues, retail stores, bars, nightclubs and so on, are integral aspects of the casino experience today. By offering various non-gaming options, casinos strive to capture a broad range of clientele and produce more gaming revenue (Suh & Lucas, 2011). Therefore, non-gaming amenities have been considered subsidiary to gaming and have served as tools to draw casino traffic and extend a player’s stay at the casino (Palmeri, 2004; Suh & Tanford, 2012).

This phenomenon can be explained by spillover theory, indicating the possibility of mutual dependence in sales among amenities in a casino (Suh & Lucas, 2011; Lee & Jang, 2014). That is, the sales for one casino-resort amenity are likely to be affected by the sales for other amenities within the casino. For example, some non-gaming amenities, such as restaurants and showrooms, may not generate a great deal of revenue for the casino, but may contribute to the increase of other casino sales. By providing various non-gaming amenities in one place, casinos expect to have spillovers into the sales of gaming products that have high-profit margins (Suh, 2011). As a result, some non-gaming amenities are allowed to operate at a loss, with the assumption that these amenities draw people to the casino floor, thereby contribute to casino revenues (Suh & Tanford, 2012).

However, non-gaming amenities, especially those in popular gaming destinations, have shifted to major profit generating centers for casinos, rather than serving as a tool to provide player incentives (Suh & Tanford, 2012). For example, Las Vegas Strip casinos reported that the revenues from non-gaming amenities have surpassed gaming revenues since 1999, resulting in a 62% increase to $7.8 billion of non-gaming revenues in 2009 (Nevada Gaming Control, 2010). Today, non-gaming operations account for more than half of many casinos’ total revenue (Tanford & Suh, 2013).

Although non-gaming amenities contribute substantial revenue to many casinos, there is a limited empirical investigation of the relationship between non-gaming amenities and casino performance. As casinos competitively offer various non-gaming options, further research is needed to facilitate a better understanding of their effectiveness that goes beyond management intuition. With respect to the growing concern regarding the increased importance of non-gaming amenities in the casino industry, the purpose of this study is to evaluate the impact of non-gaming amenities on gaming volume. The investigation is extended to examine the effect of non-gaming amenities on gaming volumes by separating non-gaming revenue by paid and complimentary customers.

METHOD

Secondary data was obtained from a company that owns multiple casino locations in Las Vegas. While previous studies mostly relied on survey results, the present study’s use of secondary data provides additional empirical evidence to build a model to examine relationships between variables. The company anonymously provided operating statistics of gaming and non-gaming operations, including slot, table gaming volumes and revenues of their restaurants, rooms, showroom, and retail stores, from one of their major casinos. All non-gaming departmental revenue figures were broken down into paid and comps customers.

The casino property mainly appeals to domestic and international leisure travelers and generates more than $600 million in annual gross revenue, with 58% of revenue from non-gaming and 42% from gaming operations. The property
offers various gaming and non-gaming opportunities.

Simultaneous multiple regression analysis was employed to test the hypotheses with time series data. In the current study, the models were tested to predict the variance in casino gaming volumes. In other words, the contributions of non-gaming amenities to the variance in daily slot coin-in and daily table drop were estimated along with the other variables that are known to impact gaming volume (See Figure 1).

FINDINGS

The regression model with eight key predictors (restaurant comped and paid revenues, showroom comped and paid revenues, hotel room comped and paid revenues and retail outlet comped and paid revenues) to predict table game drop accounted for 68.1% of the variation in table game drop and was statistically significant, $F(19, 364) = 41.05, p \leq .0001$. The restaurant comped revenue and hotel comped revenue variables had statistically significant effects to predict table game drop, $(B = 2.68, t = 2.02, df = 364, p < .05)$ and $(B = 8.92, t = 6.66, df = 364, p \leq .0001)$, respectively.

The regression model with eight key predictors (restaurant comped and paid revenues, showroom comped and paid revenues, hotel room comped and paid revenues and retail outlet comped and paid revenues) to predict slot coin-in accounted for 80.3% of the variation in table game drop and was statistically significant, $F(13, 363) = 129.91, p \leq .0001$. The restaurant comped revenue and hotel comped revenue had statistically significant effects to predict slot coin-in, $(B = 6.29, t = 4.54, df = 363, p \leq .0001)$ and $(B = 5.81, t = 1.85, df = 363, p < .05)$, respectively.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The study revealed that paid non-gaming revenues had no significant effects on gaming volumes. The results may provide the theoretical support of the loss leader literature in which amenities are allowed to operate at a loss based on the assumption that they will attract more traffic, and therefore additional revenue. On the other hand, the Las Vegas Convention and Visitor Authority [LVCHA], (2015) reported that forty-seven percent of all Las Vegas visitors came to Las Vegas for vacation or pleasure, and twenty-seven percent of the visitors did not gamble while in Las Vegas. Only ten percent of the visitors’ primary reason for visiting was to gamble. Therefore, it is possible that more people are interested in non-gaming than gaming amenities; therefore, gaming amenities may be considered ancillary to some visitors. Casinos may not expect to have spillover effects among casino-operated gaming and non-gaming amenities, but rather, these amenities need to be considered independent profit generating centers. Non-gaming oriented patrons, whose primary reason for visiting casinos is to dine in or watch shows, may have little interest in playing games. At the same time, people who visit casinos for the purpose of experiencing non-gaming amenities may visit other non-gaming amenities, such as retail outlets, restaurants, pools, hotels, or spas, but not gaming.

In both table game and slot coin-in models, complimentary restaurant and hotel revenues were found to have significant relationships with table and slot volumes. Among many complimentary offers from non-gaming amenities, free hotel rooms and restaurants may be the most effective...
in extending players’ stay within the property thereby increase more gaming volumes than other complimentary offers from retail and showroom amenities. It is also possible that players who receive free hotel room and dining offers may have higher intentions to play casino games than players who pay these amenities at regular prices because they may feel privileged to receive rewards or expect to have forthcoming rewards.

Additionally, players may feel obligated to reciprocate for received benefits by increasing their gaming budget in response to the feeling of appreciation. Increased betting or purchase intention may occur as a result of a player’s perceived need to comply with the reciprocity norm (Bartlett & DeSteno, 2006). On the other hand, retail and showroom complimentary may not be an effective tool to influence players’ cost-benefit analysis if they did not plan to buy certain retail products or watch shows. These rewards may not be sufficient enough to add value to the gaming products or produce a reciprocal behavior from players. Therefore, a careful evaluation of non-gaming complimentary benefits would be necessary.

From the regression analysis, the annual estimated profit increase from the complimentary restaurant and hotel rooms to the table game operation at the subject property were $13,675,951 and $57,448,138, respectively. Additionally, the annual estimated profit increase from the complimentary restaurant and hotel rooms to the slot operation at the subject property were $13,982,045 and $16,299,884, respectively.

Given the considerable costs associated with operating non-gaming amenities, understanding how these amenities contribute to gaming and overall profitability is critical. This provides empirical evidence that complimentary room and restaurant offers may be the most effective way to attract people and generate casino business volumes. However, the study also provides an empirical evidence that operating retail outlets and showrooms may have little impact on gaming revenue generation and could serve as loss-leader, indicating that these offers may result in a negative return on investment.

REFERENCES


ACCESS FOR ALL? BEACH ACCESS AND EQUITY IN THE DETROIT METROPOLITAN AREA

Jin Won Kim, University of Florida
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INTRODUCTION

Recreation settings such as parks, playgrounds, trails, and lakes provide a variety of economic, social, recreational and environmental benefits to local residents (Sherer, 2006). Access to such settings has also been shown to have a substantial impact on individual and community health and well-being, by fostering active lifestyles that reduce the prevalence of obesity-related diseases such as diabetes and hypertension (Coen & Ross 2006). Providing and enhancing access to recreation opportunities (ROs) has therefore been recognized as an essential responsibility of public leisure agencies in their quest to improve residents’ quality of life and help create more attractive and sustainable residential environments (Aukermann 2011).

However, not all people have adequate access to ROs. Concern continues that those with low socioeconomic status, and racial and ethnic minorities, tend to be disproportionately denied the multiple benefits of access to ROs. Disparities in levels of access to ROs, whether in terms of age, race/ethnicity, income or other socioeconomic or demographic factors, represent an example of environmental injustice (Deng et al., 2008). Assessing the degree of environmental justice inherent in the distribution of access to ROs is, thus, an essential prerequisite to effective recreation and broader natural resources planning and management, and, ultimately, to the attainment of more attractive, desirable and sustainable communities. To assess the level of environmental justice associated with distributions of ROs and other locally desirable land uses (LDLUs), previous studies have measured the degree of equity inherent in the distribution of access to them. Numerous equity studies have attempted to determine whether disparities in levels of access occur among different demographic and socioeconomic groups with regard to, e.g., urban parks, urban trails, playgrounds, golf courses, recreational forests, and campsites (Kim & Nicholls, 2016).

Although there have been substantive improvements in the measurement of equity in recent decades, two limitations can still be identified. First, previous RO equity studies have focused on land-based ROs such as parks, urban trails, playgrounds, and golf courses. However, “water is a focal point of outdoor recreation” (Aukermann, 2011, p. 2). Major recreational activities such as swimming, sailing, kayaking, canoeing, diving, and fishing take place at water-based sites such as lakes, rivers, oceans, and beaches (Jennings, 2007). Beaches are an especially valuable type of setting, offering a variety of water- and land-based ROs that can meet residents’ diverse and complex recreational demands (Orams, 1999). They can also offer visual interest, wildlife habitat and the economic benefits associated with spending on user fees and at concessions (Dixon et al., 2012). If disparities in levels of access to beaches arise with respect to racial/ethnic or socioeconomic status, an environmental injustice can be said to occur. Despite the importance of equitable access to beaches, and though some studies have focused on legal issues in the context of the public trust doctrine, no known empirical study has evaluated whether the level of access to beaches is indeed equitable among different racial/ethnic or socioeconomic groups.

Second, previous RO equity studies have typically employed multivariate linear regression using the ordinary least squares (OLS) method. However, the use of spatial data such as the geographic locations of ROs, measures of access to ROs, and spatially referenced census data in a linear model violates many of the basic assumptions of OLS such as variable independence and homoscedasticity (Gilbert & Chakraborty, 2011). Traditional OLS regressions have failed to explore important local variations in the relationships among variables, resulting in...
inaccurate results including biased parameter estimates and misleading significance tests (Anselin, 1988). The purpose of this study was therefore to explore the degree of equity exhibited by the distribution of public beaches in the Detroit Metropolitan Area (DMA) using spatially explicit regression techniques.

**METHOD**

Detroit Metropolitan Area (DMA) was selected as the study area because the DMA not only contains a high density of public beaches but also include a variety of racial groups. Defining the unit of analysis is critical in any spatial study. In this study, the census tract (CT) was utilized. The DMA includes 1,164 CTs.

The dependent variable in this study was the level of access to public beaches, defined as the shortest road network distance from each CT centroid to the nearest public beach. This access measure reflects the minimum distance approach, recognizing that many ROs are mainly used by nearby residents and that the nearest RO typically represents the easiest opportunity for frequent or everyday use. The study adopted a need-based definition of equity. Selection of independent variables was limited to those available for CTs. They included: (1) population density (POPD); (2) age (young [under 18: AGE18] and older [over 64: AGE64]); (3) race/ethnicity (Black [BLACK] and Asian [ASIAN] [to represent race] and Hispanic [HISPAN] [ethnicity]); (4) housing value (MVH); (5) educational attainment (EDU); (6) language spoken at home (LAN); (7) vehicle ownership (VEHIC); (8) housing occupancy (HO); and (9) economic status relative to the poverty line (ECON). Disadvantaged residents or the most needy groups were hypothesized to be those residing in more densely populated areas, the young and elderly, non-Whites and Hispanics, those living in lower value housing, those having lower educational attainment, those without English spoken at home, those without a vehicle, and those residing in areas with lower proportions of occupied housing and higher poverty rates. Based on the need-based approach adopted, an equitable distribution would therefore be demonstrated when the disadvantaged received better than average access to public beaches (i.e., a lower travel distance), whereas inequity would be demonstrated when the disadvantaged received significantly lower levels of access than the less needy (i.e., higher travel distance).

Geographic data such as CT boundaries and the street network were acquired from the Michigan GIS data library (http://www.mcgi.state.mi.us/mgd/) and MDEQ (http://www.deq.state.mi.us/beach/). Census data were obtained from the 2010 Census summary file 1 (SF1) and file 3 (SF3) of the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Network analysis was employed to measure the level of access to public beaches by calculating the shortest road network distance from each CT centroid to the nearest public beach. Then, geographically weighted regression (GWR) was used to explore relationships between level of beach access and residents’ demographic and socioeconomic status. Lastly, choropleth mapping was used to visualize statistical diagnostics (e.g., local parameter estimates and local R²). Data analysis was conducted using ArcGIS (version 10.0), the ArcGIS Network Analyst extension, and GWR (version 4.0).

**FINDINGS**

Results of the GWR model are presented in Table 1. The range of local adjusted R² was from a minimum of 0.27 (Rochester Hills, Oakland County) to a maximum of 0.92 (River Rouge, Wayne County), with a mean of 0.70. The model had the best explanatory power (> 80.0%) in Dearborn, Dearborn Heights, Detroit, Lincoln Park, Romulus, and Westland and in Brownstown, Huron, and Sumpter townships (Wayne County); in Royal Oak, Southfield, and Troy (Oakland County); and, in Sterling Heights and Warren (Macomb County). However, the model had very low explanatory power in Rochester Hills and in Groveland, Highland, Holly, Rose, Springfield, and White Lake townships (Oakland County), indicating that level of access to public beaches in these areas is not explained adequately by the independent variables included. These findings indicate that the explanatory power of the local model is not stationary, i.e., that the degree of model performance is spatially heterogeneous across the study area, and suggest the need to
consider the inclusion of additional explanatory variables that might further improve model performance. The local condition index ranged from a minimum of 8.6 to a maximum of 24.4, indicating the absence of local collinearity among the independent variables.

Based on rho values, three of the twelve independent variables (POPD, 0.01; AGE64, 0.02; EDU, 0.01) showed evidence of spatial variation in the parameter estimate values at the 0.05 level. The ranges of the local coefficients for these variables were -1.29 to 1.40 (mean: 0.14, POPD), -1.01 to 2.85 (mean: 0.12, AGE64), and -3.25 to 2.73 (mean: -0.02, EDU), respectively. The inclusion of zero in these ranges indicates that traditional OLS would have produced misleading findings for these variables, i.e., that the relationships between minimum distance to the nearest public beach and population density, proportion of elderly population and educational attainment are heterogenous across the study area. None of the other independent variables reached statistical significance, suggesting no distinct (in)equality patterns with respect to those factors.

### Table 1. Results of GWR model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>GWR coefficients</th>
<th>Rho variability</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Equity (inequality) indicated when value of coefficient</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>6.90</td>
<td>16.13</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BLACK</td>
<td>-5.55</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>7.77</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASIAN</td>
<td>-2.81</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.53</td>
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<tr>
<td>HISPAN</td>
<td>-7.54</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>8.64</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POPD</td>
<td>-1.29</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHV</td>
<td>-4.10</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE18</td>
<td>-1.57</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>0.08</td>
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<tr>
<td>AGE64</td>
<td>-1.01</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>2.85</td>
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<tr>
<td>EDU</td>
<td>-3.25</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<td>LAN</td>
<td>-1.66</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
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<td>ECON</td>
<td>-2.51</td>
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<td>4.15</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>HO</td>
<td>-1.61</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VEHIC</td>
<td>-1.85</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition Index</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=1,164; AICc (GWR) = 4,085.73; neighbors = 147

Note. Rho: Rho value per Monte Carlo analysis(Beta); regression coefficient; VIF: variance inflation factor; AICc: corrected Akaike’s informaiton criterion

### IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

This study assessed the degree of equity inherent in the distribution of public beaches in the DMA; to account for spatial effects, phenomena rarely considered in prior equity analyses, GWR was employed. Considerable local variations in the relationships between level of access to public beaches and population density, proportion of elderly population and educational attainment were identified. Such findings can help parks and recreation agencies better understand local patterns of equity, an important first step in facilitating the formulation of more efficient and effective planning and policy approaches.

### REFERENCES


DO VACATIONS RELATE TO HAPPINESS?
The Case of South Korea

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INTRODUCTION

While the relationship between vacations and happiness may seem obvious, tourism researchers’ interests in happiness research are relatively recent (e.g., Chen & Petrick, 2013; Chen, Petrick, & Shahvali, 2016; Liu, 2013; McCabe, & Johnson, 2013; Nawijin, 2011a; Nawijin, 2011b; Pagán, 2015; Psych Central, 2016; Tokarchuk, Maurer, & Bosnjak, 2015; Uysal, Sirgy, Woo, & Kim, 2016). Additional empirical research that estimates the relationship between vacations and happiness will strengthen our discussion of the benefits achieved with vacations. Moreover, the addition of demographic and leisure lifestyle variables will further enhance the discussion of the achievement of the happiness state. This analysis of new secondary data aims to estimate the level of happiness held by South Korean residents who vacationed in the past year and those who did not.

METHOD

Data for the study were drawn from Korea’s 2016 Leisure Activity Survey, which is available from Culture Statistics Information (https://policydb.kcti.re.kr/frt/cts/svs/surveyLeisure/selectSurveyLeisureList.do?bbsId=BBSMSTR_000003003013). The survey respondents (N = 10,603) were residents over 15 years old, who have been living in one of seventeen metropolitan cities and provinces of South Korea. The data was collected from September 1th, 2016, to October 28th, 2016, by individual household visit interview. A systemic random sampling technique, meaning stratified with probability proportionate to the size of metropolitan cities’ and provinces’ population, was applied. Of the 10,603 respondents’ data, respondents who indicated he/she had no income during the last year were excluded for the analysis. Thus, a total of 7,004 respondents’ data was applied for this study.

The overall level of happiness was measured by a 10 point Likert scale using the question, “How happy are you currently feeling? (1 = Very Unhappy, 10 = Very Happy). Vacation behavior was asked using the question, “Did you have (spend) vacation during the last year?” to classify the sample into vacationers and non-vacationers. Respondents were allowed to answer either yes or no. Demographic and leisure lifestyle variables that were treated as explanatory are provided in Appendix A with the type of variable and expected direction of the coefficient noted from literature.

Analysis started with an independent sample t-test to determine whether significant differences in overall happiness level between vacationers and non-vacationers. Next, three ordinary least square (OLS) analyses were performed to test whether coefficients in the explanatory variables were significant and in the anticipated direction. Based on the literature, the relationship between happiness and its explanatory factors may be expressed as the overall level of happiness = f (leisure satisfaction, age, club participation, volunteer activity, gender, marital status, income, education, and vacation). Standard multiple regression with OLS and simultaneous entry of all independent variables were applied, where overall happiness level was regarded as the dependent variable.

FINDINGS

There were significant differences in the overall level of happiness between vacationers and non-vacationers (see Appendix B). Respondents (n = 4,251) who spent vacation during the last year (M = 7.12, SD = 1.388) showed higher levels of happiness than respondents (n = 2,753) who did not spend vacation (M = 6.91, SD = 1.459). The difference was significant at p < 0.001.
Besides the act of taking a vacation, happiness could be related to a variety of diverse variables. For this reason, multiple regression analyses were conducted. Before estimating the regression analyses the independent variables were tested for multicollinearity (i.e., a violation of the assumption of multiple regression techniques). Tolerance levels less than 0.4 and variation inflation factor (VIFs) greater than 2.5 were used to identify any problematic relationships among variables. As a result, four variables (i.e., age, married, 300 – less than 400, and high school) were excluded from below regressions.

The regression analysis results are presented in Appendix C. For the base model without vacation segmentation (n = 7,004), a R2 = 0.200 was estimated. A total of 13 variables were found to exhibit a significance level at 5%, 1%, and 0.1%. Of the 13 variables, leisure satisfaction, club activity, volunteer activity, education level (i.e., bachelor’s degree), and metropolitan city were positively related to the overall happiness level, while gender (i.e., male), marital status (i.e., single, widowed, and divorced), income level (i.e., less than 100, 100 – less than 200, and 400 – less than 500), and education level (i.e., uneducated) were negative.

For the vacationer model (n = 4,251), a result of the regression analysis (R2 = 0.190) is presented in Appendix C. Of the 13 significant variables in the base model, 9 variables significantly related to the overall happiness level. Specifically, leisure satisfaction, club activity, education level (i.e., Bachelor’s degree), and metropolitan city were positively significant, whereas gender (i.e., male) and marital status (i.e., single and divorced), income level (i.e., less than 100, 100 – less than 200, and 400 – less than 500), education level (i.e., uneducated) were found to be negatively related to happiness.

For the non-vacationer model (n = 2,753), Appendix C illustrates a result of the regression analyses (R2 = 0.212). Of the 13 significant variables in the base model, an income level (i.e., less than 100) was additionally excluded from this non-vacationer regressions due to multicollinearity (Tolerance = 0.347 and VIF = 2.884). Thus, 8 variables significantly related to the overall happiness level. Specifically, leisure satisfaction, club activity, and income level (i.e., more than 600), and metropolitan city were positively related to the overall happiness level. However, gender (i.e., male), marital status (i.e., widowed and divorced), education level (i.e., uneducated) were found to be negatively related to happiness.

**CONCLUSION**

While findings of this study are consistent with Ballas (2013)’s overview in happiness research, this study newly reveals significant relationships between vacations and happiness. South Korean residents who vacationed were found to be higher on happiness than those who did not take vacation during the past year. Of the 13 significant variables, leisure satisfaction, club activity, gender (i.e., male), and metropolitan city, gender (i.e., male), marital status (i.e., divorced), education level (i.e., uneducated) were found to influence happiness levels in both groups.

Specifically, “male” and “uneducated” were higher explanatory variables for vacationers (coefficient = -0.245 and -0.377 respectively) compared to non-vacationers (-0.205 and 0.295, respectively). This result suggests that respondents, who took vacation during the last year, could decrease a 24.5% in their happiness level with male in gender, and decease a 37.7% in their happiness level with uneducated in education level.

However, for non-vacationers, “leisure satisfaction” (0.494) “club activity” (0.297), and “metropolitan city” (0.161) were higher variables rather than vacationers (0.487, 0.183, and 0.085, respectively). These results indicate that vacation might be substituted for respondents who could not take a vacation during the last year by participating leisure activities, club activities, or/and living in a metropolitan city. For example, as stated by Ballas (2013), living in a metropolitan city might be considered as a substitute for increasing overall happiness level, since metropolitan cities could provide diverse opportunities to find pleasant such as recreational amenities. Thus, respondents, who did not take vacation during the last year, could increase a 16.1% in their happiness level with living in a metropolitan city, while it was only 8.5% for vacationers.

As a result, this study demonstrates that vacations relate to happiness. However, there were
significant differences in variables related to the overall happiness level between vacationers and non-vacationers. This study’s results could contribute to better understand variables related to happiness by newly adding a tourism perspective.

Some limitation of this study should be noted. This study did not consider vacation frequency during the last year. Thus, following research would apply vacation frequency as an explanatory variable to examine if there are differences in overall happiness level among its frequency.

REFERENCES


Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. L. (2016). Quality of life (QOL) and well-being research in tourism. Tourism Management, 53, 244-261.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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### Appendix A. Explanatory Variables Tested in Regression Analyses and Expected Sign of Coefficient

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Type of variables</th>
<th>Expected sign on coefficient</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Club activity</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = Participated, 0 = Did not participate)</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Ballas (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer activity</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = Participated, 0 = Did not participate)</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Ballas (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = Male, 0 = Others)</td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>Ballas (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = Single, 0 = Others)</td>
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<td>Ballas (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = Married, 0 = Others)</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Ballas (2013), Sun et al. (2015)</td>
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<td>Widowed</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = Widowed, 0 = Others)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
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<td>Ballas (2013), Sun et al. (2015)</td>
</tr>
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<td>100 – less than 200</td>
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<td>Positive</td>
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<td>200 – less than 300</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = 300 – less than 400, 0 = Others)</td>
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<td>300 – less than 400</td>
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<td>500 – less than 600</td>
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<tr>
<td>Uneducated</td>
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<tr>
<td>Elementary school</td>
<td>Dummy (1 = Middle school, 0 = Others)</td>
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<td>Cuñado, J., &amp; de Gracia (2012), Sun et al. (2015)</td>
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<td>Middle school</td>
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<td>Some college or</td>
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<td>associate degree</td>
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<td>Bachelor’s degree</td>
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<tr>
<td>Metropolitan city</td>
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### Appendix B. Differences in overall happiness level between vacationers and non-vacationers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Happiness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vacationers (n = 4,251)</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>1.388</td>
<td>6.075</td>
<td>0.000***</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-vacationers (n = 2,753)</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>1.459</td>
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</table>

Note: Equal variances not assumed; Happiness = overall happiness level (1 = Very Unhappy, 10 = Very Happy); M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation, Sig. = Significance, *** = Significant at 0.1%.
## Appendix C. Summary of Statistically Significant Regression Results for Vacation and Non-vacation Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory variable</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficient (β)</th>
<th>Base model (n = 7,004)</th>
<th>Vacationer segment (n = 4,251)</th>
<th>Non-vacationer segment (n = 2,753)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leisure satisfaction</td>
<td>0.490***</td>
<td>0.487***</td>
<td>0.494***</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Club activity</td>
<td>0.220***</td>
<td>0.183**</td>
<td>0.297***</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer activity</td>
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<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>-0.238***</td>
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<td>Single (= 1)</td>
<td>-0.112**</td>
<td>-0.142**</td>
<td>NS</td>
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<tr>
<td>Widowed (= 1)</td>
<td>-0.315***</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>-0.408***</td>
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<tr>
<td>Divorced (= 1)</td>
<td>-0.734***</td>
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<td>-0.915***</td>
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<tr>
<td>Income level*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Less than 100 (= 1)</td>
<td>-0.235***</td>
<td>-0.302**</td>
<td>NA</td>
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<tr>
<td>100 – less than 200 (= 1)</td>
<td>-0.112*</td>
<td>-0.144*</td>
<td>NS</td>
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<td>200 – less than 300 (= 1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>400 – less than 500 (= 1)</td>
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<td>-0.183*</td>
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<tr>
<td>500 – less than 600 (= 1)</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 600 (= 1)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>0.568*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uneducated (= 1)</td>
<td>-0.297**</td>
<td>-0.377*</td>
<td>-0.295*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school (= 1)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle school (= 1)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college or associate degree (= 1)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s degree (= 1)</td>
<td>0.113**</td>
<td>0.116*</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced degree (= 1)</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metropolitan city (= 1)</td>
<td>0.114***</td>
<td>0.085*</td>
<td>0.161**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>0.190</td>
<td>0.212</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durbin-Watson</td>
<td>1.859</td>
<td>1.880</td>
<td>1.941</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent variable = overall happiness level (1 = Very Unhappy, 10 = Very Happy); *the unit is 10,000 won (Korean currency); NS = not significant; NA = not available; * Significant at 5%, ** Significant at 1%, *** Significant at 0.1%. 
RECOVERY EXPERIENCES DURING VACATION PROMOTES LIFE SATISFACTION OF JAPANESE EMPLOYEES THROUGH CREATIVE BEHAVIORS

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Kazumi Yamaguchi, Bunkyo University
Takashi Oguchi, Rikkyo University

INTRODUCTION

Although overtime work may result in increased salaries, it also may lead to an increase in stress, fatigue, and work-family imbalance (Golden & Wiens-Tuers, 2006). A previous study showed that there was a negative relationship between working hours and happiness in China, Japan, and Taiwan (Yamashita, Bardo & Liu, 2016). On the other hand, one of the goals to be achieved in people’s daily and professional lives is to maintain some level of subjective well-being. To that end, it is necessary to promote overall work-life balance including limiting the long working hours and encouraging workers to take leaves, so that they have enough energy to live a healthy life.

This study focused on recovery experience during vacation and both its direct and indirect effects on employees. Recovery experiences can be viewed as an individual strategy devoted to restoring peoples’ energy resources and maintaining their psychological and subjective well-being, which can be helpful in stressful organizational situations (Lee, Choo & Hyun, 2016). Siltaloppi, Kinnunen and Feldt (2009) suggested that recovery experiences play a significant role in maintaining well-being at work. Moreover, recovery experiences enable employees to restore their energy resources (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Furthermore, abilities and characteristics of employees themselves are important in industrial life. Especially, innovation and creativity in the workplace have become increasingly important determinants of organizational performance, success, and longer-term survival (Anderson, Potočnik & Zhou, 2014). Moreover, Horng, Tsai, Yang & Liu (2016) showed that employees’ creativity promoted by social–organizational and physical work environment. When employees perceive autonomy or freedom, challenge, resources, supervisor support, and rewards, they are likely to pay more attention to their job, change their behavior and increase their creativity performance (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby & Herron, 1996).

From these previous studies, we hypothesized that vacation, which means being physically away from work, bringing freedom and autonomy, could enhance employees’ creativity and further increase their well-being. Considering the synergy between the recovery experiences after vacation and various dimensions of subsequent creative behaviors, occupational well-being (job dedication and career satisfaction), as well as life satisfaction, we developed a comprehensive model to capture the above-mentioned factors’ relationships. At the same time, we examined whether numbers of travel during paid leaves increased recovery experience and life satisfaction. Thus, the present study formulated the following hypotheses on interaction effects. Figure 1 shows the proposed theoretical framework and hypotheses.
RESEARCH METHODS

Participants were 800 Japanese full time employees from the general population (400 women and 400 men). The mean age was 40.11 years with a standard deviation of 10.63. As shown in Table 1, the participants were stratified across age (i.e., the 20s, 30s, 40s, and 50s) and equally portioned. Majority of respondents pursued higher education (college: 56.1%). Regarding household incomes, most respondents reported that their household incomes were between $20,000 and $80,000.

The questionnaire consisted of items to obtain demographic information including sex, age, education status, household income, the ratio of taking annual paid leaves, and numbers of travel during paid leaves, and the questionnaires followed psychological scales as well. These scales were adopted from previous empirical studies and were slightly modified to reflect the context of the Japanese full time employees.

Respondents' recovery experience during their most recent vacation was assessed with Recovery Experience Scale (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). The 15-item, 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) has four dimensions; (1) control, (2) detachment, (3) mastery, (4) relax.

The employee creativity scale (e.g., “Suggests new ways achieve goals or objectives”; and “Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.”) was adapted from self-evaluation of creativity proposed by George and Zhou (2001). Life satisfaction was measured based on the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985). A 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) was used for all measurement items. This study defines life satisfaction as the level of employees’ cognitive perception of their subjective well-being.

Finally, seven items for job dedication (e.g., “I put in extra hours to get work done to meet deadlines”) and five items for career satisfaction (e.g., “I have been satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.”) were adopted from Lee et al. (2016).

RESULTS

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to gain an improved understanding of the relationships between the recovery experiences, creative behaviors, occupational well-being (i.e., job dedication and career satisfaction), and life satisfaction. The model fit was assessed using multiple indices and showed a reasonable fit: $\chi^2 (517) = 2340.90$, $p < .01$, RMSEA = .066, CFI = .915, SRMR = .049 (Figure 2).

Although influences were weak compared to the above relationship, number of travel during paid leaves had a significant influence on recovery experiences ($\beta = .15$, $p < .01$) and life satisfaction ($\beta = .07$, $p < .05$). In sum, the results supported all hypotheses except H3-2 and H5-2.
CONCLUSION

We confirmed that recovery experienced during vacation promoted employee’s creativity, and it also improved occupational well-being and life satisfaction. Furthermore, the result revealed that traveling while taking paid leave improved both recovery experiences and employees’ life satisfaction.

From the results of this study, it was suggested that it is important not only to take a vacation but also have a recovery experience during this period. This might be applicable to the tourism and hospitality industry. For example, tourism and hospitality service providers should ensure services or products that allow customers to have a recovery experience when they participate in various leisure and recreation activities. More importantly, based on the results of the current study, it is believed the tourism industry should encourage people to take a vacation by communicating and enlightening the benefits of tourism to them.

REFERENCES


Figure 2. Results for the proposed model.

Note: *p < .05, **p <.01; numbers indicate standardized path coefficients.
SEGMENTING MEDICAL TOURISTS BY PUSH–PULL MOTIVATIONS
—FOCUSING ON CHINESE, JAPANESE, AND AMERICAN
LATENT MEDICAL TOURISTS

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Jaebin ChaA, Kyungmin University

INTRODUCTION

Medical tourism is very popular in major tourist regions in Asia where treatment expenses are relatively cheap and where quality medical services and recreational facilities are provided. According to figures for foreign patients as of 2011, Thailand, India, and Singapore formed the leading group by receiving 1.56 million, 0.73 million, and 0.72 million people, respectively (Korea Institute for Industrial Economics & Trade, 2013). Within the diverse research on medical tourism, studies that identify the motives of medical tourists are important for the destination countries. By identifying the reasons why medical tourists visit certain countries for treatment, we can gain insights into the characteristics of these countries. Furthermore, to stimulate medical tourism, we need to identify the motivations of medical tourists, segment the market, and pursue a positioning strategy that lets us occupy a market segment in which we have a competitive advantage. Most studies that have segmented the medical tourism market have focused on benefits/risks and selection tendencies.

In this study, we investigate the difference in the medical tourism motivations of Chinese, Japanese, and American tourists, proceeding with a segmentation by motivation of tourists to enable a better understanding of the three groups of tourists. We examine the differences in Push-Pull motivation tendencies for the three major types of medical tourists in Korea—Chinese, Japanese, and American—and divide the groups so that we can expand into international medical tourism.

METHOD

We collected data by conducting surveys on Chinese, Japanese, and Americans who were potential medical tourists. The surveys were conducted for about 3 months from June 10, 2014 to September 20, 2014. We sent out a total of 2,000 surveys, and after discarding 279 surveys with insincere responses and missing values, we used 1,721 surveys (86.1%) in our final analysis. The questionnaire used in the empirical study consisted of attributes of medical tourism motivations and included 8 Push factor attributes, 10 Pull factor attributes, and 13 population statistic characteristics and medical tourism behavior variables for a total of 31 items. Surveys were translated into Chinese, Japanese, and English. The design of the questionnaire was based on preceding research (Chen et al., 2008; Choi et al., 2004; Saha et al., 1999; Vandamme & Leunis, 1993; Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Tapachai & Waryszack, 2000; Sánchez et al., 2006; Gallarza & Gil, 2008), and we edited the motivations for medical tourism for this study. Consequently, factor-clustering was only feasible with the aid of cluster analysis, the latter being the platform upon which market segmentation by motivation was built. The hierarchical cluster analysis seemed more suitable to identify the number of clusters, and the K-means cluster analysis was selected to classify the sample according to the push factors already extracted. Finally, chi-square test was used to identify the differences among clusters in terms of categorical variables (i.e., demographics and medical tourism-related behavior).

FINDINGS

Based on the findings from ANOVA, Table 4 presents that Push-Pull motivations are significantly different among Chinese, Japanese, and American latent medical tourists. However, the “tourism pull factor” was not significant (p > .05).

The two Push-Pull motivations identified above were used as composite variables for the
identification of medical tourism market segments. A three-cluster solution emerged from the analysis on the basis of the agglomeration coefficient and dendrogram. ANOVA tests revealed that four factors contributed to the differentiation of the three latent medical tourists clusters (Tables 5).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4. ANOVA (Medical Tourism Motivation Mean) Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 : Medical Push Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faster medical service compared to my country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheaper medical expense compared to my country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment of illness (disease) that is difficult to be treated in my country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safer and more reliable treatment than my country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The advantage that you can enjoy both medical service and tourism together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exotic and unusual sentiments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recharging and break from the busy daily life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities to be with my family/ friends/relatives while being treated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1 : Medical Pull Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A comfortable environment to rest after treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced high-tech medical facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly skilled medical staff and professionals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease of administrative procedures including visa and insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability of treatment in internationally accredited hospitals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospital staff’s friendly medical service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2 : Tourism Pull Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various foods of the country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Various opportunities for shopping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural similarity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. ANOVA (Medical Tourism Motivation Mean) Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Push Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Push Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Pull Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Pull Factor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CONCLUSION**

The aim of this paper is twofold: first of all, to investigate similarities and differences between Chinese, Japanese, and American latent medical tourists and, second, to propose an international medical tourism market segmentation for medical tourism Push-Pull motivations. To this extent, we focused on the three biggest markets (Chinese, Japanese, and American). We conclude that there are differences among the three nationalities in terms of the push and pull motivations to travel for medical tourism. Additionally, we propose a medical tourism market segmentation that consists of three segments. Regarding the cross-cultural comparison, the importance of push and pull motivations varies among the three nationalities of our samples. The aforementioned period was rich in studies comparing medical tourism motivations of tourists from different countries and proposing
segmentations based on medical tourism motivations for one nationality at a time. This study proposes another way of tackling the market segmentation issue by conducting an international segmentation combining countries from a specific geographic region with several differences and similarities across the countries. This is a significant addition because one of the basic criteria for evaluating market segmentation is the viability of the segments.

REFERENCES


Korea Institute for Industrial Economics & Trade. (2013). Project to examine and analyze policies related to the international competitiveness of the medical tourism industry.


CONSUMERS’ ONLINE ENGAGEMENT IN FACEBOOK

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Chihyung “Michael” Ok, Temple University
Kwangsoo Park, North Dakota State University

INTRODUCTION

Social media is a powerful communication channel for businesses to connect to and interact with customers. Researchers have utilized social media analytics to investigate trends or patterns in the communication (Fan & Gordon, 2014). Social media analytics is known as an emerging method for collecting social media contents, interpreting results, and developing implications among researchers and practitioners. As a data resource, Facebook is the largest social media in the world (Alexa.com, n.d.) having more than 1 billion users in the network. Given the popularity of Facebook, marketers have involved in social media marketing to improve brand reputation and to enhance interaction with customers (Ji, Li, North, & Liu, 2017; Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, & Silvestre, 2011). Despite the contribution of researchers in the hospitality and tourism field with the new approaches such as text analysis or sentiment analysis (e.g., Park, Ok, & Chae, 2016; Xiang, Schwartz, Gerdes, & Uysal, 2015), little attention has been paid to customers’ engagement in Facebook. This study explores customers’ online engagement levels in the Facebook communities of three hospitality brands (Disneyland, Marriott, and Starbucks) to better understand the engagement patterns in each brand. Attributes influencing engagement are further examined to provide meaningful implications.

METHOD

“netvizz on Facebook” v1.41 was used to collect Facebook posts from each brand page including attributes such as content types, messages, publication time, the number of likes, shares, and comments of page posts (Table 1). The application allows researchers to collect 999 recent posts published by the page account at the maximum. Data were collected on February 17 in 2017. MS Excel 2016 was adopted for data screening and chart creation. SPSS 21.0 was used for ANOVA tests.

FINDINGS

Descriptive analysis. Disneyland has posted more link- and video-type contents than photo-type contents. Marriott and Starbucks, on the other hand, mostly have posted photo-type contents. Compared with the interaction index averages of other brand pages, Starbucks has had more engagement levels (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Content Types and Interaction Index Averages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disney</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriott</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starbucks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 
A) Others: status, events, offer
B) Reactions (attribute name: reactions_count_fb) = likes + other icons (Emoji) + other reactions
C) Engagements (attribute name: engagement_fb) = reactions + shares + comments

The number of likes of pages: Disneyland (17,779K likes), Marriott (2,500K likes), Starbucks (36,556K likes).
**Engagement level trend monitoring.** To display all engagement scores of each in sequence over time, column bar charts are created with linear trend lines (Figure 1). The results show Starbucks has made increasing engagement trends while Marriott has been losing engagement scores as time goes by.

![Figure 1. Engagement Level Trends of Facebook posts](image)

**Attributes influencing on engagement score.**

Table 2 shows posts having the largest numbers of engagement in the datasets.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Message</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Likes</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Shares</th>
<th>Engagement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Disneyland)</td>
<td>Photo <em>Happy day of the dead!</em></td>
<td>11/2/2015, 5:00PM</td>
<td>243,750</td>
<td>2,409</td>
<td>33,322</td>
<td>279,690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Marriott)</td>
<td>Photo *Our office was filled with backflips and roof raises when we hit one million fans. Join our #MyMarriottMillion contest and celebrate with us!*<a href="http://bit.ly/MarriottMillion">http://bit.ly/MarriottMillion</a></td>
<td>4/30/2013, 4:20PM</td>
<td>51,837</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>3,035</td>
<td>55,307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Starbucks)</td>
<td>Photo <em>Me + You + Chocolate + Chocolate + Chocolate + Chocolate + Chocolate + Chocolate = Molten Chocolate Latte. Now thru Feb. 14 #StarbucksDate</em></td>
<td>2/8/2016, 7:24PM</td>
<td>606,884</td>
<td>102,359</td>
<td>96,992</td>
<td>806,311</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Portion of likes, shares, and comments on engagement score.**

Engagement score is a sum of the numbers of comments, shares, and other reactions. Table 3 presents representative posts having the highest number to engagement by Facebook users.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Message</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Portion of Engagement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Disneyland)</td>
<td>Photo <em>Disneyland updated their profile picture.</em></td>
<td>9/12/2016, 8:04PM</td>
<td>0.987 0.027 0.030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video</td>
<td><em>March Magic Tournament - Crocs vs. Skippers</em></td>
<td>3/20/2016, 5:30PM</td>
<td>0.226 0.766 0.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo</td>
<td><em>The Disneyland Resort celebrated 60 dazzling years during this year’s Rose Parade with a float honoring some of the most exciting adventures that await guests at the Happiest Place on Earth. Take a look!</em></td>
<td>1/5/2016, 5:00PM</td>
<td>0.379 0.016 0.611</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. The Most Highly Engaged Posts (Likes, Comments, and Shares)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Message</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Portion of Engagement</th>
<th>Likes</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Shares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>This past week Marriott celebrated the people who worked hard to make the Marriott Port-au-Prince Hotel Haiti happen. View all the action here and visit starting on March 1st.</td>
<td>3/1/2015, 10:47PM</td>
<td>0.986</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link</td>
<td>Hotel as laboratory? How Charlotte Marriott City Center strives to stoke and satisfy curiosity.</td>
<td>1/6/2017, 4:04AM</td>
<td>0.415</td>
<td>0.561</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>We are thrilled to announce that today, no matter where you go, you are here. With more than 5,700 hotels in over 110 countries, we are now a part of the world’s largest collection of hotels + travel experiences. Join or link your accounts at <a href="http://bit.ly/2atnJ75">http://bit.ly/2atnJ75</a>.</td>
<td>9/23/2016, 1:44PM</td>
<td>0.610</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Starbucks)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Message</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Portion of Engagement</th>
<th>Likes</th>
<th>Comments</th>
<th>Shares</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Photo</td>
<td>Stay warm. Be Happy.</td>
<td>1/9/2014, 12:22AM</td>
<td>0.991</td>
<td>0.007</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Who is your favorite person to have coffee with?</td>
<td>10/8/2011, 12:36AM</td>
<td>0.364</td>
<td>0.616</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer</td>
<td>Enjoy a Grande Iced Coffee, Iced Tea, or Starbucks Refreshers Beverage for $1 on June 7.</td>
<td>6/6/2013, 8:15PM</td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>0.078</td>
<td>0.600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Engagement score differences.**

To confirm the significant differences of engagement scores among three content types, one-way ANOVA was conducted. In the Disneyland case, photo- and video-type posts had higher engagement scores. In the Marriott case, photo-type posts had higher engagement scores. In the Starbucks case, photo-type posts had higher engagement scores than link-type contents.

**Table 4. Engagement Score Differences among Post Types (One-Way ANOVA)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Link</th>
<th>Photo</th>
<th>Video</th>
<th>Post-hoc (Scheffe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disneyland</td>
<td>87.535</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>8296.19</td>
<td>31659.97</td>
<td>16560.55</td>
<td>Photo &gt; Video***, Video &gt; Link***, Photo &gt; Link***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriott</td>
<td>25.536</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>201.35</td>
<td>2659.86</td>
<td>152.29</td>
<td>Photo &gt; Link***, Photo &gt; Video***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starbucks</td>
<td>18.962</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>16087.25</td>
<td>75542.83</td>
<td>45144.43</td>
<td>Photo &gt; Link***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: DV - Engagement score; *** - p < .001

**IMPLICATIONS**

This study explored social media analytics following the procedure: data collection → descriptive analysis → engagement trend monitoring → content analysis by calculating portions of engagement. Based on the findings, three implications are summarized below.

First, findings in this study showed that three types of posts (i.e., photo, link, and video) have been frequently used for social media marketing. Photo-type Facebook posts have significantly higher engagement levels than the other two types. This is consistent with Kwok and Yu’s (2013) finding that proved photo-type messages received more comments.

Second, reviewing posts that have the highest engagement scores (Table 2 and 3) showed celebrating messages (e.g., Halloween day and the 60th anniversary day in Disneyland, the brand merger celebration of Marriott) had a bigger contribution to enhancing the engagement of brand community members in Facebook. In this regards, questions asking opinions of social media followers (fans) effectively contributed to the number of comments. Marketers may consider
this when designing messages of Facebook posts.

Third, this research examined the engagement trends of brands in Facebook (Table 1 and Figure 1). Tools used in this research would be useful and convenient to be used by marketers to monitor their social media marketing performance. Future studies may develop a research framework that provides a theoretical foundation for brand engagement in online communities.

REFERENCES


THE EFFECT OF REAL–TIME SOCIAL MEDIA ENGAGEMENT ON MILLENNIALS’ EVENT EXPERIENCE: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

Kyung-Hyan Yoo, William Paterson University of New Jersey
Woojin Lee, Arizona State University
Gabriela Mera, Today's Business

INTRODUCTION

The emergence of social media has significantly changed the event attendees’ approach to events as well as the marketing communication strategies of event planners. As Martin and Cazarre (2016) noted, the strategic use of social media could improve the experience of the event attendees and build a relationship with them. The use of social media is especially notable for Millennials. In 2014, 72.7 million Millennials in the United States accessed social networking services (Statista, 2017) and 56 percent searched the information about events, movies and restaurants online (Statista, 2015). In this “Participation Age” they play as ‘prosumers’ (producers +consumers), who don’t simply attend the events but also create the event experience together (Martin & Cazarre, 2016).

Some recent studies have examined the role and impacts of social media in event marketing. Becker and her colleagues (2009) explained the critical role of Facebook event pages in enabling potential attendees to find the local events, to read reviews, and to create relations, which can facilitate increased event attendance. Lee, Xiong and Hu (2012) found that the Facebook fans’ perceived enjoyment of social media marketing significantly influences on their attitudes toward an event and intention to visit. The empirical study by Hudson and his colleagues (2015) also showed the positive impacts of social media on the attendees’ event engagement and their willingness to recommend the event. The word-of-mouth generated around events has also been considered as an outcome to evaluate the event marketing (Wood, 2009). These findings suggest the positive influence of social media communication on the event attendees’ attitudes and behavioral intentions. While these studies examined the role of social media as a marketing tool before the events and the word of mouth generated as an outcome of event marketing, there is still a lack of studies that examined how the real-time social media communication influences the event attendees’ experience. According to a recent finding (Cummings, 2016), 81 percent of millennials shared a photo on social media at branded events and 71 percent used the events’ hashtag on social media. As a growing number event organizers seek to engage the attendees using the social technologies, more empirical studies to understand the effects of real-time social media communication should be conducted. To fill this void, the current exploratory study was conducted with millennials at an event to test the following three hypotheses: H1. The event experience will be more positive for attendees who use the event hashtag to read the event-related social media contents; H2. The event experience will be more positive for attendees who use the event hashtag to create the event-related social media contents; H3. The event-related social media content creation behavior has a positive impact on the event attendees’ event experience.

METHOD

For this exploratory study, an onsite intercept survey was conducted in March 2016 at a social event organized by a student-run organization at a university in Northeast US. The survey consists of questions regarding the event attendees’ use of event hashtag, the reasons to use the hashtags, their event experience as well as the demographic characteristics. The event hashtag was created by the event organizer and promoted using social media, posters, flyers and announcements to encourage the attendees’ social media engagement. The survey was distributed to 148 attendees but only 100 attendees returned the completed surveys which form the actual sample
for this study.

The event experience measurement scale was adopted and modified from Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010) and Wood (2009). Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the nine items on 7-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7). The items include: The event was joyful; stimulating; exciting; excellent; fulfilling; perceptually interesting; relaxing; valuable; and engaged my senses. The exploratory factor analysis result confirms the uni-dimensionality of scale. Reliability tests also showed the high internal consistency of the factor with Cronbach Alpha score of .96. The social media engagement of attendees was measured with three questions that asked whether they used the event hashtag to read event-related contents, created the contents with the event hashtag, and how many event-related contents they created. The first two questions were dichotomous (yes/no) questions while the last question was an interval level question. Independent sample t-test was used to examine the differences between the hashtag users and non-users. Participants were further divided into three groups according to their number of social media contents created. The groups were compared using a one-way ANOVA on levels of their event experience.

FINDINGS

Descriptive analysis. All participants were millennials, between the age of 18 and 35. The vast majority of participants were college students (88%). More females (66%) than male (34%) participated in the survey. Among the participants, 55 percent of attendees used the event hashtag during the event to read the contents created by other attendees. They indicated that they used the hashtag to find the event information (39%), to show their support by liking the contents (34%) and to be a part of communal presence (22%). 70 percent of event attendees created the contents during the event with the event hashtag. The most popular social media platforms used in publishing their contents were Instagram (60%) and Snapchat (54%) followed by Twitter (26%) and Facebook (6%). The results identified a number of reasons that event attendees created the social media contents with the event hashtag. More than a half of respondents (55%) said that they used the hashtag to share their event photos/videos while forty-one percent participants did it to share their personal experience with followers. About 30 percent of attendees posted the contents with the event hashtag to share the information about the event and also to engage with other attendees (29%). Other reasons include promote the event (23%) and discuss with the event organization (13%). The mean of attendees’ event experience was 6.3 out of 7 which indicates that they had a good event experience overall.

Event Content Creators vs. Searchers.

The crosstab analysis indicated more than 70 percent of content creators also searched and read the contents using the event hashtag. This suggests a quite substantial overlap between event content creators and searchers which indicates that those who actively use the event hashtag to create the contents are also actively search and read contents generated by other creators (see Table 1).The crosstab result was significant (p=.000) with the chi-square value 27.7. This suggests the association between contents search and creation behaviors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Overlap between Reading Contents and Creating Contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content Creation: Used the Hashtag to Create Contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Social Media Engagement and Event Experience.

Hypothesis 1 tested for differences between content searchers and non-searchers on their event experience. The t-test result showed there is a significant difference between two groups (p = .024). The event attendees who searched and read the event-related contents using the event hashtag had a higher quality event experience than the
non-searchers. H1 was supported. Hypothesis 2 assumed the more positive event experience for the event-related content creators than non-creators. There was a significant difference in their event experience (p = .007) which supported H2 (see Table 2).

To further investigate the impacts of event attendees’ social media engagement on their event experience, a one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted. The event attendees were categorized into three groups according to the number of social media contents created (Group 1: No content; Group 2: 1–5 posts; Group 3: 6 or more posts). The result showed that there was a statistically significant difference at the p <.01 level in their event experience for the three groups: F (2, 97) = 6.6, p = .002. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .12 which would be considered as a moderate effect according to Cohen (1988). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (M = 5.88, SD = 1.17) was significantly different from Group 2 (M = 6.53, SD = 0.65). Although, Group 3 (M = 6.69, SD = 0.47) did not differ significantly from either Group 1 or Group 2, the means of three groups’ event experience indicated that their event experience quality was higher for the groups who were more active on event-related social media content creation. H3 was also supported.

### Table 2. T-Test Results: Differences in Event experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content searchers</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>60.9</td>
<td>.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-searchers</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content creators</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-creators</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### DISCUSSION

This exploratory study aimed to test the effect of real-time social media engagement on the millennials’ event experience. The findings of study showed that the real-time social media communication using the event hashtag could enhance the millennials’ event experience as the social media provided them the channel to read the event information and the contents created by other attendees. They also shared their event photos/videos and interacted with other attendees on the social media during the event. Instagram and Snapchat are the most used social platforms followed by Twitter and Facebook. This partially confirms the recent findings by ComScore (2014) which found that Millennials skew more heavily than their older counterparts on Instagram, and Snapchat. While the study found that Facebook remains the leading platform for Millennials, our result showed only 6 percent used Facebook. This might be because the Facebook is not a leading social platform for the real-time communication. However, Facebook recently introduced the Facebook Live, the real-time video which may change the real-time event marketing practices. The empirical findings of this exploratory study provide a quick snapshot of millennials’ social media use at the event and its impacts. However, many questions still remain unanswered. Futures studies should further investigate the related questions such as the generational differences, the behavioral outcomes of real-time social media engagement and the study in a larger scale event.

### REFERENCES


ASSESSMENT OF TRAINING PROGRAM FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE PHILIPPINES: ENHANCING THE SKILLS OF TOURISM, HOTEL AND RESTAURANT MANAGEMENT TEACHERS

Bernadeth B. Gabor, Bataan Peninsula State University
Nomer N Varua, Bataan Peninsula State University

INTRODUCTION

To be able to achieve effective teaching and productive learning, teachers should see themselves as capable of achieving the dimensions of good teaching. Using the National Competency Based Teaching Standards (NCBTS) as a framework, Filipino teachers should be able to see their strengths and ensure that such strengths be consistently utilized in teaching practice. If weaknesses are identified, teachers can plan for various professional development activities which are essential for their growth and development. Professional development is a formal in-service training to upgrade the content knowledge and pedagogical skills of teachers.

The teacher’s academic advancement and professional upgrading activities contribute to an enjoyable and productive teaching. However, financial worries sometimes form part of the teacher’s failure in doing their best in the teaching arena. In some instances, teachers struggle to get out of their own way to perform better on their job and achieve the desired goal, but there are times when teacher’s job performance can be affected by quite a lot of conflict in their profession and financial difficulties (Ramos-Shahani, 2015). This is where the BPSU Office of Extension services comes in. Taking an active role as “Pamantasan Para sa Bayan (University of and for the People)”, BPSU has continuously offered professional enhancement programs for basic education teachers at a very accessible rate yet competent training.

For the past five years, BPSU through the OES has been conducting the Skills Enhancement Training (SET) for Technology and Livelihood Education (TLE) teachers. Began in 2011, it has become a popular advanced training ground for the province’s numerous TLE teachers.

In this line, to help the teachers of the DepEd Balanga City and Division of Bataan especially the THE teachers upgrade their skills and knowledge in various skills, this activity was conducted for five years. Filipino basic education teachers are in great need of more trainings to enhance their skills and knowledge (Pazzibugan, 2013). Through the university, trainings are provided to TLE teachers for a minimal cost and at the same time help them provide better and improved delivery and transmission of skills to their future students. Furthermore, the training is in response to the demand of the Dep Ed to have its TLE teachers acquire National Certifications (NC II) as teachers. This paper assessed the conduct of the said training over the course of five years.

METHOD

This paper utilizes quantitative approach in presenting data and results. Quantitative research is a research method that requires quantifiable data involving numerical and statistical explanations. Quantitative research is a more logical and data-led approach which provides a measure of what people think from a statistical and numerical point of view. Quantitative research largely uses methods such as questionnaires and surveys with set questions and answers that respondents tick from a predefined selection. The data are presented in numerical form which can be put into categories, or in rank order, or measured in units of measurement. This type of data can be used to construct graphs and tables of raw data. (Cohen, 2004)
FINDINGS

The following are just some of the major findings of the study.

Figure 1 (right) presents the number of Technology and Livelihood Education (TLE) teachers coming from various DepEd supervised high schools in the Province of Bataan from 2011 to 2016. There were no TESDA certifications on the first two years of the skills enhancement training. But the offering of TESDA certifications in the last three years have proven the expertise of the program in producing certified technical professionals through the program.

![Figure 1: Number of Participants from 2011-2016](image)

Figure 2 presents the TESDA NC II passing rates from 2013 – 2016. The participants in the skills training delivered very impressive performances in TESDA administered assessments, with just one individual not able to pass the assessment in 2015. In 2016, participants in both the F&B and Housekeeping posted 100% passing rates.

![Figure 2. TESDA Passing Rates of SET Participants**](image)

To evaluate the success of the activity, an evaluation questionnaire was distributed at the last day of each of the weeklong training. The results of the evaluation serve as an indicator and a benchmark of success for the conduct of similar extension activity in the future. The following is a consolidated data from 2011 to 2016, representing how the participants assess the training in terms of the standard evaluation areas of the BPSU Office of Extension and Training Services.

| Table 1. Frequency distribution and Weighted Mean for Course Content |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| INDICATOR               | 5    | 4    | 3    | 2    | 1    | TOTAL |
|                        | Mean | Descriptive Rating |
| 1. Course Content       | 100  | 5     | Excellent |
| 1.1 Significance        | 100  | 5     | Excellent |
| 1.2 Comprehensiveness   | 100  | 5     | Excellent |
| 1.3 Practicality        | 100  | 5     | Excellent |

| Table 2. Frequency distribution and Weighted Mean for Training Courses |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| INDICATOR               | Frequency |
| 2. Training Process     | 5    | 4    | 3    | 2    | 1    | TOTAL |
|                        | Mean | Descriptive Rating |
| 2.1 Exposition of the Course | 100  | 4.9   | Excellent |
| 2.2 Sequencing of Instruction | 100  | 4.9   | Excellent |
| 2.3 Dynamism of Instruction | 100  | 4.9   | Excellent |
| 2.4 Student Participation | 100  | 4.9   | Excellent |
**Table 3. Frequency distribution and Weighted Mean for Trainers and Facilitators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATOR</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Descriptive Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. Teachers, Facilitators and Staff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Strategies of Teaching</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Knowledge of the Subject Matter</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Classroom Management</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The course contents were rated Excellent. About the process of teaching and training, all items are rated Excellent. With regards to trainers and facilitators, the entire activity was rated consistently Excellent.

**CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

Providing advance professional development for teachers is an urgent activity for secondary school teachers. With the drought of inexpensive yet competent advance trainings available for secondary school teachers, the BPSU Training Program for TLE teachers provide an efficient and effective platform for teachers to gain advance skills and acquire TESDA certifications. The conduct of TLE Teachers Enhancement Trainings for the past five years can be considered to be highly successful as reflected in the results of the Evaluation Questionnaires given to the participants. The consistent Excellent ratings are implications of the success of the weeklong trainings. However, the measurement of its impact is yet to be determined, the time when the trained individuals will start gaining awards on their skills competitions. With the highly receptive participants, it is anticipated that the participants will be gaining a lot of momentum from the trainings, and will eventually reflect on their performances in competitions as well as in their own classrooms. The project could be repeated for other institutions so as to disseminate to the community of the university the expertise and knowledge of the institution.

**REFERENCES**


ENHANCING TOURISM EDUCATION IN A STATE UNIVERSITY: THE CASE OF SUMMER TOURISM PROGRAM AT THE BATAAN PENINSULA STATE UNIVERSITY

Joanne D. Lobrino, Bataan Peninsula State University

INTRODUCTION

The Bachelor of Science in Tourism Management is a four-year program designed to provide the needed professional preparation and training for exciting and rewarding careers in the tourism industry. The program integrates a competency based training methodology to prepare graduates to become globally competitive, professionally competent, morally upright, and socially responsible contributors to national development.

The program envisions to provide students with a greater understanding of tourism and its role in local, national and global, economic, social and cultural development. The program orients students with the skills and knowledge necessary to manage human, physical and financial resources of tourism regions in an environmentally responsible manner.

According to Solis (2013), while the government took major initiatives to make the tourism and hospitality curriculum relevant, a number of concerns vis a vis the preparation of graduates still remain among which include poor language proficiency, limited apprenticeship exposure as compared to other prestigious tourism and hospitality schools in other countries, thereby giving less opportunities for students to master technical skills.

To address such challenges, the university shall constantly see to it that our students are given sufficient trainings to become more competitive professionals; otherwise, they will be caught behind the expected skills and competencies for Tourism graduates.

In this line, the faculty members of Hotel and Restaurant Management/Tourism Management has designed a training program to supplement the training of Tourism students. The proposed training shall provide the participants with advanced skills in Food and Beverages Service, Front Office Management, and Housekeeping leading to certifications. To be handled by the qualified faculty members.

This Summer Short-Term Course intended for the upcoming senior students of the Bachelor of Science in Tourism Program were the outcome of the two researchers conducted from the academic year 2014-2015 which were funded by the Commission in Higher Education as part of the budget allocated to the Tourism Building. The two research studies were entitled, “Establishment of a Travel and Tourism Center in Bataan Peninsula State University” and “The Opportunities and Effects of IT-BPO in Preparation for University Town 2020 as Basis for Enhanced Tourism Program” (Gabor, Lobrino and Lim, 2015). This activity is considered as an income generating project for the University.

METHOD

The method used in this simple study is quantitative and the design is descriptive. This type of research describes what exists and may help to uncover new facts and meaning. The purpose of descriptive research is to observe, describe and document aspects of a situation as it naturally occurs (Polit & Hungler 1999). In particular, it employs survey research to gather data for analysis. Survey research is a commonly used method of collecting information about a population of interest.

FINDINGS

The training was conducted in five weeks covering five Skills Module. The module included Food and Beverages Service, Bar Management, Housekeeping, Front Office, and Events Management. After the five-week training, a post-training evaluation was conducted.

Table 1 below shows that the delivery of the module on an average of the daily evaluation for each module are all rated “Excellent”.
The trainers were also rated “Excellent” after collating the daily evaluation of trainers for each module in the course of five months as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Evaluation of Trainers per Module

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Presentation Quality</th>
<th>Substantial Material</th>
<th>Rapport</th>
<th>Active Participation</th>
<th>Instructional Organization</th>
<th>Overall Rating</th>
<th>Average Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.69</td>
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<td>4.69</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>4.81</td>
<td>4.74</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The overall training program was also rated “Excellent” by the participants across all modules as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Result of the Evaluation of the Organization of the Training Per Module

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Over-all Perception on the Module</th>
<th>Over-all Relevance of the Module</th>
<th>Usefulness of the Module</th>
<th>Teamwork</th>
<th>Training Materials</th>
<th>Training Sequence</th>
<th>Instructing Condition</th>
<th>Intensity</th>
<th>Level of Interest</th>
<th>Transferability of Skills</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Fulfillment of Objectives</th>
<th>Average Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>4.78</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>4.76</td>
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<td>4.76</td>
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<td>4.87</td>
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<td>4.85</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is important to measure the impact of the skills and knowledge transferred to the participants. Table 4 shows that there was 23.26% increase in the aggregate knowledge of the participants across all modules.
Table 4. Impact on the Improvement of Knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Average Score</th>
<th>Improvement of Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Food and Beverages Service</td>
<td>65.58</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bar Management</td>
<td>78.89</td>
<td>19.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Housekeeping</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>16.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Front Office Management</td>
<td>78.26</td>
<td>19.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Events Management</td>
<td>68.52</td>
<td>30.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>74.55</td>
<td>23.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The high mark given by the participants proved that the delivery of advancement trainings for the BS Tourism students at the Bataan Peninsula State University is indeed successful. This rating was further corroborated by a substantial increase in the knowledge and skills level of the participants as reflected in the more than 23% improvement of knowledge.

The results suggest that additional trainings for students will facilitate increase in skills and knowledge and that there is a link between an excellent delivery of a training program and substantial increase in knowledge. Regular and consistent evaluation of a training program is an important component of a successful training program delivery, measuring the aspects of program that will inform instructional deliveries in tourism and hospitality education.

REFERENCES


UNDERSTANDING NORTH AMERICAN MBA PROGRAMS’ INTERNATIONAL STUDY MISSIONS AS A NICHE TRAVEL MARKET SEGMENT

Bradley S. Brennan, Inha University
Kyung Mi Bae, Inha University

INTRODUCTION

This research paper aims to make an original contribution to knowledge by providing current detailed information on graduate business school’s popular short-stay international study tours and how business schools have used these tours in their process to internationalize their curriculum by providing students an opportunity to experience foreign countries economies, business culture and to improve student’s cultural quotient (CQ). According to Currie et al. (2004), overseas travel was justified as one aspect of higher-level learning in international business. The values of an overseas experience in providing international education were brought up by the multiple researchers in 1990s (Sartathy, 1990; Nehrt, 1993; Arpan, 1993, and Schechter, 1993). The emphasis was made on the ability of the university playing the role of overseas travel in international education by offering an overseas experience to students especially in obtaining higher-level learning in international business, understanding and competence (Kedia & Cornwall, 1994; Kedia & Harveston, 1998). As per (Altbach & Knight 2007) the international activities of universities dramatically expanded in volume, scope and complexity during the past two decades. As the world continues to become more globalized, so have EMBA/MBA programs (referred to collectively as MBA from this point on) efforts to become more internationally focused and incorporate a global perspective. Incorporating short ‘study missions’/‘study tours’ of 1-2 weeks to foreign destinations to learn more about emerging and mature market’s business culture, companies and economies through company site company inspections, lectures, joint classes, projects, while also enjoying the countries cultural heritages and tourist attractions.

This research paper will show the current trend of MBA programs study tours in North America as well as expanded details about the three types of MBA programs study tours, i.e. full-time MBA, part-time MBA and executive MBA programs related to study tour preferences in foreign destination, tour duration, costs, booking preferences, activities, and in country preferences for types of hotels, booking and tourist activities. This study also updates and greatly expands upon an earlier survey of the short-term international study tour conducted by Currie, D. M., Matulich, S. & Gilbert, J.P. (2004) and provides a much deeper understanding of travel preferences for the benefits of the national and international tourism industry public and private entities that should market to this important tourism niche market.

In this paper we will summarize the major findings from a 2016 survey conducted in order to postulate the impact of the graduate business school’s study tours through their commitment to internationalize their programs, substantiate the tourism impact for destinations visited and detail preferences with regards to destination selection, activities while abroad and to give greater understanding of the MBA study tour itself with the conclusion that short-term international study tours are increasingly becoming a standard elective or required component in the top half of MBA programs.

RESEARCH SAMPLE

The on-line survey by Currie et al. (2004), was sent to 665 graduate business schools in Canada & the USA with 305 responding (46% response rate) to the survey representing 484 MBA programs at the full and part-time levels, including Executive programs (Table 1). In 2016 on-line survey by Brennan & Bae was emailed to (Table 2) 774 Canadian & American graduate business schools with 234 responding (33% response rate) representing 524 MBA (Table 3) full-time (152), part-time (174), fulltime & part-time (119), and
EMBA programs (79). There has been a large increase in the number of business schools (665 schools in 2003 and 774 in 2016) and MBA programs offered by these schools.

RESEARCH METHOD

The data collected in 2016 was through an in-depth on-line survey of 284 universities in North America with the results analyzed through the quantitative method to assess MBA institutions commitment to international study tours and some basic measurements about the programs that included student participation, faculty participation, time spent abroad, activities performed abroad and how was the trip financed. The Brennan & Bae research study re-administered the identical seven questions asked in 2003 including market hotel and airline booking preferences, travel preferences with regards to hotel class, pre-trip assistance by tourism boards, spending preferences and etc. in order to substantiate that international study tours have grown to be an integral international aspect of leading MBA programs as well as an additional eleven questions that better define this MBA short term study tour niche tourism market within the broader educational tourism to better understand the MBA international study mission as an educational tourism niche market.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Increased globalization pressures on companies, has in turn pressed business schools to adapt to the needs of firms by internationalizing their curriculum in order to prepare graduates for the needs of today’s firms. This process is evident from a Strategic Alliance Theory perspective in which, T. K. Das, Bing-Sheng Teng (2000) suggest the rationale for alliances is the value-creation potential of firm resources that are pooled together. Das & Teng (2000) go on to hypothesize that; the proposed theory covers four major aspects of strategic alliances: rationale, formation, structural preferences, and performance. Further suggesting Das & Teng (2000) that the rationale for alliances is the value-creation potential of firm resources that are pooled together. With this in mind, (Graph 1) the synergy created by the informal cooperation between businesses, business schools and business students is evident in that business schools are constantly pushing to internationalize in order to keep up with businesses ever increasing global competitiveness and their need for more globally competent, internationally minded and more culturally aware workforce and to raise the name brand value of the institutions. This is point is also made by Altbach & Knight (2007) traditional internationalization is rarely a profit-making activity, although it may enhance the competitiveness, prestige, and strategic alliances of the college.

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Section I: Comparing Currie, et al., 2004 versus Brennan & Bae 2016 Surveys

A major difference between the surveys conducted by Currie, et al., 2004, and by Brennan & Bae in 2016 is that they only differentiated between full-time and part time MBA programs including the EMBA programs. Currie et al., did not differentiate between MBA and EMBA, which are very different students in terms of age, experience, income level and company position, therefore in this study EMBA students are treated as a separate group.

One can see a marked increase in the number of business schools including an overseas travel component in their MBA programs (Table 5) from 42% in 2003 to 62% in 2016 as well as a massive increase in the number of business schools requiring the foreign study mission from (Table 6) 10% in 2003 to 28% in 2016 a threefold increase. Of the (Table 7) 72% of schools in 2016 that have the foreign study tour as an elective trip 14% of part-time, 28% of full-time and 65% of EMBA programs indicated that 50% of their students opted to go on the elective foreign study tour. Another example of the importance of internationalization is international program accreditation (Table 3), which saw a large increase in AACSIB accreditation (most popular international accreditation in N. America) of MBA programs from 2003 (58%) to 2016 (76%) including EMBA programs.

MBA program’s faculty (Table 8) have also become more involved with the study tours as seen in 2003, 76% of FT faculty traveled with the students compared to 87% in 2016. Keeping in line
with the growing importance of the international study tour, universities have increased the number of credit hours (Table 9) students receive for the study tours, changing dramatically from 2003 (83% 3 credits, 9% 1–2 credits & 8% no credit) to 2016 (41% 4–12 credits, 59% 3 credits and no programs surveyed offering less than 3 credits. The duration of the trips (Table 10) in 2003 were 58% two weeks or more, 42% 7–14 days and 0% a week or less, compared to 2016 with 18% two weeks plus, 81% 7–14 days and 1% a week or less. The change from more programs going from two weeks plus shifting to most trips going to 7–14 days probably coincides with more programs offering more pre/post lectures/seminars, which is evident in MBA website descriptions of the study tours. The pre-trip lectures help to prepare the students about the destinations to be visited and what to expect about the culture, customs and business etiquette. A boon to the tourism infrastructure of destinations visited was evident in the 2016 survey (Table 11) showing that while visiting a country 90% of schools listed visiting tourist attractions as an essential activity. Importantly, the cost of the trip in 2003 (Table 12) was paid 74% by FT student and 26% by university tuition/fee and in 2016 it was paid 61% by FT student and 39% by tuition/fee in 2016, which shows many schools and employers are paying for these trips for the students showing increased value.

Section II: Brennan & Bae 2016 Expanded Survey Results

In 2016 the faculty members (Table 13) of all three types of programs chose the destinations 70% of the time with students and faculty or students choosing the destination 30% of the time. This is normally due to the fact that the professors who are leading the group have personal and professional connections to companies to be visited. FT MBA programs listed visiting (Table 14) only 1 country 69% of the time for a more in depth tour with 26% visiting 2 countries and 5% visiting 3 countries per trip with similar results for PT and EMBA. Multi destination trips typically are for a comparison contrast trip between an emerging market and a mature market for example. The preferred regions to visit (Table 15) in order of preference with Asia by far the most popular destination closely followed by Europe, with a distant third being S. America, then ME/Africa, and then ‘other’. MBA program’s prefer to book services (Table 16) like hotels, and airlines directly, followed by specialized travel agencies, tour operators, travel agencies and then by local DMCs. Interestingly, most MBA tours book the flights for their students as a group, however EMBA programs tend to let their students book their own flights and just give a day and time to meet at the airport. EMBA students are in higher level positions at their companies and tend to use their frequent-flier mileage for booking or for upgrades and they want the flexibility to choose their airline and tend to upgrade to business class.

Regarding the class of hotels booked (Table 17) by FT/PT MBA 3% chose 5 star, 38% 4 star, 51% 3 star, 2% 2 star, 2% 1 star 2% other with EMBA preferring 16% 5 star, 39% 4 star, 14% 3 star, 1% 2 star, 0% 1 star and 1% other. This is significant for the hotel industry to see that EMBA groups prefer 5 & 4 star hotels 55% of the time and 3 star hotels only 14% of the time, whereas MBA groups prefer to book at 5 & 4 star hotels 41% of the time and 3 star hotels 51% of the time. Another very important factor when looking at this educational tourism niche market is that when choosing a destination (Table 18) both FT/PT and EMBA indicated that price was the least or almost the least important factor in choosing a destination with the quality of company visits and business contacts the most important. This is wonderful news for expensive destinations that can compete on quality of experience over the price of visiting the destination. The cost of trip (Table 19) not including airfare for FT/PT (averaged) MBA 12% listed $5,000+, 12% $5,000–$4,000, 31% $4,000–$3,000, 30% $3,000–$2,000 and 15% $2,000 or less and EMBA 17% $5,000+, 20% $5,000–$4,000, 42% $4,000–$3,000, 15% $3,000–$2,000 and 6% $2,000 or less. This is important for destinations marketing to this market segment because long-hall destinations are expensive, but this market segment is willing to pay significantly higher than regular tourists are high-quality company visits are possible. Surprisingly most programs do not utilize contacting a tourism board (Table 20) pre-trip, with only 19% of FT/PT MBA and 24% of EMBA programs doing so, with 81% and 76% respectively not doing so. Programs offering a foreign study tour component (Table 21) for five plus years was common with
84% of FT/PT MBA and 92% of EMBA programs indicating this and programs without a foreign study tour component (Table 22) 29% of FT/PT and 75% of EMBA programs stated ‘yes’ they will add one in the near future and 58% and 25% respectively stating they did not know when they would add one. The study tour group size (Table 23) for FT/PT MBA 2% were 75+, 5% 50–74, 27% 25–49, 39% 15–24 less than 14 at 28% with EMBA 6% 75+, 6% 50–74, 43% 25–49, 29% 15–24 less than 14 16%. These were the average size of the groups, with the majority of programs commenting that they send multiple groups abroad every year.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Firstly, conclusions reached through this study indicate that MBA study tours have become an integral part of graduate business programs efforts to internationalize their curriculum in order to satisfy the needs of an ever globalizing world economy to prepare future business graduates for internationalized companies. Secondly, the universities response to increased internationalization is achieved through informal strategic alliances between businesses, business schools and business student preparation. Thirdly, the prevalence of internationalization of universities faculty and student bodies and these MBA study tours should be a target of all tourism industry participants including tourism boards, hotels, travel agencies, tour operators and DMC’s particularly in Asia since it is the top preferred destination by N. American MBA study tours followed closely by the EU then South America. This high-end niche tourism market segment is composed of well-educated travelers, who travel from one to multiple destinations per trip, consume local tourism experiences, stay on average 9–14 days, stay at business class to upmarket hotels and have a higher chance to repeat travel to the destination visited. Tourism boards in particular should focus on this market due to less than 25% of MBA programs utilizing the services offered by tourism boards.

REFERENCES

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* This paper was supported by the INHA University Research Grant.
APPENDIX

### TABLE 1. Number of Responding Schools and Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>Not AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>Not AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>Totals</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respondents</td>
<td>(n=284)</td>
<td>(n=305)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brennan C, M &amp; J 2016</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time MBA Only</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time MBA Only</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FT &amp; PT MBA</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 2. MBA Country Responding?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th># of Surveys</th>
<th>% USA or CAN</th>
<th># of MBA Schools</th>
<th>% Replied</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EMBA/MBA USA</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>735</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMBA/MBA Canada</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>234</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>774</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 3. AACSB Accredited?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>Not AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>Not AACSB Accredited</th>
<th>Total Programs</th>
<th>Total Programs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brennan C, M &amp; J 2003</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time MBA Only</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part-time MBA Only</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time &amp; Part-time MBA</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>524</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMBA Program</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All MBA Programs</td>
<td>396 (76%)</td>
<td>178 (58%)</td>
<td>128 (24%)</td>
<td>127 (42%)</td>
<td>524</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 5. Do any of your MBA students travel abroad as part of this MBA program?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=182)</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=228)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=203)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=256)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=87)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=0)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brennan C, M &amp; G 2003</td>
<td>110 (60%)</td>
<td>96 (42%)</td>
<td>111 (55%)</td>
<td>101 (39%)</td>
<td>71 (82%)</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>110 (60%)</td>
<td>96 (42%)</td>
<td>111 (55%)</td>
<td>101 (39%)</td>
<td>71 (82%)</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>72 (40%)</td>
<td>132 (58%)</td>
<td>92 (45%)</td>
<td>155 (61%)</td>
<td>16 (18%)</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 6 Is foreign travel required or elective?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=96)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=101)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=0)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>79 (72%)</td>
<td>86 (90%)</td>
<td>90 (81%)</td>
<td>95 (94%)</td>
<td>29 (41%)</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Required</td>
<td>31 (28%)</td>
<td>10 (10%)</td>
<td>21 (19%)</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
<td>42 (59%)</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 7 Percentage of Students Taking Elective Travel Component?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=83)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=94)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=35)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75% or Higher</td>
<td>4 (5%)</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>5 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50%-74%</td>
<td>19 (23%)</td>
<td>11 (12%)</td>
<td>18 (51%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25%-49%</td>
<td>14 (17%)</td>
<td>21 (22%)</td>
<td>3 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24% or Lower</td>
<td>46 (55%)</td>
<td>60 (64%)</td>
<td>9 (26%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 8. Faculty Accompanying Students During Foreign Travel

Do faculty members accompany students during the foreign trip?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FT Program (n=110)</th>
<th>FT Programs (n=96)</th>
<th>PT Program (n=111)</th>
<th>PT Programs (n=101)</th>
<th>EMBA Program (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>96 (87%)</td>
<td>79 (76%)</td>
<td>103 (93%)</td>
<td>68 (96%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14 (13%)</td>
<td>17 (24%)</td>
<td>8 (7%)</td>
<td>3 (4%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE 9. Number of Hours of Academic Credit by Number of Programs

How many hours of academic credit are granted for the overseas trip?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=95)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=99)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8-11 Credit Hours</td>
<td>9 (8%)</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>87 (87%)</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
<td>4 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-7 Credit Hours</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
<td>6 (5%)</td>
<td>41 (58%)</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
<td>5 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Credit Hours</td>
<td>30 (27%)</td>
<td>21 (19%)</td>
<td>21 (30%)</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
<td>21 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* 1-2 Credit Hours</td>
<td>65 (59%)</td>
<td>78 (83%)</td>
<td>82 (74%)</td>
<td>87 (87%)</td>
<td>41 (58%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* No academic credit</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9 (9%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These questions were omitted from the 2016 survey and were later asked in a follow up question to the universities.

TABLE 10. Duration of visit by Program

How much time is normally spent abroad by students who participate in the foreign travel component?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=93)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=100)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10-14 Days</td>
<td>63 (57%)</td>
<td>59 (53%)</td>
<td>69 (69%)</td>
<td>42 (59%)</td>
<td>11 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-9 Days</td>
<td>26 (24%)</td>
<td>37 (33%)</td>
<td>42 (28%)</td>
<td>17 (24%)</td>
<td>59 (83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 week</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**TABLE 11. Activities While Abroad**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What activities take place during the time abroad?</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=121)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=100)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Take courses</td>
<td>55 (50%)</td>
<td>74 (61%)</td>
<td>53 (48%)</td>
<td>82 (66%)</td>
<td>29 (36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit companies</td>
<td>56 (51%)</td>
<td>71 (69%)</td>
<td>44 (40%)</td>
<td>78 (78%)</td>
<td>14 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visit tourist attractions</td>
<td>107 (97%)</td>
<td>49 (90%)</td>
<td>108 (97%)</td>
<td>16 (13%)</td>
<td>30 (38%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10 (9%)</td>
<td>19 (17%)</td>
<td>9 (8%)</td>
<td>13 (13%)</td>
<td>7 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Indicates 2003 survey did not ask about visit tourist attractions in their survey.

**TABLE 12. Payment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How is the cost of the foreign travel component covered?</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=121)</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=93)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=124)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=100)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=80)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paid by school student fee</td>
<td>74 (61%)</td>
<td>69 (74%)</td>
<td>82 (66%)</td>
<td>9 (7%)</td>
<td>14 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Included in tuition</td>
<td>8 (6%)</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>9 (7%)</td>
<td>9 (9%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>19 (16%)</td>
<td>9 (10%)</td>
<td>16 (13%)</td>
<td>13 (13%)</td>
<td>7 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 13. Destination Selection Process**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How are the foreign destinations chosen?</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=112)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By students</td>
<td>7 (6%)</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
<td>4 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By faculty</td>
<td>77 (70%)</td>
<td>79 (71%)</td>
<td>50 (69%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By faculty and students</td>
<td>17 (15%)</td>
<td>16 (14%)</td>
<td>11 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11 (9%)</td>
<td>11 (10%)</td>
<td>6 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 14. Destinations Travelled to During Trip**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How many foreign destinations do you visit during one trip?</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 country</td>
<td>77 (69%)</td>
<td>84 (76%)</td>
<td>53 (75%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 countries</td>
<td>28 (26%)</td>
<td>23 (21%)</td>
<td>16 (23%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 countries</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
<td>4 (3%)</td>
<td>2 (3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE 15. Destination Region Preferences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What regions are most desirable for travel in order of importance? (1 is most desirable and 5 is least desirable)</th>
<th>Full-time Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>Part-time Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>58 31 3 3 6</td>
<td>51 31 18 6 5</td>
<td>43 14 8 3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>36 32 22 18 2</td>
<td>37 25 32 14 3</td>
<td>15 25 17 11 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America</td>
<td>8  39 54 9 0</td>
<td>14 43 45 6 3</td>
<td>5  28 33 5 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.E./Africa</td>
<td>3  6 18 73 10</td>
<td>2  8 15 75 11</td>
<td>5  3 11 47 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5  2 4 7 92</td>
<td>7  4 1 10 89</td>
<td>3  1 2 5 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE 16. Travel Booking Preferences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you book your foreign travel?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Full-time Programs</td>
<td>Part-time Programs</td>
<td>EMBA Programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=146)</td>
<td>(n=149)</td>
<td>(n=97)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directly: (Airlines, hotels, transport. &amp; etc.)</td>
<td>53 (36%)</td>
<td>54 (36%)</td>
<td>34 (35%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agency: (General travel agency)</td>
<td>21 (14%)</td>
<td>14 (9%)</td>
<td>6 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel Agency: (Specialized travel agency)</td>
<td>39 (27%)</td>
<td>46 (32%)</td>
<td>38 (39%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour operator</td>
<td>18 (12%)</td>
<td>24 (16%)</td>
<td>14 (15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local DMC: (Destination Management Co.)</td>
<td>15 (11%)</td>
<td>11 (7%)</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 17. Accommodation Preferences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What class of hotel do you normally stay at during a trip?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Star</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 18. Destination Selection Preferences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What are the most important factors in choosing a destination for an international MBA study mission?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1 is most desirable and 6 is least desirable)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company visits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business-academic connections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business climate-situation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 19. Program Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What is the average cost of the trip (excluding international flight)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$5,000+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$4,000-$4,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$3,000-$3,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2,000-$2,999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$1999 or under</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 20. Destination Tourism Board Assistance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you contact the foreign destination’s tourism board for information or help?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 21. Study Tour Program Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FT Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>PT Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>FT/PT Programs (n=221)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5+ years</td>
<td>92 (84%)</td>
<td>185 (84%)</td>
<td>65 (92%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>11 (10%)</td>
<td>23 (10%)</td>
<td>3 (4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
<td>8 (4%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 years</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>5 (2%)</td>
<td>2 (3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 22. Study Tour Program Start

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FT Programs (n=13)</th>
<th>PT Programs (n=11)</th>
<th>PT Programs (n=24)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4 (31%)</td>
<td>7 (29%)</td>
<td>3 (75%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2 (15%)</td>
<td>3 (13%)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>7 (54%)</td>
<td>14 (58%)</td>
<td>1 (25%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 23. Study Tour Group Size

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FT Programs (n=110)</th>
<th>PT Programs (n=111)</th>
<th>FT/PT (Average) (n=221)</th>
<th>EMBA Programs (n=71)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>75+</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>4 (2%)</td>
<td>4 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-74</td>
<td>7 (6%)</td>
<td>10 (5%)</td>
<td>4 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-49</td>
<td>32 (29%)</td>
<td>60 (27%)</td>
<td>31 (43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>42 (38%)</td>
<td>86 (39%)</td>
<td>21 (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 or less</td>
<td>27 (25%)</td>
<td>61 (28%)</td>
<td>11 (16%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Graph 1.
Strategic Alliance

- Business Schools
- Business Students
- Businesses
- Strategic Alliance
- Globalized Market
TRUST IN MEDICAL TOURISM: THE CASE OF SOUTH KOREA AND RUSSIAN/CIS MEDICAL TOURISTS

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Yeong Ah Lee, Korea Hotel & Tourism Technical College
Dong Chul Hahn, Korea Hotel & Tourism Technical College

INTRODUCTION

Medical tourism happens when consumers choose to travel across international borders or to receive medical care (Lunt & Carrera, 2010; Turner & Hodges, 2012). Medical tourism ranges from the health care services including a cure and the wellness services including no specific health trouble, to amusement services (Connell, 2011) Medical tourists are patients who “engage with medical tourism through their own volition” (Lunt & Carrera, 2010:28). People engage in medical tourism for various complex reasons, mostly driven by patients’ unmet needs, the nature of services sought and the access to treatments (Lunt & Carrera, 2010; Runnals & Carrera, 2012; Whittaker & Leng, 2016). There has been a discussion of the “push” factors that propel patients to travel abroad for medical treatment, e.g. high costs, long waiting times, low quality of care, technological and legal limitations (Frederick & Gan, 2015; Turner & Hodges, 2012; Turner, 2012). “Pull” factors in medical tourism have also been researched to a certain degree, such as possibility of receiving VIP treatment, access to treatments illegal in the home country, lesser cost of care at the destinations, the reputation of the individual medical facilities (Frederick & Gan, 2015; Harris, 2011; Turner, 2012).

Medical tourism brings the issues of quality, accountability of doctors, patient safety, and other ethical and legal dimensions into light (Allsop, 2006; Harris, 2011; Lunt & Carrera, 2010). In particular, the crucial elements of informed consent and informed decision (Harris, 2011; Runnals & Carrera, 2012; Turner, 2012). Informed decision requires information being provided by third party experiences and word-of-mouth advice (Runnals & Carrera, 2012). However, most of the medical tourism is poorly documented and regulated (Turner & Hodges, 2012). Additionally, the risks, including the ones the patients do not necessarily encounter in their countries, are shifted onto the patients through contractual waivers, disclaimers and various other legal devices (Corter, 2012; Turner, 2012). Thus medical tourism has an impact on the dimension of trust, the factor that repeatedly makes an appearance in literature (Crookes et al., 2015; Wu et al., 2016).

Trust can be defined as “a particular level of the subjective probability with which an agent assesses that another agent or group of agents will perform a particular action, both before he can monitor such action (or independently of his capacity ever to be able to monitor it) and in a context in which it affects his own action.” (Gambetta, 2000:216). Traditionally, trust between a patient and a doctor has been maintained by doctor’s accountability, personal relationship with the doctor; however, in the context of medical tourism with the absence of direct contact between the patient and the medical professional trust has to be renegotiated (Allsop, 2006). Because of the distance and language barriers most often medical tourism patients do not communicate directly with doctors at destination hospitals. Medical tourism companies, or facilitators, fill in this gap and provide information for prospective patients (Lunt & Carrera, 2010; Snyder et al., 2012; Turner, 2012). Therefore, this situation potentially causes a conflict of between the service industry of medical tourism framed by GATS and the “do not harm” postulate of the medical profession (Harris, 2011; Turner, 2012).

Trust has been researched before in the medical tourism, for example, the trust between the physicians and patients and the impact of patients deciding to engage in medical tourism on it, looking at the concept from the medical perspective (Crooks et al., 2015). In the context of South Korea trust has been researched as one of the variable for the repurchasing behavior in medical tourism, looking at it from the consumer behavior perspective (Han and Hyun, 2015). There has also been research conducted into trust in medical literature, for example, on the patients’ trust in domestic medical professionals and domestic healthcare systems (Allsop, 2006).
substantial research look into the role of trust in decision-making process, and linking it to branding and marketing (Chomvilailuk & Srisomyong, 2015; Lin, 2014; Woo, 2009; Wu et al, 2016).

This research will attempt to look at the concept of trust as one of the “pull” facts that attracts patients to a destination. The research combines the discussion of what trust is and its importance from both medical and tourism literature. The aim of this research is to discover what trust in medical tourism is from the perspective of the consumer and the provider, and how trust can be created to influence the perspective consumer’s choice of a medical tourism destination.

METHOD

Russia and CIS countries have been chosen as the target group for this research, as, based on the personal experience of the researcher, there has been a considerable decline in public trust in medical practitioners in the post-USSR region, the trend that has been noticeable in Western countries as well (Allsop, 2006). Experts from the Russian tourism industry expect that in 2018 the overall number of Russian tourists visiting South Korea will continue to grow. Already in 2016 there has been a 15%-increase in the number of tourists from Russia to the country, as compared to the year before (Иванова, 2017). Even the brief search for the news about Russian tourism to South Korea brings up a number of articles about airlines opening new routes between various Russian and Korean cities, which indicates clear expectation of the increase in traffic between two countries. Experts predict that Winter Olympics 2018 and the visa-tree travel will further boost those numbers. In particular, medical tours are seen as one of the major services that are of interest to this market (Иванова, 2017). Moreover, despite Russian tourists cutting their overseas spending, they still have remained the sixth highest spenders in 2015 (UNWTO, 2016). Therefore it is of a particular interest to the medical tourism to acknowledge the different needs this group of consumers might have when it comes to establishing trust for the long-term benefit of the industry.

The study will utilise the sequential mixed methods approach, combining qualitative content analysis (QCA) and a quantitative survey. The initial stage of the project will utilise online qualitative content analysis. According to Bauer (200), online content analysis is one of the empirical data collection methods in social sciences. The researcher will adapt the open coding from grounded theory into QCA to create data-based coding frames. Open coding includes the following steps: conceptualising, defining and developing categories. The last stage of developing categories helps arrange those into hierarchical structures. Thus open coding is used to discover concepts in data that at a later stage will be used to develop variables for a survey (Schreier, 2012). QCA will be conducted on forums for Russian and CIS countries’ prospective medical tourists to find out what the pull factors for South Korea as a medical tourism destination are, and if trust is one of them, what creates trust for the prospective tourists (to identify variable for subsequent survey).

FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

Since the project is still in progress, this section discusses the findings from the literature review so far, which will be further incorporated into the online content analysis framework. As the global medical tourism market has been growing dramatically, South Korea launched a promotional campaign to promote medical tourism in 2009. The number of visitors for health care or medical treatment has been increased gradually. According to Korea Medical Tourism Marketing report (2016) published by Korea Tourism Organization, the number of medical tourists to South Korea was 296,889 in 2015 from 60,201 in 2009, and the revenue was 669,400,000,000 KRW in 2015 which shows compound annual growth rate 51.8% since 2009.

Russia & CIS countries’ visitors are in the third place behind China and USA in visiting South Korea for medical tourism purposes. Moreover, they visit South Korea for expensive treatments for serious diseases and conditions, whereas Chinese tourists are mostly interested in plastic surgery and skin care treatments provided in South Korea. Because of visa-waiver agreements between South Korea and Russia achieved in 2014, the tourists from these two countries are able to stay in the each other’s country for up to 60 days without visa. Hence, the number of Russians visiting South Korea for medical treatment has increased dramatically, from
5,000 in 2010 to 12,856 in 2015 (Korea Medical Tourism Marketing, 2016).

Russian tourists generally hold positive views on Korea as a medical tourism destination due to the high quality of medical services of Korean medical institutions, easy access to information, and relatively low risks involved with travel and medical procedures (An, 2014). Also, Korea Tourism Organization (2016) survey has demonstrated that when Russian patients choose Korea as a medical tourism destination, they consider technique of medical treatment conducted by a high reputable doctor, trust in medical institution and medical devices and facilities which are the most important “pull” factors. Besides, trust can be created from decreased emotional stress, foreigner-friendly facilities, tourism-based activities like Korean Wave, websites and brochures. However, it is not evident what trust is for this particular market, and how it can be created to influence the long-distance perspective consumer’s choice of a medical tourism destination, which this research aims to discover.

REFERENCES


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UNDERSTANDING THE DECREASING TENDENCY OF INTERNATIONAL ARRIVALS TO MAINLAND CHINA: IMBALANCE BETWEEN PERCEIVED RISK AND REAL RISK EXPERIENCE

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Yong-Hai Li, Henan University of Technology
Bruce Prideaux, Central Queensland University
Man Qiao, Paichai University

INTRODUCTION

According to the World Bank (2015), China has become the third biggest country which received 55,686,000 international overnight tourists in 2013 after France and the United States. China has gotten an incredible economic growth since the start of its economic reforms from 1978 to 1988 (Witt & Turner, 2002). Under this background, China has a good inbound tourism market situation. However, from data of World Bank (2015), figure 1 shows the falling down trend of numbers of international overnight tourists in China from 2010 to 2013, and this trend is still continuous, which brought worries for China’s inbound tourism. Particularly this year, China National Tourism Administration (CVTA) started to pay much attention to this issue and involved into investigate this change; meanwhile, China media and press also discussed widely about this decreasing figure and gave some speculations on this issue.

![Number of international tourism arrivers overnight in China](image1)

Inbound tourism and outbound tourism are two important sides of tourism markets. At the moment China’s tourism market lost balance between the two markets. After the economic reforms introduced by Deng Xiao-ping in 1978, there is a tremendous growth potential for Chinese outbound travel, especially by the expanding middle class in China (Keating & Kriz, 2008). This significant increasing trend is easy to see from figure 2. On the other hand, China’s inbound tourism has met a bottleneck.

![Number of Chinese outbound tourists](image2)

Along with the intensive growth of Chinese outbound travel, a large body of literature has been devoted to understanding this market from different perspectives. However, only a handful of studies have focused on Chinese inbound tourism. After reviewing past studies on Chinese inbound tourism, among the limited previous research, most of the researches focused on the supply side and a very optimistic forecasting for Chinese inbound tourism (e.g. Wang & Yang, 2012; Witt & Turner, 2002; Lim & Pan, 2003; Pan & Laws, 2001). This study therefore aims to find the reasons about the international inbound arrivals falling down.
METHOD

Questionnaire Development

This paper collected data from Australian Queensland residents, including actual and potential Australian outbound tourists in order to profile tourist preferences, beliefs, constraints, information sources and past experience with a link to travel intentions. The target populations are Australian residents (Queensland area). Reasons for choosing Australian residents as target population for the overseas destination – Mainland China are presented in the following section. First of all, from Australia side, Mainland China is one of the hottest overseas tourism destinations, which was top five in 2008 and top six in 2009; secondly, from China side, Australia is the one of top ten biggest outbound countries to China, which was the tenth position in total international arrivals and the seventh position in leisure & holiday arrivals in 2011 and the tenth position in total international arrivals and the ninth position in leisure & holiday arrivals in 2014. However, most of top ten outbound countries to China are Asian countries, and Australia has been keeping the top three position among western countries for a decade years; thirdly, Australian outbound tourists to Mainland China have been reducing since 2011, particularly a significant fall on the leisure & holiday purpose; However, Australian tourists are important parts of China’s international tourism market. The relationship between Australia and China is harmony and stable, furthermore, more and more communication and cooperation have been done between the two countries (Song & Li, 2008). How to make a sustainable tourism development between Australia and China is meaningful.

The specific aim of the paper is figuring out the reasons why international arrivals to China keep decreasing in recent years. To find out this issue, the questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part includes: evaluating the satisfaction level about the past experience in China for the Australian residents who have been to China; investigating their satisfaction level, the likelihood of revisit and their recommendation level; revealing their current perception about China’s image. The second part includes: investigating the preferences of overseas destination attributes with leisure & holiday purpose for Australian residents; providing a comparison of the attribute importance with current belief perceptions of China as a destination; conducting an evaluation of information sources used by Australian residents; investigating the constraints which probably prevent them from visiting/revisiting Mainland China and revealing their current perception about China’s image.

Data Collection

Data collection for the main study took place in Brisbane, Cairns, and Townsville from first July to first September of 2015. The research was conducted in line with ethical guidelines of the authors’ host university. Data were collected through random survey, and posted mails conducted by five trained interviewers using the structured questionnaire. A total of 500 questionnaires were sent to respondents on street and 1000 mails survey were put in the mail boxes of households. 453 questionnaires and 249 mails were returned and finally 321 questionnaires and 184 mail questionnaires were used in this study. Finally 505 valid questionnaires were used and resulting in a response rate of 33.7%.

Methodology

Once the data is collected from the questionnaire, SPSS 17.0 and AMOS 7.0 were used to analyze the data. First, in order to observe the characteristics of the sample, frequency analysis is used to examine the social demographic profile of the respondents. Then, reliable value of each measurement used in the study is summarized by reliability analysis. On the next step, mean scores and standard deviation of each measurement used in the study is summarized by descriptive analysis. At the following, Varimax method of principle component analysis is used to do exploratory factor analysis, at the same time, reliability analysis is fulfilled by examining the Cronbach’s alpha. In the next step, in order to see the validity of the total measurement scales, confirmatory factor analysis is used to verify the dimensions of tourism destination image (cognitive and affective images), tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty. At the same time, correlations among the dimensions derived from the study are examined. At the following step, research
hypotheses are verified through SEM (Structure Equation Model) analysis and goodness-of-fit indices of the research model are examined together in this step. When determining the model fit, model modification may be necessary if model fits indices are less than satisfactory.

FINDINGS

Results showed that most Australian residents exaggerated some tourism safety events about China and got higher perceived risk level than the reality; more than half of them scored the evaluation of China’s tourism image below 6 among 10; there are significant demographic differences between the group who intend and not intend to visit China within the future 5 years and there are significant differences between overseas destination attributes and residents’ beliefs about China. Findings indicated that the most attracted Chinese tourism product is the tradition and culture.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Implications of improving China’s international tourism image towards risk evaluation are discussed.

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Canberra.
THE EFFECTIVENESS OF STRATEGY FOR FACILITATING THE SUSTAINABLE INNOVATION OF HOSPITALITY UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN TAIWAN

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Hsuan Hsu, National Taiwan Normal University

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE

The United Nations Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change indicated that more than 90% greenhouse gas emissions came from human activities (IPCC, 2007). Recently, tourism and hospitality industry is fast-growing worldwide. McKercher, Prideaux, Cheung, & Law (2010) have demonstrated that greenhouse gas emitted in ourism and hospitality industry were come from heavy usage of fossil fuels in transportation, accommodation, and other activities. Thus, how to balance between profit and sustainability is a hot issue in businesses and academia (Kelly, Haider, Williams, & Englund, 2007).

Surprisingly, hospitality and tourism managers generally lack sustainability knowledge (Erdogan & Baris, 2007). Additionally, there is little evidence that student has adequate and sufficient knowledge to deal with the problems associated with global warming in tourism and hospitality. Many scholars have pointed out that there has been limited investment in environmental education to help college students understand sustainability knowledge (Benton, 1994; DeWaters & Powers, 2008; DeWaters, Powers, & Graham, 2007; Pe’er, Goldman, & Yavetz, 2007). Therefore, higher education in tourism and hospitality should develop a knowledge framework that incorporates critical sustainability dimensions for course delivery and learning assessment.

On the other hands, teaching students to solve problems creatively is an important educational task and one of the most critical competencies that requires development in a higher education curriculum (Suh, West, & Shin, 2012). Recently, in order to prepare the next generation to confront the future, many countries or cities have implanted elements of creativity into their school curricula such as Hong Kong, Singapore, and the UK (Eggleston 2001; Rutland and Barlex 2008). Teaching creative thinking techniques or engaging learners in a creativity-promoting environment are the common educational approaches to developing creativity. Many educators believe that the subject has the potential to foster students’ creativity through design activities that develop novel ideas and artifacts (Dow 2004). However, there is a lack of investigation into the method of improving student’s creativity in hospitality course. This reveals that a more robust approach to credentialing and training the future hospitality workforce is needed for competent service performance.

To fill this gap, the current study attempts to develop a sustainable innovation module by integrating the core values of commercial hospitality to improve student sustainable innovation.

This study contributes to the literature as follow: (1) to conduct and evaluate innovation intervention by assessing student innovation. (2) We contribute to sustainability research by adding to the understanding of the relationship between sustainable innovation.

METHODOLOGY

Curriculum development and Teaching strategies

This study developed sustainable innovation contents based on the theoretical foundation and core values of commercial hospitality, which attempt to incorporate essential knowledge, attitudes, and behavioral training. Following the
curriculum development procedures, the course team then developed learning goals, course contents, teaching strategies, and learning activities for each thematic unit.

This course is based on the Collaborative Course Development (CCD) model proposed by Aiken et al. (2016). Compared to other student-centered learning methods, the CCD is an innovative curriculum development model that transfers the power of the course to students. The role of teachers as mentors helps to improve students' learning outcomes (Wright, 2011, p. 93). The CCD theory consists of three parts: collaborating, empowering and of choosing. In collaborating, students are encouraged to more involve in the class so that can improve their interest and enhance their skills, cohesion and sense of belonging. The definition of empowering students is the number of times a student can make a choice in a course and the contribution of perception to a course. The choosing is that through different levels of choice allow students to enhance the perception of education. For example, giving students the opportunity to participate in propositions can improve student involvement, stress management (Corrigan & Craciun, 2013).

Additionally, several creative problem solving (CPS) methods were used in the intervention, including 9 windows method, hope point listed, brainstorming, mind map, forced relationship and synectics.

**Participations**

Undergraduate senior students majoring in hospitality management in Taiwan were participated in this study. Participants were divided into experimental group and control group. Students who in experimental group were received the sustainable innovation curriculum and teaching strategies, included 100 persons. Sustainable innovation curriculum contains sustainable concept, sustainable knowledge, sustainable value, sustainable sensitivity, sustainable intention, sustainable action strategy, and sustainable purchase intention. At the first class, the students discuss the course outline, and finally the consensus between the teachers and students. In addition, each student replies to "in this course, what I most want to know?" The teacher responds to the curious questions and the theories taught in this semester. Teachers can give different cases for the same subject, students can choose according to their own interests. Cases may come from different industries or situations, but face similar problems. In competitive experimentation, Students are proposing solutions for each topic in the course. The teams then present their solutions to the classmates to discuss and criticize each other. After the report of each group, the teacher commented and selected the best team.

In the control group, students did not receive the sustainable innovation curriculum and teaching strategies, comprised 100 persons. Participants in both groups were in their senior year and took the sustainable hospitality course in the same semester. Therefore, student’s knowledge levels and back grounds were consistent across both groups.

Sustainable innovation was a two-credit course which ran for 18 weeks. The same teacher taught in both experimental and control groups.

**Measures**

Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA): Students’ performance in creative thinking was measured using the ATTA, comprising verbal and figural forms. The total score generates the composed creativity index.

Sustainability innovation literacy: Sustainable innovation was measured according to a 32-item scale developed by Horng et al. (2017).

**Results**

The results of ANCOVA demonstrate significant between-subject effect (F=28.1, p<.001) after controlling the covariance effect, indicating that the sustainability intervention can positively influence the post-test ratings of sustainability score.

Secondly, the results indicated that both sustainable innovation (F= 31.06, p<.00) and ATTA score (F=31.11, p<.00) were all significant in experiment group but insignificant in control group (ATTA, F=2.91, p>.05; sustainability, F=.33, p>.05) after performing simple main effect test.

**DISCUSSION**

Through integrating theoretical perspectives
on hospitality and curriculum development, this study develops an 18-week hospitality sustainable innovation module and assesses its effectiveness in improving student sustainable innovation using an experimental education intervention. The curriculum included 4 modules: sustainable innovation literacy, service innovation, creative problem solving, and collaborative course development. In the sustainable innovation literacy which comprised sustainable concept, sustainable knowledge, sustainable value, sustainable sensitivity, sustainable intention, sustainable action strategy, and sustainable purchase intention. As for service innovation, it contained technology innovation and culture innovation. Lastly, creative problem solving including 9 windows method, hope point listed, brainstorming, mind map, forced relationship and synetics.

The results presented here suggest that creativity, which we measured with the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA), can be enhanced through creative problem solving method. Participation in the experiment group led to creative capacity enhancement, as compared to participation in control group. The content of creativity included rapid prototyping and improvisational activities with various constraints (e.g., time, materials, topic, etc.) and external prompts. When participant exposure to these activities repeatedly, they were intended to enhance their bias toward action, increase resilience when experiencing failure, and increase one’s ability to synthesize novel connections (Hawthorne et al., 2014). This study suggests that the creative problem solution can indeed enhance the creativity of the students. Although this research focuses on the sustainable innovation, the innovative method not only can bring the sustainable competitive advantage to the company, but also can create higher customer value. In addition, in experiment group, student’s sustainability knowledge would be improvement after intervention. According to theory of planned behavior (TBD), attitude toward behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, together shape an individual’s behavioral intentions and behaviors (Ajzen, & Fishbein, 1980). The results show that after intervention of the content of sustainable innovation, students’ sustainable concept, sustainable value, and sustainable intension would be enhanced. It indicated that by improving student sustainable concept and value then finally would change their behavior. Therefore, other educators in different discipline can refer to the development of the teaching strategy in this study to enhance the students’ creativity and sustainable literacy.

REFERENCE


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