2017

APTA

ASIA PACIFIC TOURISM ASSOCIATION

ABSTRACT PROCEEDINGS

23rd Asia Pacific Tourism Association Conference

June 18-21, 2017

BUSAN, KOREA

ORGANIZER / CO-ORGANIZER / SPONSOR

APTA Asia Pacific Tourism Association · The Hong Kong Polytechnic University 香港理工大學 School of Hotel and Tourism Management · bto BUSAN Tourism Organization · DONG-A University · University of Houston Conrad N. Hilton College · 旅遊學院 Instituto de Formação Turística Institute For Tourism Studies · wakayama univ.

Korea Tourism Organization · Busan Culture & Tourism Festival Organizing Committee · Routledge Taylor & Francis Group · UF Eric Friedheim Tourism Institute University of Florida · CATCHA · 厦门大学 管理学院 School of Management Xiamen University · coens

23rd Asia Pacific Tourism Association Annual Conference

June 18-21, 2017
BUSAN, KOREA

ABSTRACT PROCEEDINGS

APTA 2017

ABSTRACT PROCEEDINGS of 23rd APTA Conference
held in BUSAN KOREA 18 June to 21, 2017

Published by:
Asia Pacific Tourism Association (APTA)
Department of International Tourism, Dong-A University
Bumin-dong 2-ga, Seo-gu,
Busan, Korea 602-760

ISSN: 2092-5557 (USB)

Sincere thanks to:

APTA 2017 Paper Review

Dr. Ada Lo	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Alan Fyall	*UCF*
Dr. Ali Bavik	*IFT*
Dr. Ally Park	*MUST*
Dr. Amy Gregory	*UCF*
Dr. Annette Kang	*Virginia Tech*
Dr. Annmarie Nicely	*Purdue*
Dr. Arie Reichel	*Ben-Gurion University of the Negev*
Dr. Ashley Schroeder	*University of Hawaii at Manoa*
Dr. Asli Tasci	*UCF*
Dr. Aswin Sangpikul	*Naresuan University*
Dr. Barry Mak	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Barry McCool	*Texas Tech University*
Dr. Bharath Josiam	*University of North Texas*
Dr. Billy Bai	*UNLV*
Dr. Birendra KC	*University of North Texas*
Dr. Bo Zhou	*Xiamen university*
Dr. Carl Boger	*University of Houston*
Dr. Catherine Cheung	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Cathy Hsu	*Participant*
Dr. Charalampos Giousmpasoglou	*Bournemouth University*
Dr. Chen Kuo Pai	*MUST*
Dr. Chih-Chien Chen	*University of Las Vegas, Nevada*
Dr. Chihyung Ok	*Temple University*
Dr. Choongbeom Choi	*UNLV*
Dr. Choong-Ki Lee	*Kyung Hee University*
Dr. Christian Schott	*Victoria University of Wellington*
Dr. Christopher Taylor	*University of Houston*
Dr. Christy Ng	*IFT*
Dr. Cindia Lam	*IFT*
Dr. Cynthia Mejia	*UCF*
Dr. Dae-Young Kim	*University of Missouri*
Dr. Dan Wang	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Danny Choi	*Texas Tech University*
Dr. Denis Tolkach	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Deniz Kucukusta	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Desmond Lam	*University of Macau*
Dr. Doohyun Hwang	*Mokpo National University*
Dr. Eddie Mao	*California State University*
Dr. Eerang Park	*Victoria University of Wellington*
Dr. Eka Putra	*Hong Kong Polytechnic University*
Dr. Eric Chan	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Eugene Thomlinson	*Royal Roads University*
Dr. Eunha Jeong	*Iowa State University*
Dr. Eve Ren	*Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau*
Dr. Fiona Yang	*IFT*
Dr. Frances Kong	*IFT*
Dr. Grace Chatfield	*UNLV*
Dr. Han Wen	*University of North Texas*
Dr. Hazel Tucker	*University of Otago*

Dr. Heejung Ro	*UCF*
Dr. Henry Tsai	*Hong Kong Polytechnic University*
Dr. HG Parsa	*University of Denver*
Dr. Honggen Xiao	*Hong Kong Polytechnic University*
Dr. Hugo Tang	*Purdue University*
Dr. Hyeyoon Choi	*Ohio University*
Dr. Ian Yeoman	*Victoria University of Wellington*
Dr. Jaemun Byun	*Sejong University*
Dr. Jay Neal	*University of Houston*
Dr. Jayoung Sohn	*Purdue University*
Dr. Jeeyeon Hahm	*UCF*
Dr. Jeong-Yeol Park	*UCF*
Dr. Jessica Yuan	*Texas Tech University*
Dr. Ji Hye Min	*University of North Texas*
Dr. Jichul Jang	*Kansas State University*
Dr. Jin Won Kim	*University of Florida*
Dr. Jin Young Chung	*Incheon University*
Dr. Jing Yang	*Oklahoma State University*
Dr. Jingjing Yang	*University of Surrey*
Dr. Jinhoo Kim	*Sejong University*
Dr. Jinhyun Jun	*University of Hawaii at Manoa*
Dr. Jinsoo Lee	*Hong Kong Polytechnic University*
Dr. Johye Hwang	*Kyung Hee University*
Dr. Jonathon Day	*Purdue University*
Dr. Jooyeon Ha	*San Jose State University*
Dr. Jose Wong	*MUST*
Dr. Juhee Kang	*University of Central Florida*
Dr. Jumyong Lee	*Florida International University*
Dr. Junehee Kwon	*Kansas State University*
Dr. Jungyun (Christine) Hur	*Sacramento State-California State University*
Dr. Junwook Chi	*U. of Hawaii*
Dr. Ka Sik Chan	*IFT*
Dr. Kang Jae Lee	*University of Missouri*
Dr. Kara Wolfe	*Bradley University*
Dr. Karen Xie	*University of Denver*
Dr. Kay Chu	*Tunghai University*
Dr. Ken Tsai	*Colorado State University*
Dr. Kisang Ryu	*Sejong University*
Dr. Ksenia Kirillova	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Kwang-Ho Lee	*Ball State University*
Dr. Kwanglim Seo	*University of Hawaii*
Dr. Kyung-A Sun	*Temple University*
Dr. Kyung-Hyan Yoo	*William Patterson University*
Dr. Laurie Wu	*Temple University*
Dr. Leonardo Dioko	*IFT*
Dr. Libo Yan	*MUST*
Dr. Lina Kim	*UNLV*
Dr. Lina Xiong	*Colorado State University*
Dr. Linchi Kwok	*California State Polytechnic University Pomona*
Dr. Lisa Slevitch	*Oklahoma State University*
Dr. Lisa Wan	*The Chinese University of Hong Kong*
Dr. Lorenzo Masiero	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Lu Lu	*Temple University*
Dr. Makarand Mody	*Boston University*

Dr. Man-U Io	*IFT*
Dr. Marketa Kubickova	*University of South Carolina*
Dr. Markus Schuckert	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Max Zhao	*IFT*
Dr. Mehmet Altin	*University of Central Florida*
Dr. Mehmet Erdem	*UNLV*
Dr. Mehmet Koseoglu	*Hong Kong Polytechnic University*
Dr. Michael Cheng	*Florida International University*
Dr. Mimi Li	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Ming Lee	*MUST*
Dr. Miyoung Jeong	*University of South Carolina*
Dr. Mondher Sahli	*Victoria University of Wellington*
Dr. Murat Kizildag	*University of Central Florida*
Dr. Muzzo Uysal	*UMASS*
Dr. Myongjae Lee	*Cal Poly Pomona, USA*
Dr. Namhyun Kim	*Dongguk University*
Dr. Nan Hua	*University of Central Florida*
Dr. Natalia Velikova	*Texas Tech University*
Dr. Neil Carr	*University of Otago*
Dr. Norman Au	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Ounjoung Park	*Jeju National University*
Dr. Patrick Lee	*California State University*
Dr. Pedro Moreira	*IFT*
Dr. Pei Liu	*University of Missouri*
Dr. Penny Wan	*Institute for Tourism Scinences, Macau*
Dr. Peter Kim	*Auckland University of Technology, NZ*
Dr. Phil Xiang	*Virginia Tech*
Qu Xiao	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Rachel Han	*University of Houston*
Dr. Robert Li	*Temple University*
Dr. Rosanna Leung	*I-Shou University*
Dr. Sabrina Huang	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Sam Kim	*Hong Kobng Polytechnic University*
Dr. Sangwon Jung	*Purdue University*
Dr. Sangwon Park	*University of Surrey, UK*
Dr. Sarah Tanford	*University of Nevada at Las Vegas*
Dr. Sebastian Filep	*University of Otago*
Dr. Seoki Lee	*Penn State University*
Dr. Seul Ki Lee	*Sejong University*
Dr. SeungHyun Kim	*University of Missouri*
Dr. Sharif Shams Imon	*IFT*
Dr. Shing-Lih McCain	*Widener University*
Dr. Soyon Paek	*The Hong Kong Polytechnic University*
Dr. Suh Hee Choi	*IFT*
Dr. Sujata Sirsat	*University of Houston*
Dr. Suna Lee	*HK Poly U.*
Dr. Sung Mun	*Purdue University*
Dr. Susan Gordon	*Purdue University*
Dr. Svetlana Stepchenkova	*University of Florida*
Dr. Thea Vinnicombe	*IFT*
Dr. Thi Hong Hai Nguyen	*Macau University of Science and Technology*
Dr. Tiffany Shin	*University of Houston*
Dr. Viachaslau Filimonau	*Bournemouth University*
Dr. Vincent Tung	*HK Poly U.*

Author Index

Table of Contents

(Presented in Conference Schedule)

Food Service Management

Tourism

Events & Festivals

Sharing Economy & e-Commerce

▢ Tourism Demand & Market Analysis

▢ International Tourism & Human Resource Management

▢ Poster Session 1

Research in T&H

Poster Session 2

Media & Tour

Culture & Heritage

Tourism Mgmt 2

Special Topics

Festivals

Hospitality Mgmt 1

Gaming Mgmt

▢ Special Tourism

▢ Foodservice Mgmt 1

▢ Regional Tourism 1

▢ Tourism Mgmt 5

▢ Poster Session 4

▢ Tourism IT 1

❑ Tourism Education 1

❑ Tourism Mgmt 6

❑ Health & Medical

❑ Tourism IT 2

▢ Tourism Education 2

▢ Tourism Mgmt 7

* Full paper was submitted and reviewed for the inclusion of presentation.

HOW SOLO DINING ENHANCES HEALTY EATING: THE ROLE OF CONSUMPTION ORIENTATION AND NUTRITION INFORMATION

EunSol Her, Purdue University
Barbara Almanza, Purdue University

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.

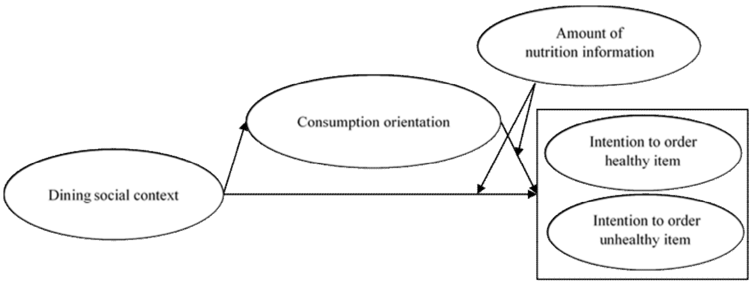


Figure 1. The Conceptual Model

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 amount 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 on-line websites of these restaurants, and a registered dietitian 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 labelling 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 labelling 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.

REFERENCES

Auty, S. (1992). Consumer choice and segmentation in the restaurant industry. *Service Industries Journal*, *12*(3), 324-339.

Bianchi, C. (2015). Solo holiday travellers: Motivators and drivers of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *18*(2), 197-208.

Bouhlel, O., Mzoughi, M. N., & Chaieb, S. (2011). Singles: An expanding market. *Journal of Business Management Dynamics*, *1*(3), 22-32.

Chandler, J., & Shapiro, D. (2016). Conducting clinical research using crowdsourced convenience samples. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, *12*, 53-81.

Chandon, P., & Wansink, B. (2007). The biasing health halos of fast-food restaurant health claims: Lower calorie estimates and higher side-dish consumption intentions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *34*(3), 301-314.

Fedorikhin, A., & Patrick, V. M. (2010). Positive mood and resistance to temptation: The interfering influence of elevated arousal. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *37*(4), 698-711.

Gardner, M., Wansink, B., Kim, J., & Park, S. B. (2014). Better moods for better eating: How mood influences food choice. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *24*(3), 320-335.

Goodwin, C., & Lockshin, L. (1992). The solo consumer: Unique opportunity for the service marketer. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *6*(3), 27-36.

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York: Guilford Press.

Her, E. S. (2016). *Why Not Eating Alone? The Effect of Other Consumers on Solo Dining Intention and the Mechanism* (Master's thesis). The Ohio State University.

Hetherington, M. M., Anderson, A. S., Norton, G. N., & Newson, L. (2006). Situational effects on meal intake: A comparison of eating alone and eating with others. *Physiology & Behavior*, *88*, 498-505.

Kivela, J. (1997). Restaurant marketing: Selection and segmentation in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *9*(3), 116-123.

Kivetz, R., & Keinan, A. (2006). Repenting hyperopia: An analysis of self-control regrets. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *33*(2), 273-282.

Kozup, J. C., Creyer, E. H., & Burton, S. (2003). Making healthful food choices: The influence of health claims and nutrition information on consumers' evaluations of packaged food products and restaurant menu items. *Journal of Marketing*, *67*(2), 19-34.

Kwon, S., & Jang, S. S. (2011). Price bundling presentation and consumer's bundle choice: The role of quality certainty. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *30*(2), 337-344.

Laesser, C., Beritelli, P., & Bieger, T. (2009). Solo travel: Explorative insights from a mature market (Switzerland). *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *15*(3), 217-227.

Lee, K., Conklin, M., Cranage, D. A., & Lee, S. (2014). The role of perceived corporate social responsibility on providing healthful foods and nutrition information with health-consciousness as a moderator. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *37*, 29-37.

McPherson, M., Smith-Lovin, L., & Brashears, M. E. (2006). Social isolation in America: Changes in core discussion networks over two decades. *American Sociological Review, 71*(3), 353-375.

MyLynn, K. (2014, August 6). Consumers are alone over half of eating occasions as a result of changing lifestyles and more single-person households. *The NPD Group*. Retrieved from https://www.npd.com/wps/portal/npd/us/news/press-releases/consumers-are-alone-over-half-of-eating-occasions-as-a-result-of-changing-lifestyles-and-more-single-person-households-reports-npd/

OpenTable study reveals rise in solo dining. (2015, October 7). *PR Newswire*. Retrieved from http://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/opentable-study-reveals-rise-in-solo-dining-300155418.html

Ponnam, A., & Balaji, M. S. (2014). Matching visitation-motives and restaurant attributes in casual dining restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *37*, 47-57.

Ratner, R. K., & Hamilton, R. W. (2015). Inhibited from bowling alone. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *42*(2), 266-283.

Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. (2010). Construal-level theory of psychological distance. *Psychological Review*, *117*(2), 440-463.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2016). *Table HH-4. Households by size: 1960 to present.* Retrieved fromhttps://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/families/households.html

U.S. Food and Drug Administration. (2016). *Menu labeling requirements*. Retrieved from https://www.fda.gov/Food/GuidanceRegulation/GuidanceDocumentsRegulatoryInformation/LabelingNutrition/ucm515020.htm

Wei, W., & Miao, L. (2013). Effects of calorie information disclosure on consumers' food choices at restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *33*, 106-117.

Werle, C. O., Wansink, B., & Payne, C. R. (2015). Is it fun or exercise? The framing of physical activity biases subsequent snacking. *Marketing Letters*, *26*(4), 691-702.

Yon, H. (2016, October 1). Single person households rise to most common form of household in South Korea. *The Hankyoreh*. Retrieved from http://english.hani.co.kr/arti/english_edition/e_national/763665.html

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

Kiatipoom Kiatkawsin, Sejong University
Heesup Han, Sejong University

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 examines 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 (x^2 = 572.094, *df* = 294, p <.001, x^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 exceeds 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 (x^2 = 675.635, *df* = 310, x^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.

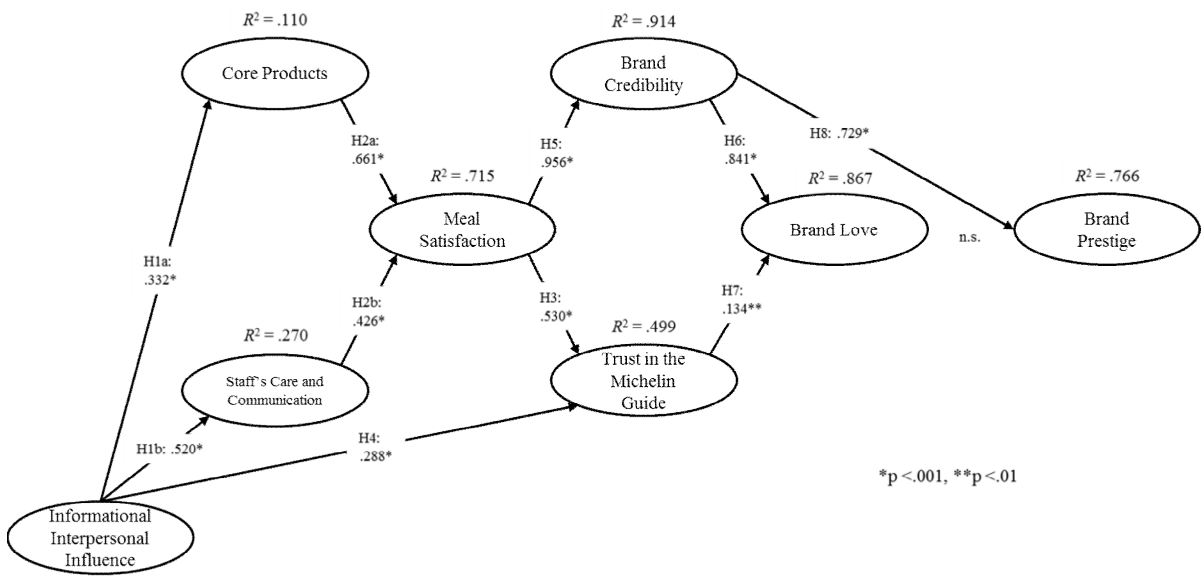


Figure 1. The study model and structural equation modeling results

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 ensures 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.

REFERENCES

Back, K.-J. (2005). The effects of image congruence on customers' brand loyalty in the upper middle-class hotel industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 29*(4), 448-467.

Baek, T. H., Kim, J., & Yu, J. H. (2010). The differential roles of brand credibility and brand prestige in consumer brand choice. *Psychology & Marketing, 27*(7), 662-678.

Batra, R., Ahuvia, A., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2012). Brand love. *Journal of Marketing, 76*(2), 1-16.

Bearden, W. O., Netemeyer, R. G., & Teel, J. E. (1989). Measurement of consumer susceptibility to interpersonal influence. *Journal of Consumer Research, 15*, 473-481.

Carroll, B. A., & Ahuvia, A. C. (2006). Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love. *Marketing Letters, 17*(2), 79-89.

Casidy, R., & Wymer, W. (2016). A risk worth taking: Perceived risk as moderator of satisfaction, loyalty and willingness-to-pay premium price. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 32*, 189-197.

Dubois, B., & Paternault, C. (1995). Understanding the world of international luxury brands: The "dream formula." *Journal of Advertising Research,* 35-69.

Erdem, T., & Swait, J. (2004). Brand credibility, brand consideration, and choice. *Journal of Consumer Research, 31*(1), 191-198.

Ha, H.-Y., & Perks, H. (2005). Effects of consumer perceptions of brand experience on the web: Brand familiarity, satisfaction and brand trust. *Journal of Consumer Behavior, 4*(6), 438-452.

Hansen, K. V. (2014). Development of SERVQUAL and DINESERV for measuring meal experience in eating establishments. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 14*(2), 116-134.

Hsu, C. H. C., Kang, S. K., & Lam, T. (2006). Reference group influences among Chinese travelers. *Journal of Travel Research, 44*, 474-484.

Johnson, C., Surlemont B., Nicod, P., & Revaz, F. (2005). Behind the stars − A concise typology of Michelin restaurants in Europe. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 46*(2), 170-187.

Mourali, M., & Laroche, M. (2005). Antecedents of consumer relative preference for interpersonal information sources in pre-purchase search. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour, 4*(5), 307-318.

O'Cass, A., & Frost, H. (2002). Status brands: Examining the effects of non-product-related brand associations on status and conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 11*(2), 67-88.

Ottenbacher, M., & Harrington, R. J. (2007). The innovation development process of Michelin-starred chefs. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 19*(6), 444-460.

Ryu, K., Lee, H.-R., & Kim, W. G. (2012). The influence of the quality of the physical environment, food, and service on restaurant image, customer perceived value, customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 24*(2), 200-223.

Yi, Y., & La, S. (2004). What influences the relationship between customer satisfaction and repurchase intention? Investigating the effect of adjusted expectations and customer loyalty. *Psychology & Marketing, 21*(5), 351-373.

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

Seung-Ah Jeong, Sookmyung Women's University
Seohee Chang, Sookmyung Women's University

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, & McCarth, 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 33th 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.

SELECTED REFERENCES

Blumberg, R. L., & Coleman, M. T. (1989). A theoretical look at the gender balance of power in the American couple. *Journal of Family Issues*, *10*(2), 225–250.

Buckley, M., Cowan, C. and McCarthy, M. (2007). The convenience food market in Great Britain: Convenience food lifestyle (CFL) segments. *Appetite*, 49(3), 600-617.

Candel, M. J. J. M. (2001). Consumers' convenience orientation towards meal preparation: conceptualization and measurement. *Appetite,* 1(36), 15-28.

Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D., & Miniard, P. W. (1986), *Consumer Behavior* (5th ed). New York: Dryden Press.

Lee, H. (2015). A study on effects among coffee shop selection attributes, coffee cocktail preference, and menu selection behavior. *Korean Journal of Tourism Research*. 30(7), 301-318.

Yang, J. (2015). A study of the distribution strategy of convenience store based using revised IPA. *Journal of Korea Service Management Society*. 16(5), 101-123.

Jong Sung Kim, Kyu Soo Ha. (2010). Selection attributes and pursuit benefits of processed fishery products. *Journal of The Korean Society of Dietary Culture*. 25(5), 516-524.

Choi, J. (2011). Segmentation study of the convenience-oriented dietary lifestyle. *Thesis, Kyonggi University*.

Kim, M. (2016). Influence of consumption patterns and satisfaction for convenience store private brand foods. *Journal of the Korea Academia-Industrial*

Cooperation Society. 17(3), 629-637.

Viana, M. M., Silva, V. L., Deliza, R. and Trindade, M. A. (2016). The use of an online completion test to reveal important attributes in consumer choice: An empirical study on frozen burgers. *Food Quality and Preference,* 52, 255-261.

Kim, Y., Lee, B., & Youn, H. (2015). A study on single people's satisfaction of convenience foods and repurchase intention according to their food-related lifestyle. *Journal of Tourism and Leisure Research*. 27(1), 433-452.

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

Pingsheng Dai, Xiamen University
Bo Zhou, Xiamen University
Xiaobo Shen, Xiamen University

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 reminder 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, $y_1, y_2, \cdots, y_n$. The populations of each unit is $q_1, q_2, \cdots, q_n$. Let us establish the following equation:

$$F_i = \frac{q_1 + ... + q_i}{q_1 + ... + q_n}, \quad L_i = \frac{q_1 y_1 + ... + q_i y_i}{q_1 y_1 + ... + q_n y_n}, \quad F_0 = L_0 = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, ..., n$$

As Fig. 1 shows, the polygonal line formed by points (F_i,L_i), i=0,1,⋯,n, is Lorenz curve, G for Gini coefficient equals to twice of the area S_A 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,⋯,n), and summing them in turn, then subtracting 0.5, it can give the following expression

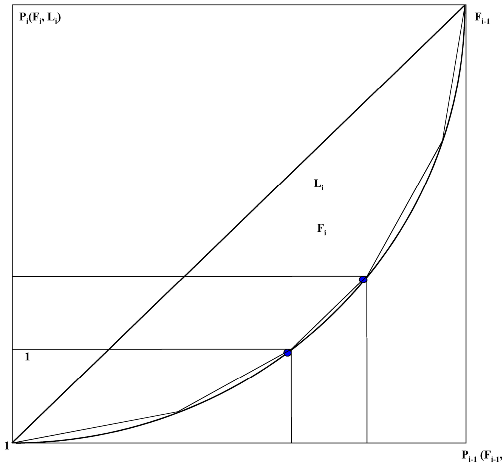


Fig. 1 Lorenz curve and Gini coefficient of the income share method

$$S_A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{F_i + F_{i-1}}{2}\left(L_i - L_{i-1}\right) - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i}{q_1 y_1 + \ldots + q_n y_n}\left(F_i + F_{i-1} - 1\right)$$

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

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

$$G = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \frac{S_r}{S} G_r + \sum_{r=1}^{R}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i^r}{S}\left(\omega_i - \omega_i^r\right) \tag{2}$$

where S_r, G_r and ω^r denote the r-th source of income, Gini index and combined coefficients that are calculated by ascending the per capita income(r=1,2,⋯,R).

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

$$\Delta G = \frac{eG}{1 + eS_m / S}\left(s\left(m\right) - \frac{S_m}{S}\right) + \Delta_1\,, \quad \Delta_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i'}{S'}\left(\omega_i' - \omega_i\right) \tag{3}$$

where G stands for Gini index of income y, ΔG 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

$$s\left(m\right) = S\left(m\right) / G\,, \quad G = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i^1}{S}\omega_i + \ldots + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i y_i^R}{S}\omega_i = \sum_{i=1}^{R} S\left(i\right)$$

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 $\Delta_1=0$ in the equation (3). That means the sign of ΔG is determined by $s(m)-S_m/S$. Stark et.(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=NTR+TR.

$$\Delta G = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{q_i x_i}{S_x}\left(\omega_i^y - \omega_i^x\right) + \frac{S_y}{S_x}\left(s\left(f\right) - \frac{S_f}{S_y}\right) G_{GDP} \tag{4}$$

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 $S_y=S_x+S_f$ 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:

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

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_{NTR} is greater than G_{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 1. Gini index of NTR and GDP in eastern, central and western regions

Year	NTR in eastern region	GDP in eastern region	NTR in central region	GDP in central region	NTR in western region	GDP in western region	RME
1997	0.1578	0.1653+	0.0916	0.0920+	0.1042	0.1042+	0.0169
1998	0.1636	0.1705+	0.0901	0.0903+	0.1034	0.1032-	0.0159
1999	0.2357	0.2422+	0.2060	0.2076+	0.2669	0.2707+	0.0155
2000	0.1569	0.1629+	0.0836	0.0839+	0.0975	0.0968-	0.0157
2001	0.1728	0.1794+	0.0867	0.0872+	0.1130	0.1129-	0.0151
2002	0.1656	0.1716+	0.0863	0.0867+	0.1223	0.1220-	0.0154
2003	0.1711	0.1751+	0.0893	0.0898+	0.1333	0.1333-	0.0115
2004	0.1660	0.1707+	0.0848	0.0850+	0.1373	0.1373+	0.0129
2005	0.1561	0.1604+	0.0816	0.0817+	0.1393	0.1392-	0.0128
2006	0.1527	0.1561+	0.0809	0.0811+	0.1454	0.1452-	0.0116
2007	0.1471	0.1502+	0.0795	0.0796+	0.1460	0.1457-	0.0111
2008	0.1356	0.1382+	0.0805	0.0807+	0.1537	0.1534-	0.0100
2009	0.1370	0.1391+	0.0693	0.0692-	0.1756	0.1752-	0.0087
2010	0.1330	0.1354+	0.0640	0.0640-	0.1754	0.1749-	0.0098
2011	0.1282	0.1298+	0.0647	0.0647-	0.1765	0.1761-	0.0086
2012	0.1263	0.1278+	0.0663	0.0663-	0.1707	0.1706-	0.0085
2013	0.1273	0.1282+	0.0647	0.0646-	0.1609	0.1608-	0.0064
2014	0.1301	0.1310+	0.0671	0.0668-	0.1560	0.1559-	0.0062
2015	0.1359	0.1372+	0.0705	0.0704-	0.1491	0.1487-	0.0063

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

Alam, M.S. and Paramati, S.R. (2016). The impact of tourism on income inequality in developing economies. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 61, 111-126.

Dai, P. (2015). Calculations and Characters of the Locational Gini Index and Its Application. *Journal of Quantitative & Technical Economics*, 32(7):149-161. (In Chinese)

Goh, C., Li, H., and Li, M. (2014). A Comparative Analysis of Domestic and International Tourism Spatial Distribution Trends and Impacts. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 10, 388-413.

Incera, A.C., and Fernández, M.F. (2015). Tourism and income distribution: Evidence from a developed regional economy. *Tourism Management*, 48, 11-20.

Kakwani, N.C. (1977). Measurement of Tax progressivity: An International Comparison. *The Economic Journal*, 87(345), 71-80.

Lee, S. (2009). Income inequality in tourism services dependent counties. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 12(1), 33-45.

Li, H., Chen, J.L., Li, G. and Goh, C. (2016). Tourism and regional income inequality Evidence from China. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 58, 81-99.

Li, H., Goh,C., ZhangQiu, H. and Meng, F. (2015). Effect of Tourism on Balanced Regional Development:A Dynamic Panel Data Analysis in Coastal and Inland China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(6), 694-713.

Stark O.,Tayor J.E., and Yitzaki S. (1986). Remittances and Inequality. *The Economic Journal*, 383, 722-740.

Wen, J.J. and Sinha, C. (2009). The Spatial Distribution of Tourism in China Trends and Impacts. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(1), 93-104.

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

Hermann Kimo Boukamba, Wakayama University

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, Ettenson, & 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 Ettenson (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 be more likely to have a positive evaluation and attitude towards travelling domestically.

Conceptual research framework

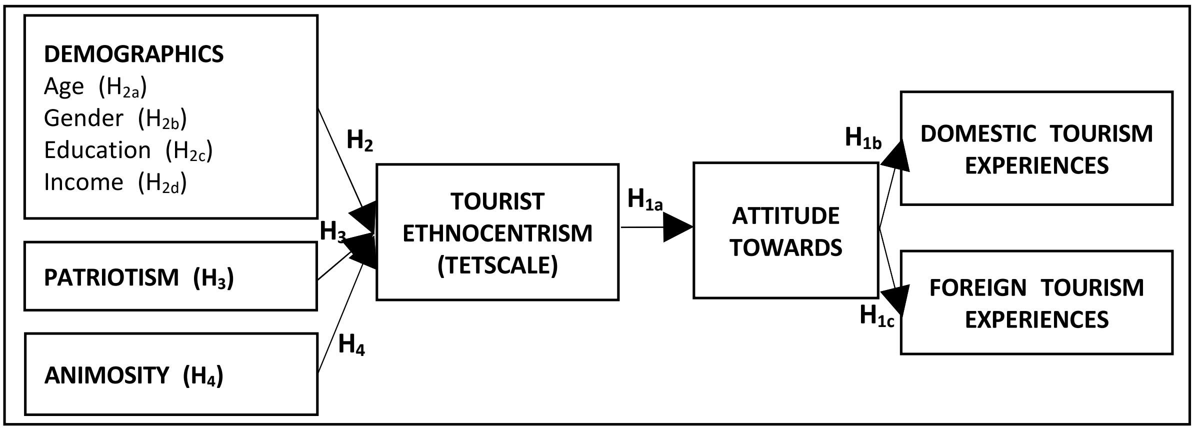


Figure 1.1: Conceptual research framework

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 α > .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

Balabanis, G., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2004). Domestic country bias, country-of-origin effects, and consumer Ethnocentrism: A multidimensional unfolding approach. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *32*(1), 80–95. doi:10.1177/0092070303257644

Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. D., & Melewar, T. C. (2001). The impact of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism on consumer ethnocentric tendencies. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *32*(1), 157–175. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490943

Booth, K. (1979). *Strategy and ethnocentrism*. London: Croom-Helm.

Chang, Y. H., & Cheng, C. H. (2011). Exploring the effects of consumer ethnocentrism on preference of choosing foreign airlines: A perspective of Chinese tourists. *African Journal of Business Management*, *5*(34), 12966–12971. doi:10.5897/ajbm11.1200

Churchill, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *16*(1), 64. doi:10.2307/3150876

Chryssochoidis, G., Krystallis, A., & Perreas, P. (2007). Ethnocentric beliefs and country-of-origin (COO) effect. *European Journal of Marketing*, *41*(11/12), 1518–1544.

Evanschitzky, H., v. Wangenheim, F., Woisetschläger, D., & Blut, M. (2008). Consumer ethnocentrism in the German market. *International Marketing Review*, *25*(1), 7–32.

Guadagnoli, E., & Velicer, W. F. (1988). Relation to sample size to the stability of component patterns. *Psychological Bulletin*, *103*(2), 265–275.

Hannam, K., & Knox, D. (2010). *Understanding tourisms: A critical introduction*. London: SAGE Publications.

Herche, J. (1992). A note on the predictive validity of the CETSCALE. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *20*(3), 261–264. doi:10.1007/bf02723413

Kim, J., & Mueller, C. W. (1979). *Introduction to factor analysis: What it is and how to do it, Vol. 13* (2nd ed.). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Klein, J. G. (2002). Us versus them, or us versus everyone? Delineating consumer aversion to foreign goods. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *33*(2), 345–363.

Klein, J. G., Ettenson, R., & Morris, D. (1998). The animosity model of foreign product purchase: An empirical test in the people's Republic of China. *Journal of Marketing*, *62*(1), 89.

doi:10.2307/1251805

Klein, J. G., & Ettenson, R. (1999). Consumer animosity and consumer Ethnocentrism. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *11*(4), 5–24.

Kosterman, R., & Feshbach, S. (1989). Toward a measure of patriotic and nationalistic attitudes. *Political Psychology*, 10, 257-274.

Kuncharin, W., & Mohamed, B. (2014). The impacts of consumer Ethnocentrism on foreign product judgment and local helping purchase: A case of Malaysian cross-border shoppers in Hatyai, Thailand. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *9*(9), 135–146.

LeVine, RA., & Campbell, D. T. (1972). *Ethnocentrism*. NY: John Wiley.

Lindquist, J. D., Vida, I., Plank, R. E., & Fairhurst, A. (2001). The modified CETSCALE: Validity tests in the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Poland. *International Business Review*, *10*(5), 505–516. doi:10.1016/s0969-5931(01)00030-0

Litvin, S. W., Crotts, J. C., & Hefner, F. L. (2004). Cross-cultural tourist behaviour: A replication and extension involving Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *6*(1), 29–37. doi:10.1002/jtr.468

Maina, S. M. (2016). Consumer Ethnocentrism, demographic characteristics and willingness to buy commercial banking services in Kenya. *European Scientific Journal*, *12*(25), 100–113.

Marcoux, J.-S., Filiatrault, P., & Chéron, E. (1997). The attitudes underlying preferences of Young Urban educated polish consumers towards products made in western countries. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *9*(4), 5–29.

Mavondo, F. T., & Tan, A. (1999). *Reconceptualising the CETSCALE (Consumer Ethnocentric Tendency Scale)*. Marketing in The Third Millennium, University of New South Wales, Sidney, Australia.

Nadiri, H., & Tümer, M. (2010). Influence of ethnocentrism on consumers' intention to buy domestically produced goods: An empirical study in north Cyprus. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, *11*(3), 444–461. doi:10.3846/jbem.2010.22

Nielsen, J. A., & Spence, M. T. (1997). A test of the stability of the Cetscale, A measure of consumers' ethnocentric tendencies. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *5*(4), 68–76.

Nijssen, E. J., & Douglas, S. P. (2008). Consumer World-Mindedness, Social-Mindedness, and store image. *Journal of International Marketing*, *16*(3), 84–107.

Nijssen, E. J., & Douglas, S. P. (2011). Consumer World-Mindedness and attitudes toward product positioning in advertising: An examination of global versus foreign versus local positioning. *Journal of International Marketing*, *19*(3), 113–133. doi:10.1509/jimk.19.3.113

Nijssen, E. J., Douglas, S. P., & Nobel, P. B. (1999). Attitudes toward the Purchase of Foreign Products. *International Marketing Review*, *18*(4), 621–642.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). NY: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Oh, H., Fiore, A. M., & Jeoung, M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*(2), 119–132.

Pine, J., & Gilmore, J. (1998). Welcome to the Experience Economy. *Harvard Business Review*, *1*, 97–105.

Pine, J., & Gilmore, J. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is theatre & every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Pinkaeo, K., & Speece, M. (2000). The Thai life insurance market: Effects of country of origin perceptions on consumer expectations. *Journal of Financial Services Marketing*, *5*(2), 99–117. doi:10.1057/palgrave.fsm.4770011

Rawwas, M. A., Rajendran, K. N., & Wuehrer, G. A. (1996). The influence of worldmindedness and nationalism on consumer evaluation of domestic and foreign products. *International Marketing Review*, *13*(2), 20–38. doi:10.1108/02651339610115746

Saffu, K., & Walker, J. (2005). An assessment of the consumer ethnocentric scale (CETSCALE) in an advanced and transitional country: the case of Canada and Russia. *International Journal of Management*, *22*, 556–571.

Shankarmahesh, M. N. (2006). Consumer ethnocentrism: An integrative review of its antecedents and consequences. *International Marketing Review*, *23*(2), 146–172.

Shimp, T. A., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer Ethnocentrism: Construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *24*(3), 280. doi:10.2307/3151638

UNWTO. (1991, June). *Resolutions of international conference on travel and tourism*. Ottawa, Canada.

UNWTO. (2016a, January). International tourist arrivals up 4% reach a record 1.2 billion in 2015. Retrieved February 15, 2017, from http://media.unwto.org/press-release/2016-01-18/international-tourist-arrivals-4-reach-record-12-billion-2015

UNWTO (2016b). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights 2016 edition*. Retrieved from http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284418145

Vida, I., & Reardon, J. (2008). Domestic consumption: Rational, affective or normative choice? *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *25*(1), 34–44. doi:10.1108/07363760810845390

Volvo, S. (2009). Conceptualizing experience: A tourist based approach. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, *18*(2-3), 111–126. doi:10.1080/19368620802590134

Worchel, S., & Cooper, J. (1979). *Understanding Social Psychology*. Homewood, Il: The Dorsey Press.

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

Ladan Rokni, Konkuk University
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).

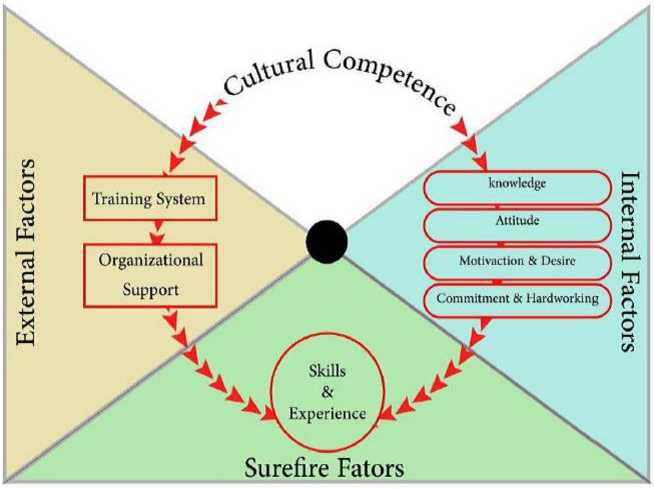


Figure 1. A framework of delivering cultural competence in medical tourism service

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, 2014). 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.

REFERENCES

Alizadeh, S., & Chavan, M. (2015). Cultural competence dimensions and outcomes: a systematic review of the literature. *Health & social care in the community*.

Altinay, L., Paraskevas, A., & Jang, S. S. (2015). *Planning research in hospitality and tourism*: Routledge.

Balcazar, F. E., Suarez-Balcazar, Y., & Taylor-Ritzler, T. (2009). Cultural competence: Development of a conceptual framework. *Disability and rehabilitation, 31*(14), 1153-1160.

Beach, M. C., Price, E. G., Gary, T. L., Robinson, K. A., Gozu, A., Palacio, A., . . . Bass, E. B. (2005). Cultural competency: A systematic review of health care provider educational interventions. *Medical care, 43*(4), 356.

Campinha-Bacote, J. (2002). The process of cultural competence in the delivery of healthcare services: A model of care. *Journal of transcultural nursing, 13*(3), 181-184.

Chae, D. H., & Kang, K. H. (2013). Review of self-administered instruments to measure cultural competence of nurses-focused on IAPCC & CCA. *Journal of Korean Academy of Nursing Administration, 19*(1), 48-62.

Connell, J. (2013). Contemporary medical tourism: Conceptualisation, culture and commodification. *Tourism Management, 34*, 1-13.

Davis, K. (1998). Race, health status, and managed health care. *Cultural Competence for Health Care Professionals Working with African-American Communities: Theory and Practice. Brisbane FL, Epstein LG, Pacheco G et al. Eds*, 145-163.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization. *Journal of studies in international education, 10*(3), 241-266.

Doorenbos, A. Z., & Schim, S. M. (2004). Cultural competence in hospice. *American Journal of Hospice and Palliative Medicine®, 21*(1), 28-32.

Echeverri, M., Brookover, C., & Kennedy, K. (2010). Nine constructs of cultural competence for curriculum development. *American journal of pharmaceutical education, 74*(10), 181.

Helman, C. G. (2007). *Culture, health and illness*: CRC Press.

Kim-Godwin, Y. S., Clarke, P. N., & Barton, L. (2001). A model for the delivery of culturally competent community care. *Journal of advanced nursing, 35*(6), 918-925.

Lin, H. C. (2016). Impact of nurses' cross-cultural competence on nursing intellectual capital from a social cognitive theory perspective. *Journal of advanced nursing*.

Miguel, A., & Luquis, R. R. (2013). *Cultural competence in health education and health promotion*: John Wiley & Sons.

O'connell, M. B., Korner, E. J., Rickles, N. M., & Sias, J. J. (2007). Cultural competence in health care and its implications for pharmacy. *Pharmacotherapy: The Journal of Human Pharmacology and Drug Therapy, 27*(7), 1062-1079.

Olt, H., Jirwe, M., Gustavsson, P., & Emami, A. (2010). Psychometric evaluation of the Swedish adaptation of the inventory for assessing the process of cultural competence among healthcare professionals—Revised (IAPCC-R). *Journal of transcultural nursing, 21*(1), 55-64.

Ormond, M. (2011). 8 Medical tourism, medical exile. *Real tourism: Practice, care, and politics in contemporary travel culture, 26*, 143.

Ormond, M. (2012). Claiming 'cultural competence': The promotion of multi-ethnic Malaysia as a medical tourism destination. In C. M. e. Hall (Ed.), *Medical*

Ormond, M. (2014). Medical tourism. In C. M. H. a. A. W. Alan A. Lew (Ed.), *The Wiley-Blackwell Companion to Tourism*: John Wiley & Sons.

Saha, S., Korthuis, P. T., Cohn, J. A., Sharp, V. L., Moore, R. D., & Beach, M. C. (2013). Primary care provider cultural competence and racial disparities in HIV care and outcomes. *Journal of general internal medicine, 28*(5), 622-629.

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,

1998) 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 (Salciuviene 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 Nakahechi 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

Attix, S. A. (2015). New Age-Oriented Special Interest Travel: An Exploratory Study. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 27 (2), 51-58.

Bideci, M. & Albayrak, T. (2016). Motivations of the Russian and German tourists visiting pilgrimage site of Saint Nicholas Church. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 18, 10-13.

Blom, T.; Nilson, M. & Santos, X. (2015). The way to Santiago beyond Santiago. Fisterra and the pilgrimage's post-secular meaning. *European Journal of Tourism Research*.

Collins-Kreiner, N. (2010). The geography of pilgrimage and tourism: Transformations and implications for applied geography. *Applied Geography*, 30, 153-164.

Dejbakhsh, S. & Arrowsmith, C.; Jackson, M. (2011). Cultural Influence on Spatial Behaviour. *Tourism Geographies*, 13 (1), 91-111.

Gengler, C. E.; Klenosky, D. B.; Mulvey, M. S. (1995). Improving the graphic representation of means-end results. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 12, 254-256.

Gutman, J. (1997). Means-End Chains as Goal Hierarchies. *Psychology & Marketing*, 14 (6), 545-560.

Lois-Gonzalez, R. C. & Santos, X. M. (2015). Tourists and pilgrims on their way to Santiago. Motives, Caminos and final destinations. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*.

MacKay, K.J. & Fesenmeier, D.R. (2000). An Exploration of Cross-Cultural Destination Image Assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38, 417-423.

Mattila, A. S. (1999). An Analysis of Means-End Hierarchies in Cross Cultural Contexts: What Motivates Asian and Western Business travelers to Stay at Luxury Hotels?. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 6 (2), 19-28.

Mori, M. (2005). *The Modernization of Shikoku Henro: From a 'Modern Pilgrimage' to a 'Healing Journey' (Shikoku Henro no Kindaika: Modan Henro kara Iyashi no Tabi made).* Tokyo: Sogensha.

Matsui, T. (2013). *Language and Marketing: A Social History of the "Healing Boom" in Japan (Kotoba to Maaketeingu: Iyashibuummu no Shouhishakaisi)*. Tokyo: Sekigakusha.

Okamoto, R. (2015). *Pilgrimage to sacred sites: From World Heritage to anime setting (Seichi Junrei: Sekai Isan kara Anime Butai made)*. Tokyo: Chuokoron Shinsha.

Olsen. D.H. & Timothy, D.J. (2006). Tourism and religious journeys. In D.H. Olsen, D.J. Timothy (Eds.), *Tourism, religion and spiritual journeys* (pp, 1-15). USA and Canada: Routledge.

Reisinger, Y. & Turner, L. (1998). Cross-Cultural Differences in Tourism: a Strategy for Tourism Markets. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 7 (4), 79-106.

Reynolds, T. J. & Gutman, J. (1988). Laddering theory, method, analysis and interpretation. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 28 (1), 11-31.

Rosenbaum, M. S. & Spears, D. L. (2005). Who buys that? Who does that? Analysis of cross-cultural consumption behaviours among tourists in Hawaii. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11 (3), 235-247.

Salciuviene, L.; Auruskeviciene, V.; Lydeka, Z. (2005). An Assessment of Various Approaches for Cross-Cultural Consumer Research. *Problems and Perspectives in Management*, 3, 147-159.

Sato, H. (2004). *Henro and the Sociology of Pilgrimage (Henro to Junrei no Shakaigaku)*. Japan: Jinbunshoin.

Sepp, T. (2014). Pilgrimage and pilgrim hierarchies in vernacular discourse: Comparative notes from the Camino de Santiago and Glastonbury. *Journal of Ethnology and Folkloristics*, 8 (1), 23-52

Suga, N. (2010). Shinto shrines as power spots (Pawaa Supotto toshiteno Jinja). In K. Ishii (Ed.), *Where is Shinto going? (Shinto ha doko he ikuka)* (pp. 232-252). Tokyo: Perikansha.

UNWTO (2011). *Religious Tourism in Asia and the Pacific*. Spain: UNWTO.

Watkins, L. (2010). The cross-cultural appropriateness of survey-based value(s) research. *International Marketing Review*, 27 (6), 694-716.

Watkins, L. & Gnoth, J. (2011). The value orientation approach to understanding culture. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38 (4), 1274-1299.

STAKEHOLDER SOCIAL EXCHANGE, COLLABORATION AND NETWORKING IN TRADITIONAL FESTIVALS

Raymond Adongo, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

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).

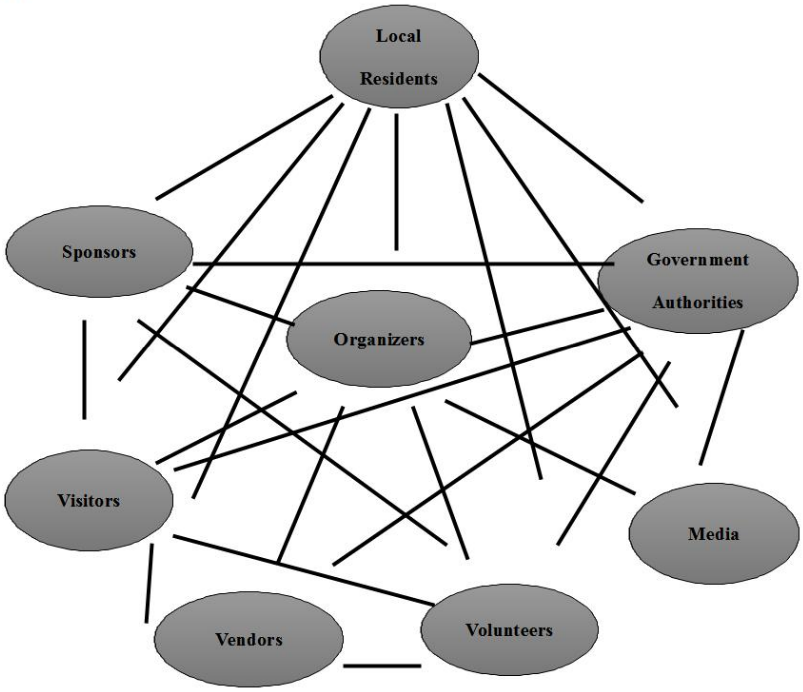


Figure 1: The conceptualised Stakeholder model

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.

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

Alonso, D.A. & Bressen, A. (2013). Stakeholders' perspectives on the evolution and benefits of a traditional wine festival: The case of the grape festival ("Festadell'Uva") in Impruneta, Italy. *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism, 14* (4), 309-330.

Barron, P., & Rihova, I. (2011). Motivation to volunteer: a case study of the Edinburgh International Magic Festival. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, *2*(3), 202-217.

Borgatti, S.P & Halgin, D.S. (2011). On Network Theory. *Organization Science, 22* (5), 1168-1181.

Bowdin, G. A. J., Allen, J., & O' Toole, W., Harrris, R., & McDonnell, I. (2006). *Events Management* (2nd Ed).New York: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Buch, T., Milne, S., & Dickson, G. (2011). Multiple stakeholder perspectives on cultural events: Auckland’s pasifika festival. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 20* (3/4), 311–328.

Cobb, M. (1988). *Influence and exchange networks among tourism oriented business in four Michigan communities*. Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI.

Dees, W., Bennett, G., & Tsuji, Y. (2006). Attitudes toward sponsorship at a state sports festival. *Event Management, 10* (2-3), 89-101.

Elstad, B. (2003). Continuance commitment and reasons to quit: A study of volunteers at a jazz festival. *Event Management*, *8*(2), 99-108.

Emerson, R. M. (1962). Power-dependence relations. *American Journal of Sociological Review, 27*, 31–41.

Emerson, R. M. (1976). Social Exchange Theory. *Annual Review of Sociology, 2*, 335–362.

Foucault, M. (1982). The subject and power. *Critical inquiry*, *8*(4), 777-795.

Fredline, L., & Faulkner, B. (2000). Host community reactions: a cluster analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research, 27*(3), 763-84.

Freeman, R.E. (1984). *Strategic Management: A stakeholder Approach*. Boston, MA: Pitman.

Getz, D. (2007). *Event Studies: Theory, Research and Policy for Planned Events*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Getz, D. (2012). *Event Studies: Theory, Research and Policy for Planned Events* (2nd Ed). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Getz, D., & Andersson, T. (2010). Festival stakeholders: exploring relationships and dependency through a four – country comparison. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 34*(4), 531-556.

Gray, B. (1989). *Collaborating: finding common ground for multiparty problems*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Homans, G. (1958). Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology, 63*(6), 597–606.

Kim, K., Uysal, M., & Chen, J. (2002). Festival visitor motivation from the organizers’ point of view. *Event Management, 7*(2), 127-134.

Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. D. (1994). Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *The Academy of Management Journal, 37*(3), 656–669.

Mitchell, R., Agle, B., & Wood D. (1997). Toward a theory of stakeholder identification and salience: defining the principle of who and what really counts. *Academy of Management Review, 22*(4), 853-886.

Presenza, A., & Iocca, S. (2012). The weight of stakeholders on festival management. The case of music festivals in Italy. PASOS. *Revista de Turismo Patrimonio Cultural, 10* (2), 25-35.

Pyo, S. S. (1995). Perceived importance of festival attributes and decision criteria by sponsor type. *Festival Management and Event Tourism, 2*(3-1), 149-158.

Quinn, B. (2013). *Key concepts in Event Management*. Sage: London.

Reid, S. and Arcodia, C. (2002). Understanding the role of the stakeholder in event management. *Journal of Sport and Tourism, 7*(3), 20-23.

Robinson, P., Wale, D., & Dickson, G. (2010). *Events Management*. CABI: Wallingford

Sahlins, M. D. (1974). *Stone age economics* (Vol. 130). NY: Transaction Publishers.

Scott, J. (2000). *Social Network Analysis: A Handbook*. Sage: London.

Shiau, W.L. & Luo, M.M. (2012). Factors affecting online group buying intention and satisfaction: A social exchange theory perspective. *Computers in Human Bahavior, 28* (6), 2431-2444.

Song, Z., Xing, L., & Chathoth, K. (2015). The effects of festival impacts on support intentions based on residents' ratings of festival performance and satisfaction; a new integrative approach. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 23*(2), 316-337.

Stein, S. M., & Harper, T. L. (2003). Power, trust, and planning. *Journal of Planning Education and Research, 23* (2), 125–139.

Stokes, R. (2006). Relationships and networks for shaping events tourism: An Australian study. *Event Management, 10*(2-3), 145-158.

Strauss, A. (1978). A social world perspective. *Studies in Symbolic Interactionism, 1*(1), 119–128.

Thibaut, J., & Kelley, H. H. (1959). *The Social Psychology of Groups*. New York: Wiley and Sons.

Thrane, C. (2002). Jazz festival visitors and their expenditures: Linking spending patterns to musical interest. *Journal of Travel Research, 40*(3), 281-286.

Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge, New York, NY.

Ziakas, V., & Costa, A. C. (2010). Explicating inter-organizational linkages of a host community's events network. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management, 1*(2), 132 – 147.

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

Soo Hyang Noh, Sejong University
Seul Ki Lee, Sejong University

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

Bauer, T. G., Lambert, J., & Hutchison, J. (2001, August). Government intervention in the Australasian meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions industry (MICE). In *Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management* (Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 65-87). Taylor & Francis Group.

Bernini, C. (2009). Convention industry and destination clusters: Evidence from Italy. *Tourism Management*, 30(6), 878-889.

Campiranon, K., & Arcodia, C. (2008). Market segmentation in time of crisis: A case study of the MICE sector in Thailand. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 23(2-4), 151-161.

Erkuş-Öztürk, H. (2009). The role of cluster types and firm size in designing the level of network relations: The experience of the Antalya tourism region. *Tourism Management*, 30(4), 589-597.

Hui, S. (2010, July). Notice of Retraction Research on the city's MICE service industry chain. In *Computer Science and Information Technology (ICCSIT), 2010 3rd IEEE International Conference on* (Vol. 4, pp. 441-443). IEEE.

Jin, X., Weber, K., & Bauer, T. (2012). Impact of clusters on exhibition destination attractiveness: Evidence from Mainland China. *Tourism Management*, 33(6), 1429-1439.

Lim, C. C., & Cooper, C. (2009). Beyond sustainability: optimising island tourism development. *International journal of tourism research*, *11*(1), 89-103.

Marshall, A. (1964). Principles of economics. *London: Machmillan.*

McCartney, G. (2008, November). The CAT (casino tourism) and the MICE (meetings, incentives, conventions, exhibitions): Key development considerations for the convention and exhibition industry in Macao. *In Journal of Convention & Event Tourism,* 9(4), 293-308.

Mistilis, N., & Dwyer, L. (1999). Tourism gateways and regional economies: the distributional impacts of MICE. *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, *1*(6), 441.

Opperman, M. (1996). Convention destination images: Analysis of association meeting planners' perceptions. *Tourism Management*, 17(3), 175–182.

Perles-Ribes, J. F., Rodríguez-Sánchez, I., & Ramón-Rodríguez, A. B. (2015). Is a cluster a necessary condition for success? The case of Benidorm. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-29.

Porter, M. E. (1990). The competitive advantage of nations. *London: Macmillan.*

Weidenfeld, A., Butler, R., & Williams, A. W. (2011). The role of clustering, cooperation and complementarities in the visitor attraction sector. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(7), 595-629.

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

Fuad Mehraliyev, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

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, & Buhalis, 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 wresting 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 Bertnard 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, tagging 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.

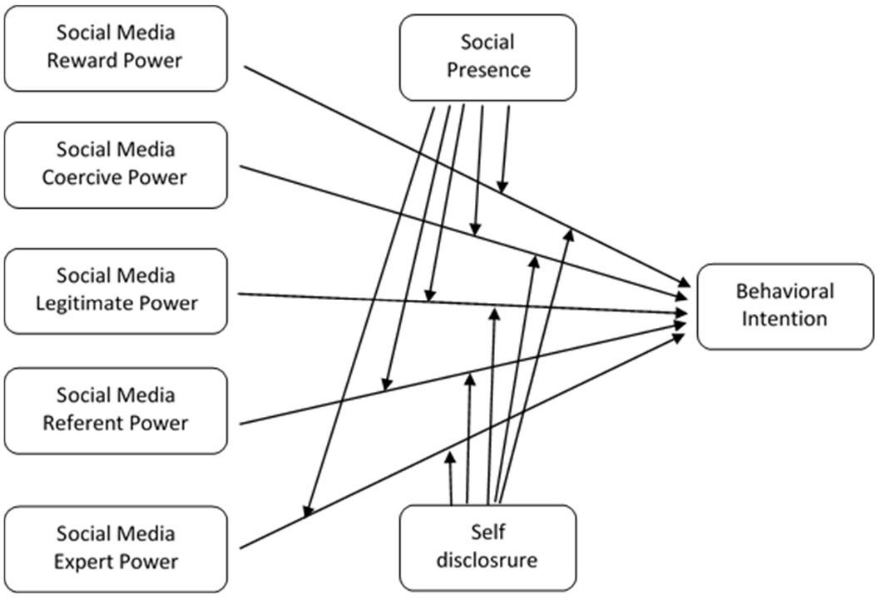


Figure 1. Social Media Power Model

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.

REFERENCES

Akehurst, G. (2009). User generated content: the use of blogs for tourism organisations and tourism consumers. *Service Business*, 3(1), 51-61.

Ayeh, J. K., Au, N., & Law, R. (2013a). "Do We Believe in TripAdvisor?" Examining Credibility Perceptions and Online Travelers' Attitude toward Using User-Generated Content. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(4), 437-452.

Buchanan, D., & Badham, R. (2008). *Power, Politics, and Organizational Change: Winning the Turf Game*. Retrieved from http://sk.sagepub.com/books/power-politics-and-organizational-change

Camprubi, R., Guia, J., & Comas, J. (2013). The new role of tourists in destination image formation. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16(2), 203-209.

French, J. R., Raven, B., & Cartwright, D. (1959). The bases of social power. *Classics of organization theory*, 311-320.

Go-Globe (2015, May 16). SOCIAL MEDIA USAGE IN HONG KONG - STATISTICS AND TRENDS. Retrieved from http://www.go-globe.hk/blog/social-media-hong-kong/

Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. New York: Doubleday Anchor Books.

Grossman, L. (2006). Time's person of the year: You. Retrieved from TIME Magazine website: http://content.time.com/time/magazine/article/0,9171,1570810,00.html

Hernandez-Mendez, J., Munoz-Leiva, F., & Sanchez-Fernandez, J. (2015). The influence of e-word-of-mouth on travel decision-making: consumer profiles. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 18(11), 1001-1021.

Kaplan, A. M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business horizons*, 53(1), 59-68.

Kim, H., & Stepchenkova, S. (2015). Effect of tourist photographs on attitudes towards destination:

Manifest and latent content. *Tourism Management*, 49, 29-41.

Leung, D., Law, R., van Hoof, H., & Buhalis, D. (2013). Social Media in Tourism and Hospitality: A Literature Review. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(1-2), 3-22.

Oliveira, E., & Panyik, E. (2015). Content, context and co-creation: Digital challenges in destination branding with references to Portugal as a tourist destination. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 21(1), 53-74.

Romano, A. M., Gerber, H., & Andrews, D. (2010). Social Media, Power, and the Future of VBAC. *J Perinat Educ*, 19(3), 43-52.

Russell, B. (1938). *A New Social Analysis*. London: George Allen & Unwin

UNWTO (2016). *Tourism Highlights*. Retrieved from http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284418145

Zeng, B., & Gerritsen, R. (2014). What do we know about social media in tourism? A review. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 10, 27-36.

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

Jihwan Yeon, Michigan State University
Seunghyun Kim, Michigan State University

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 rentals[1].

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 York[2]. 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-neighborhoods-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 (Puhani 2012). Card and Krueger (1994) analyzed 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 analyze 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.

3) See http://www.nolo.com/legal-encyclopedia/overview-airbnb-law-new-york-city.html

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 geographical location, 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:

$$\text{logHotel Revenue}_{ikt} = \beta \text{logAirbnb listings}_{kt} + X_{kt}\,\gamma + h_i + \tau_t + \varepsilon_{ikt}$$

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 τ_t, we can identify the casual effect by transforming the variables into deviation from the mean of each incumbent hotel. . X_{kt} ɣ is a control in order not to be biased if there is a factor that influences on Airbnb. For example, if there exists an unobserved factor such as the population differentiated across cities, it would influence on 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} ɣ. ε_{ikt}, 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 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.

REFERENCES

A10008B. Assemb. Leg. Sess. 2009-2010. (N.Y. 2009)

Angrist, Joshua D., and Alan B. Krueger. "Empirical strategies in labor economics." *Handbook of labor economics* 3 (1999): 1277-1366.

Athey, Susan, and Guido W. Imbens. "Identification and inference in nonlinear difference-in-differences models." *Econometrica* 74.2 (2006): 431-497.

Botsman, R., & Rogers, R. (2010). Beyond Zipcar: Collaborative consumption. *Harvard Business Review*, 88(10), p. 30.

Card, David. "The impact of the Mariel boatlift on the Miami labor market." *ILR Review* 43.2 (1990): 245-257.

Card, David, and Alan B. Krueger. *Minimum wages and employment: A case study of the fast food industry in New Jersey and Pennsylvania*. No. w4509. National Bureau of Economic Research, 1994.

Frenken, Koen, et al. "Smarter regulation for the sharing economy." *The Guardian* 20 (2015).

Garvey, Gerald T., and Gordon Hanka. "Capital structure and corporate control: The effect of antitakeover statutes on firm leverage." *The Journal of Finance* 54.2 (1999): 519-546.

Kaplan, Andreas M., and Michael Haenlein. "Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media." *Business horizons* 53.1 (2010): 59-68.

Porter, Michael E. "The competitive advantage of nations." *Harvard business review* 68.2 (1990): 73-93.

Puhani, Patrick A. "The treatment effect, the cross difference, and the interaction term in nonlinear “difference-in-differences” models." *Economics Letters* 115.1 (2012): 85-87.

Rauch, Daniel E., and David Schleicher. "Like Uber, but for Local Government Law: The Future of Local Regulation of the Sharing Economy." *Ohio St. LJ* 76 (2015): 901.

Wang, Chingning, and Ping Zhang. "The evolution of social commerce: The people, management, technology, and information dimensions." *Communications of the Association for Information Systems* 31.5 (2012): 1-23.

Zervas, Georgios, Davide Proserpio, and John W. Byers. "The rise of the sharing economy: Estimating the impact of Airbnb on the hotel industry." *Journal of Marketing Research* (2013).

CONNECTED TOURISTS: PERFORMING TRAVEL ON-SITE AND ONLINE

Michelangelo Magasic, Curtin University of Technology

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; Germann 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).

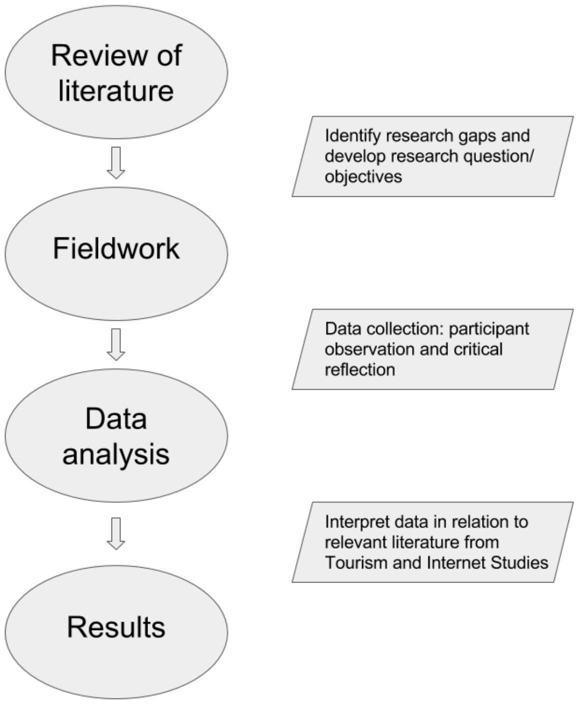


Figure1. Research model including stages (ovals) and processes (parallelograms)

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.

REFERENCES

Azariah, D. (2016). The traveller as author: examining self-presentation and discourse in the (self) published travel blog. *Media, Culture and Society*, *38*, 934-945. DOI: 10.1177/0163443716664483

Banyai, M. & Havitz, M. (2013). Analyzing travel blogs using a realist evaluation approach. J*ournal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 22(2), 229-41. DOI: 10.1080/19368623.2012.680239

Dinhopl, A. & Gretzel, U. (2016). Selfie-taking as touristic looking. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 57, 126–139. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2015.12.015

Ellis, C., Adams, T. E. & Bochner, P. A. (2011). Autoethnography: An overview. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*. 12 (1). Retrieved from: http://nbn-resolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs1101108.

Germann Molz, J. (2012). *Travel connections: Tourism, technology and togetherness in a mobile world*. London, UK: Routledge.

Germann Molz, J & Paris, C. (2015.) The social affordances of flashpacking: Exploring the mobility nexus of travel and communication. *Mobilities*, 10 (2), 173-192. DOI: 10.1080/17450101.2013.848605

Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. New York, NY: Anchor Books.

Hogan, B. (2010). The presentation of self in the age of social media: Distinguishing performances and exhibitions online. *Bulletin of Science, Technology & Society*, 30(6), 377 –386. DOI: 10.1177/0270467610385893

Kim, J. & Tussyadiah, I. P. (2013). Social networking and social support in tourism experience: The moderating role of online self-presentation strategies. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *30*, 78-92. DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2013.751220

Kemp, S. (2016). *The social traveller* [Slideshare presentation]. Retrieved from: http://wearesocial.com/sg/blog/2016/04/social-media-travel-brands

Lo, I.S. & McKercher, B. (2015). Ideal image in process: Online tourist photography and impression management. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 52, 104-116. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2015.02.019.

Marwick, A. (2015). Instafame: Luxury selfies in the attention economy. *Public Culture*, 27(1), 137-160. DOI: 10.1215/08992363-2798379

Marwick, A. & boyd, d. (2011). I tweet honestly, I tweet passionately: Twitter users, context collapse, and the imagined audience. *New Media & Society*, (13)1, 114–133. DOI: 10.1177/1461444810365313

Munar, A. M., Gyimóthy, S., & Cai, L. (Eds.). (2013). *Tourism social media: Transformations in identity, community and culture*. Bingley, UK: Emerald

Rettberg, J.W. (2015, 23 Sept.) *More people are killed by tourist brochures than by sharks*. Retrieved from: http://jilltxt.net/?p=4347

Senft, T. M. (2008). *Camgirls: Celebrity and community in the age of social networks*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Spry, T. (2011). *Body, paper, stage: Writing and performing autoethnography*. Walnut Creek, CA: Left Coast Press.

Wang, D. & Fesenmaier, D.R. (2013). Transforming the travel experience: The use of smartphones for travel. In L. Cantoni, & Z. Xiang (Eds.), *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2013*. New York, NY: Springer.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author acknowledges course-related funding under the Australian Government Research Training Program Scholarship.

A EMPIRICAL MODEL OF PERCEIVED TRAVELER'S VALUE IN UBER TRANPORTATION: A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION

Kyungmin Lee, Kyung Hee University
Cheng Ao, Kyung Hee University
Namho Chungm, Kyung Hee University
Chulmo Koo, Kyung Hee University

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 4^{th} 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) (Guttentang, 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

1. 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 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

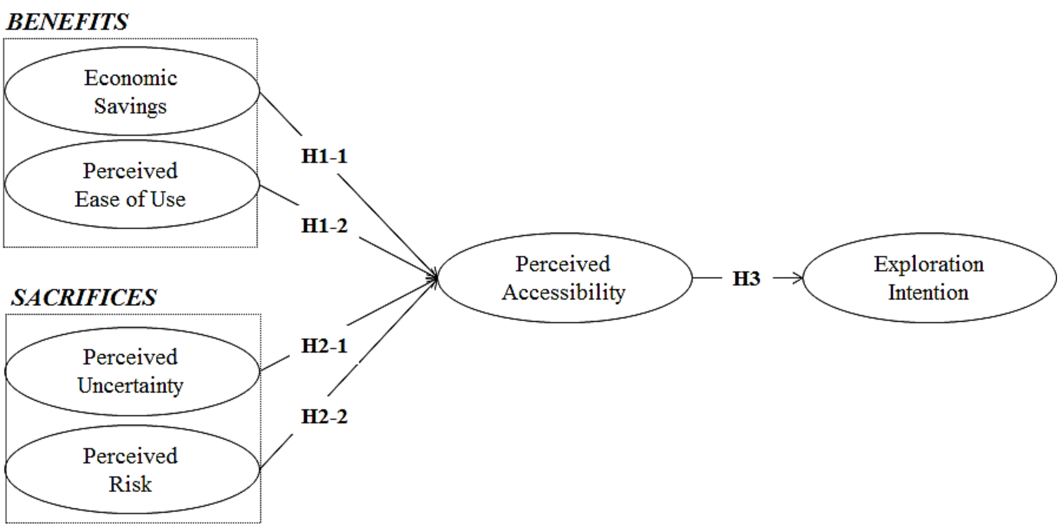


Figure 1. Research Model

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.

THOERETICAL 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.

REFERENCES

Bardhi, F., & Eckhardt, G. M. (2012). Access-based consumption: The case of car sharing. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(4), 881-898.

Belk, R. (2010). Sharing. *Journal of consumer research*, *36*(5), 715-734.

Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism management*, *21*(1), 97-116.

Cheng, Y. H., & Chen, S. Y. (2015). Perceived accessibility, mobility, and connectivity of public transportation systems. *Transportation Research Part A: Policy and Practice*, *77*, 386-403.

Cho, J., & Lee, J. (2006). An integrated model of risk and risk-reducing strategies. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*(1), 112-120.

Chung, N., & Koo, C. (2015). The use of social media in travel information search. *Telematics and Informatics*, *32*(2), 215-229.

Cornell, C. (2016). "Why business traveler aren't sold on Airbnb, but rush to Uber and Lyft," *Financial Post*, (possible to access at) http://business.financialpost.com/entrepreneur/fp-startups/business-travellers-love-ride-sharing-airbnb-not-so-much

Dabholkar, P. A., Shepherd, C. D., & Thorpe, D. I. (2000). A comprehensive framework for service quality: an investigation of critical conceptual and measurement issues through a longitudinal study. *Journal of retailing*, *76*(2), 139-173.

Davis Jr, F. D. (1986). *A technology acceptance model for empirically testing new end-user information systems: Theory and results.* Sloan School of Management Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Amberst, MA, Doctoral dissertation.

Ert, E., Fleischer, A., & Magen, N. (2016). Trust and reputation in the sharing economy: The role of personal photos in Airbnb. *Tourism Management*, *55*, 62-73.

Guttentag, D. (2015). Airbnb: disruptive innovation and the rise of an informal tourism accommodation sector. *Current issues in Tourism*, *18*(12), 1192-1217.

Ham, S., Kim, W. G., & Forsythe, H. W. (2008). Restaurant employees' technology use intention: Validating technology acceptance model with external factors. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, *17*(1-2), 78-98.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Hui, T. K., Wan, D., & Ho, A. (2007). Tourists' satisfaction, recommendation and revisiting Singapore. *Tourism management*, *28*(4), 965-975.

Kim, H. W., Chan, H. C., & Gupta, S. (2007). Value-based adoption of mobile internet: an empirical investigation. *Decision support systems*, *43*(1), 111-126.

Kim, T. G., Lee, J. H., & Law, R. (2008). An empirical examination of the acceptance behaviour of hotel front office systems: An extended technology acceptance model. *Tourism management*, *29*(3), 500-513.

Kotler, P., Kartajaya, H., and Setiawan, I. (2017). *Marketing 4.0: Moving From Traditional to Digital. Hobojen, New Jersey*

Lin, T. C., Wu, S., Hsu, J. S. C., & Chou, Y. C. (2012). The integration of value-based adoption and expectation–confirmation models: An example of IPTV continuance intention. *Decision Support Systems*, *54*(1), 63-75.

Maruping, L. M., & Magni, M. (2012). What's the weather like? The effect of team learning climate, empowerment climate, and gender on individuals' technology exploration and use. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *29*(1), 79-114.

Morosan, C. (2012). Theoretical and empirical considerations of guests' perceptions of biometric systems in hotels: Extending the technology acceptance model. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *36*(1), 52-84.

Park, J., Lennon, S. J., & Stoel, L. (2005). On-line product presentation: Effects on mood, perceived risk, and purchase intention. *Psychology & Marketing*, *22*(9), 695-719.

Quintal, V. A., Lee, J. A., & Soutar, G. N. (2010). Risk, uncertainty and the theory of planned behavior: A tourism example. *Tourism management*, *31*(6), 797-805.

Stone, R. N., & Grønhaug, K. (1993). Perceived risk: Further considerations for the marketing discipline. *European Journal of marketing*, *27*(3), 39-50.

Thatcher, J. B., McKnight, D. H., Baker, E. W., Arsal, R. E., & Roberts, N. H. (2011). The role of trust in postadoption IT exploration: An empirical examination of knowledge management systems. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, *58*(1), 56-70.

Tussyadiah, I. P., & Pesonen, J. (2016). Impacts of peer-to-peer accommodation use on travel patterns. *Journal of Travel Research*, *55*(8), 1022-1040.

Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: a means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *The Journal of marketing*, 2-22.

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

Jennifer Chen-Hua Min, Ming Chuan University
Yu-Yuan Shen, Ming Chuan University
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 Tsai'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).

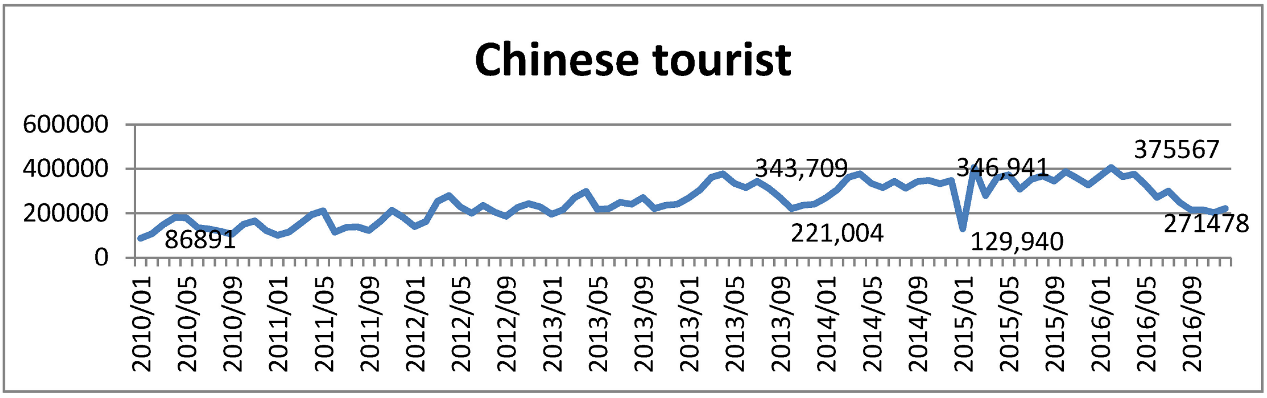


Figure 1. Chinese tourist arrivals for Taiwan from 2010/01 to 2016/12

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, $x^{(1)} = (x^{(1)}(1), x^{(1)}(2), ..., x^{(0)}(n))$,k=1,2,3,⋯,n. where $x^{(1)}(k)$=,k=1,2,3,⋯,n.

Step 3: =MEAN, Generate =(, by calculation =0.5(k=1,2,3,⋯,n.

Step4: Estimation of developing coefficient a and b

Establish GM(1,1) model as as $x^{(0)}(k)+a\bullet z^{(1)}(k)=b$, k=2,3,⋯,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= , and Y_N=

Step 5: White response equation of GM(1,1), $^{(1)}(k+1)=(x^{(0)}(1)$ -)•+ , $^{(1)}($ 1$)=x^{(0)}(1)$

Step 6: recuperation value, ,

and $^{(1)}($ 1$)=x^{(1)}(1)=x^{(0)}(1)$

Step 7: Precision rate, $$e(k)=\frac{\left|x^{(0)}(k)-\hat{x}(k+1)\right|}{x^{(0)}(k)}\times 100, k=1,2,\cdots,n$$

Precision rate= 1-e(k)

Step 8: Mean Absolute Percentage Error(MAPE), $$MAPE=\frac{1}{k-1}\sum_{k=2}^{n}\frac{\left|x^{(0)}(k)-\hat{x}^{(0)}(k)\right|}{x^{(0)}(k)}, k=1,2,\cdots,n$$

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. =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 1.Result of the real value and grey predicting (Chinese tourists to Taiwan.)

Year	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018
The real number	2874702	3987152	4184102	3511734		
The prediction value	2874702	4124723	3889131	3666996	3457548	3260063
Precision rate		97%	93%	96%		
MAPE			5%			

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). From Table 1 it derives that each MAPE is under 10% (Lewis, 1982). Therefore, the GM(1,1) model is applicable.

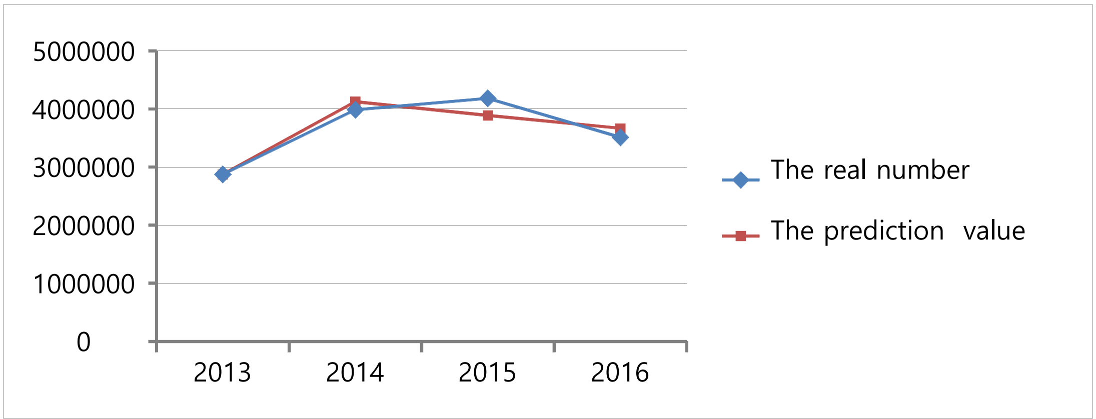


Figure 2. Chinese tourist demand from 2013 to 2016 and predicated result in Taiwan

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.

REFERENCES

Blake, A., Durbarry, R., Eugenio-Martin, J. L., Gooroochurn, N., Hay B., Lennon, J., Sinclair, M. T., Chen, C.C., Lai, Y.H., Petrick, J.F., & Lin, Y.H. (2006). Tourism between divided nations: An examination of stereotyping on destination image G. Sugiyarto& I. Yeoman, Integrating forecasting and CGE models: The case of tourism in Scotland, *Tourism Management*, 27(2), 292-305.

Deng, J. L. (1982). Control problems of grey system, *System and Control Letters*, l(5),288-294.

Deng, J. L. (2002). Elements of Grey System Theory, Wuhan: HUSTPress, (in Chinese).

Hsu, L. C. (2003). Applying the grey prediction model to the global integrated circuit industry, *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*, 70(6), 563-374.

Jaume R. & Andreu S. (2017). Yearly, monthly and weekly seasonality of tourism demand: A

Lewis, C. D. (1982). Industrial and Business Forecasting Methods: A Practical Guide to Exponential Smoothing and Curve Fitting, *Butterworth Scientific*, London.

Min, J. (2008a). Intervention analysis of inbound tourism: A case study of Taiwan, *Advances in Hospitality and Leisure*, 4, 53-74.

Min, J. (2008b). “Forecasting Japanese tourism demand in Taiwan using an intervention analysis, ” International Journal of Culture, *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 2(3), 197-216.

Song, H., Witt S. F.& Jensen, T. C. (2003). Tourism forecasting: Accuracy of alternative econometric models, *International Journal of Forecasting*, 19(2), 123-141.

Wang, Y. & Lim, C. (2005). Assessing forecasting modelsfor outbound Japanese travellers to Australia and China, *Journal of Applied Economics and Management*, 3(2), 1-15.

Xiankai, H., Lifeng, Z., & Yusi D. (2017). The Baidu Index: Uses in predicting tourism flows −A case study of the Forbidden City, *Tourism Management*, 58(1), 301-306.

Xin, L., Bing, P. C., Rob, L., Xiankai, H. (2017). Forecasting tourism demand with composite search index, *Tourism Management*, 59(2), 57-66.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This study is an extension of the NSC’s project (Grant No: NSC 98-2410-H-130-049). The authors are grateful for NSC's financial support.

INTERACTION BETWEEN SPATIAL PRICE STRATEGIES ON CONDITIONAL PROXIMITY IN LODGING MARKET

Youngseok Sim, Sejong University
Seulki Lee, Sejong University

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.

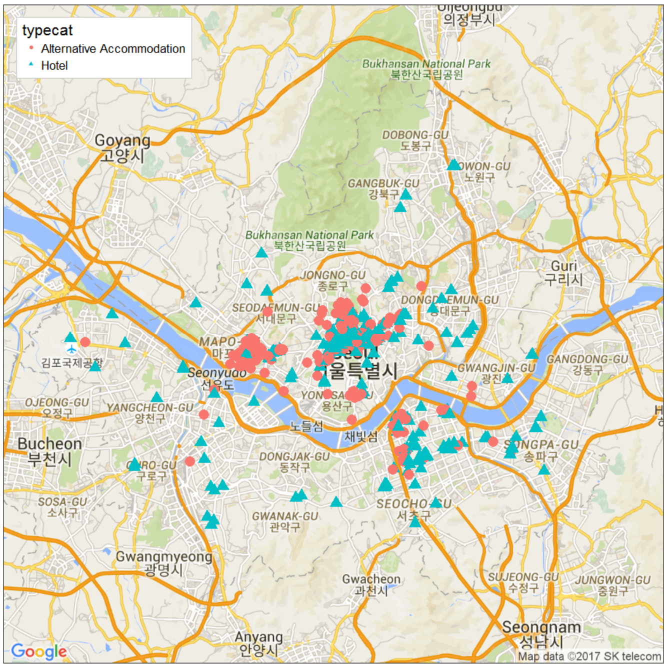


Figure 1. Spatial distribution of hotels in the Seoul lodging market

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):

(1)

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

(2)

where Ln(is n-by-1 vector of the natural logarithm of the difference between standard price and discount price used as the dependent variable. $\boldsymbol{W}$ 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 $\boldsymbol{W}$ 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

& deRoos, 1993). 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 (), 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 (. 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):

(3)

In this formula (2), pre-multiplying the $\boldsymbol{W}_{dis}$ matrix, created spatial weights matrix where the x-axis is the longitude and the y-axis is the latitude, into the dependent variable, Ln($PRICE_{strategy}$), 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 ρ, it can be interpreted as the strength of interaction of price strategy. Furthermore, in order to define the $\boldsymbol{W}_{\text{qual}}$ 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 λ can be interpreted as the strength of price strategy's interaction. Figure 2 illustrates the neighborhood scheme used, created based on the $\boldsymbol{W}$ matrix, connectivity among hotels as expressed by lines among the hotels.

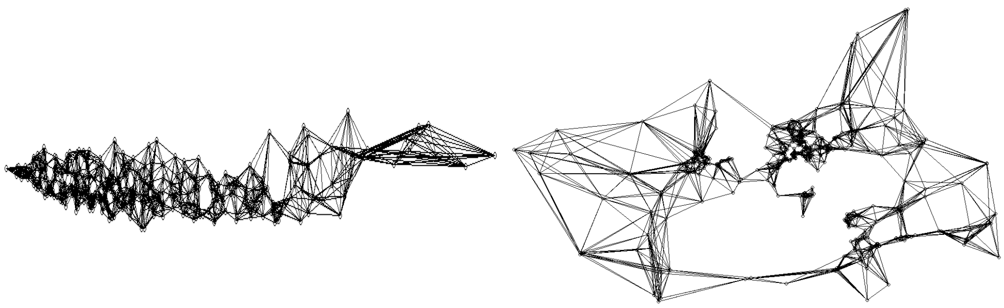


Figure 2. Conditional (quality vs. distance) neighborhood scheme of hotels (k=10)

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 1 shows the descriptive statistics of independent variables used.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Variables (N = 43,052)

Variables			Max	Min	Median
LIST PRICE	114.26	85.29	1000.50	12.60	99.37
SELL PRICE	61.63	48.32	717.72	10.07	114.26
PRICE DIFF	52.62	52.84	742.89	1.00	36.48
CLEANLINESS	7.97	1.10	10.00	2.00	8.10
LOCATION	8.28	0.99	10.00	2.00	8.40
SERVICE	8.12	1.05	10.00	2.00	8.20
FACILITIES	6.72	2.22	10.00	0.00	7.30
COMFOT&QUALITY	7.64	1.71	10.00	0.00	8.00
VALUEFORMONEY	7.95	0.97	10.00	2.00	8.00
FOOD&DINING	6.44	1.61	10.00	0.00	6.00
SINGLE	0.12	-	-	-	-
DOUBLE	0.12	-	-	-	-
TRIPLE	0.03	-	-	-	-
QUAD	0.01	-	-	-	-
INTERAIR	30.29	2.69	36.98	20.94	30.66
DOMEAIR	10.33	2.81	13.01	0.34	10.30
SUBWAY	0.47	0.20	1.53	0.11	0.43
BUS	0.23	0.16	1.31	0.01	1.31
HOSPITAL	1.14	0.69	6.10	0.99	0.95
PHARMACY	0.59	0.46	2.37	0.02	0.45
NROOM	76.83	110.69	680.00	7.00	420.00
NRESTAUR	0.80	1.03	11.00	0.00	0.80
NMAR	0.41	0.59	5.00	0.00	0.40

Abbrevations 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.

REFERENCES

Abdi, H., & Valentin, D. (2007). Multiple correspondence analysis. *Encyclopedia of measurement and statistics*, 651-657.

Abrate, G., Fraquelli, G., & Viglia, G. (2012). Dynamic pricing strategies: Evidence from European hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(1), 160-168.

Anselin, L. (1988). Lagrange multiplier test diagnostics for spatial dependence and spatial heterogeneity. *Geographical analysis*, 20(1), 1-17.

Anselin, L., & Hudak, S. (1992). Spatial econometrics in practice: A review of software options. *Regional* science *and urban economics*, 22(3), 509-536.

Bull, A. O. (1994). Pricing a motel's location. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality* Management, 6(6), 10-15.

Canina, L., Enz, C. A., & Harrison, J. S. (2005). Agglomeration effects and strategic orientations: Evidence from the US lodging industry. *Academy of management journal*, 48(4), 565-581.

Corgel, J. B. (1993). The ADR rule-of-thumb as predictor of lodging property values. *International Journal of Hospitality* Management, *12*(4), 353-365.

Enz, Cathy. A., Linda Canina, and Mark Lomano. (2009). Competitive Pricing in Uncertain Times. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 50 (3): 325-41.

Kalnins, Arturs. (2006). Markets: The U.S. Lodging Industry. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 20 (4): 203-18.

Kimes, S. E., & Chase, R. B. (1998). The strategic levers of yield management. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(2), 156-166.

Lee, S. K. (2015). Quality differentiation and conditional spatial price competition among hotels. *Tourism Management,* 46, 114-122.

Lee, S. K., & Jang, S. (2013). Asymmetry of price competition in the lodging market. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(1), 56-67.

Lee, S. K., & Jang, S. (2015). Conditional agglomeration externalities in lodging markets. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 39(4), 540-559.

Liu, Q., & Zhang, D. (2013). Dynamic pricing competition with strategic customers under vertical product differentiation. *Management Science*, 59(1), 84-101.

Noone, B. M., & Mattila, A. S. (2009). Hotel revenue management and the Internet: The effect of price presentation strategies on customers' willingness to book. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(2), 272-279.

Palamar, L.A., Edwards, V., 2007. Dynamic pricing: Friend of Foe. BTE Tourism Training and Consulting. *Buckhiester Management USA Inc.*, pp. 1–14

Pennerstorfer, D. (2009). Spatial price competition in retail gasoline markets: evidence from Austria. *The Annals of Regional Science*, 43(1), 133-158.

Pinkse, J., Slade, M. E., & Brett, C. (2002). Spatial price competition: a semiparametric approach. *Econometrica*, 70(3), 1111-1153.

Schuckert, M., Liu, X., & Law, R. (2015). Hospitality and tourism online reviews: Recent trends and future directions. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 32(5), 608-621.

Varian, H. R. (2010). Intermediate Microeconomics: A modern approach. New York, *NY : W.W.Norton & Company, Inc.*

THE IMPACT OF BRAND DIVERSIFICATION ON COST-SAVING EFFECT AND FIRM PERFORMANCE: U.S. RESTAURANT INDUSTRY

Hyewon Lee, University of Missouri
Eliza Ching-Yick Tse, University of Missouri

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. 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.

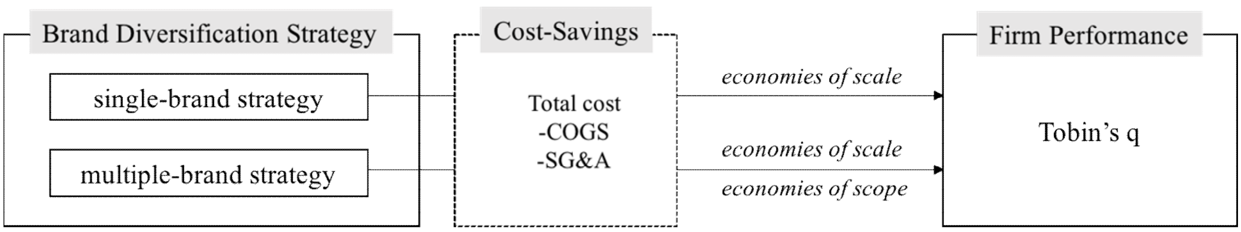


Figure 1. Research framework

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 internalization
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.

REFERENCES

Berger, P.G., and Ofek, E. (1995), ‘Diversification’s effect on firm value’, *Journal of Financial Economics*, Vol 37, No 1, pp 39–65.

Carter, J.R. (1977), ‘In search of synergy: a structure–performance test’, *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, Vol 59, No 3, pp 279–289.

Choi, K., Kang, K. H., Lee, S., & Lee, K. (2011). Impact of brand diversification on firm performance: a study of restaurant firms. *Tourism Economics*, 17(4), 885-903

Chung, K.H., and Pruitt, S.W. (1994), ‘A simple approximation of Tobin’s q’, *Financial Management*, Vol 23, No 3, pp 70–74.

Helfat, C. E., & Eisenhardt, K. M. (2004). Inter-temporal economies of scope, organizational modularity, and the dynamics of diversification. *Strategic Management Journal*, 25(13), 1217-1232.

Jose, M.L., Nichols, L.M., and Stevens, J.L. (1986), ‘Contribution of diversification, promotion, and R&D to the value of multiproduct firms: a Tobin’s q approach’, *Financial Management*, Vol 15, No 4, pp 33–42.

Kang, K.H. & Lee, S.K. (2015), Effects of diversification strategies on US restaurant firms' perform. *Tourism Economics*, 21(4), 807-831.

Lang, L.H.P., and Stulz, R.M. (1994), ‘Tobin’s q, corporate diversification, and firm performance’, *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol 102, No 6, pp 1248–1280.

Mankiw, N. G. (2014). *Principles of macroeconomics*. Cengage Learning.

Morgan, N.A., and Rego, L.L. (2009), ‘Brand portfolio strategy and firm performance’, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol 73, No 1, pp 59–74.

Palich, L.E., Cardinal, L.B., and Miller C.C. (2000), ‘Curvilinearity in the diversification- performance linkage: an examination of over three decades of research’, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol 21, No 2, pp 155–174.

Rhoades, S.A. (1973), ‘The effect of diversification on industry profit performance in 241 manufacturing industries: 1963’, *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, Vol 55, No 2, pp 146– 155.

Rumelt, R.P. (1986), Strategy, Structure, and Economic Performance, *Harvard Business School Press*, Boston, MA.

Tobin, J. (1969), A general equilibrium approach to monetary theory. *Journal of Money, Credit and Banking* 1, 15–29.

Wernerfelt, B., and Montgomery, C.A. (1988), ‘Tobin’s q and the importance of focus in firm performance’, *The American Economic Review*, Vol 78, No 1, pp 246–250.

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

Suphaporn Rattanaphinanchai, Siam University
Bongkosh N. Rittichainuwat, Siam University
Jin-Soo Lee, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

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 Mongkhnovanit, 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.

Table 4: Film Motivations Differences by Age

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Lost in Thailand	Between Groups	8.594	5	1.719	7.699	.000*
	Within Groups	161.406	723	.223		
	Total	170.000	728			
The Beach	Between Groups	4.465	5	.893	4.033	.001*
	Within Groups	160.114	723	.221		
	Total	164.579	728			

Note: Significant different at p. 0.01

As shown in table 4: there were significant differences respondents who watched “Lost in Thailand” and” 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 (χ^2 = 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.

FURTHER RESEARCH

Since the respondents of this study were international tourists but the tourism in Thailand is driven by both international and domestic tourists. Thus the author should conduct research on the perception and motivation of Thai tourists in visiting film shooting location as a future research.

REFERENCES

ADB (Asian Development Bank). 2008. Developing Tourism in the Greater Mekong Subregion’s Economic Corridors. *Journal of Greater Mekong Subregion Development Studies*, 4(59-75).

Beeton, S. (2005). *Film-induced tourism* (Vol. 25). Channel View Publications.

Beeton, S. (2010). The advance of film tourism. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, *7*(1), 1-6.

Busby, G., & Klug, J. (2001). Movie-induced tourism: The challenge of measurement and other issues. *Journal of vacation marketing*, *7*(4), 316-332.

Cohen, E. (1982). Marginal paradises: Bungalow tourism on the islands of Southern Thailand. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *9*(2), 189-228.

Connell, J. (2012). Film tourism–Evolution, progress and prospects. *Tourism Management, 33(5)* 1007-1029.

Crompton, J. L. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image.*Journal of travel research*, *17*(4), 18-23.

Crouch, G. I. (2010). Destination competitiveness: an analysis of determinant attributes. *Journal of Travel Research*.50(1), 27-45.

Esichaikul, R. (2012). Travel motivations, behavior and requirements of European senior tourists to Thailand. *PASOS, Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, *10*(2), 47-58.

Huang, S. (2010). Measuring Tourist Motivation: Do scales matter?.*An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, Spring: 153-162.

Hua, Y. &Yoo.J.J. (2011). Travel Motivations of Mainland Chinese Travelers to the United States. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 7: 355-376.

Horrigan, D. (2009). Branded content: A new model for driving tourism via film and branding strategies. *Tourismos*, *4*(3), 51-65.

Hudson, S., & Ritchie, J. B. (2006).Promoting destinations via film tourism: An empirical identification of supporting marketing initiatives. *Journal of Travel Research*, *44*(4), 387- 396.

Kim, S., & O'Connor, N. (2011). A cross-cultural study of screen-tourists' profiles. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, *3*(2), 141-158.

Kontogeorgopoulos, N. (2003). Keeping up with the Joneses Tourists, Travellers, and the Quest for Cultural Authenticity in Southern Thailand. *Tourist Studies*, *3*(2), 171-203.

Law, L., Bunnell, T., & Ong, C. E. (2007).The Beach, the gaze and film tourism. *Tourist Studies*, *7*(2), 141-164.

Li, L., & Zhang, W. (1997). Thailand: the dynamic growth of Thai tourism.*Tourism and economic development in Asia and Australia*, 286-303.

Lopes, S. D. F. (2011). Destination image: Origins, developments andimplications. *Pasos*, *9*(2), 305-315.

Macionis, N., & Sparks, B. (2009). Film-induced tourism: An incidental experience. *Tourism Review International*, *13*(2), 93-101.

McDowall, S., &Wang., Y. (2009). An Analysis of International Tourism Development in Thailand 1994-2007. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(4): 351-370.

Merwe, P.V.D., Slabbert, E., &Saayman., M. (2011). Travel Motivations of Tourists to Selected Marine Destinations. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13: 457-467

Riley, R., Baker, D., & Van Doren, C. S. (1998). Movie induced tourism.*Annals of tourism research*, *25*(4), 919-935.

Rittichainuwat, N.B., (2008). Responding to Disaster: Thai and Scandinavian Tourists' Motivation to Visit Phuket, Thailand.*Journal of Travel Research*, 46(4): 422-432.

Rittichainuwat, N.B.,Qu, H., & Brown, T. (2001). The image of Thailand as an international travel destination.*Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Quarterly*, 42(2): 82-95.

Rittichainuwat, N.B.,Qu, H., &Mongkhonvanit, C. (2007). A study of travel inhibitors on the likelihood of travelers to revisit Thailand. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 21(1): 77-87.

Rittichainuwat, B., Chakraborty, G., and Rattanaphinanchai, S. (2014). Tourists' motivations to travel during Financial Crisis. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality*, 15: 100-113.

Rittichainuwat, B., &Rattanaphinanchai, S. (2015). Applying a mixed method of quantitative and qualitative design in explaining the travel motivation of film tourists in visiting a film-shooting destination. *Tourism Management*, *46*, 136-147.

Sangpikul, A. (2008). A factor-cluster analysis of tourist motivations: A case of U.S. senior travelers. *Portal of Scientific journals of Croatia*, 56(1): 23-40.

Siri, R., Kennon, L., Josiam, & B, Spears, D. (2012).Exploring Indian Tourists' Motivation and Perception of Bangkok.*An International Multidisciplinary Journal of Tourism*, 7(1): 61-79.

Song, H., Witt, S. F., & Li, G. (2003).Modelling and forecasting the demand for Thaitourism. *Tourism Economics*, *9*(4), 363-387.

SPSS, I. (2011). IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 20.0. *New York: IBM Corp*.

Tooke, N., & Baker, M. (1996). Seeing is believing: the effect of film on visitor numbers to screened locations. *Tourism management*, *17*(2), 87-94.

Tourism Authority of Thailand (2013).Preliminary Statistical Report for 2013 – 2014.

Warnick, Rodney, B., Bojanic, David, C., and Siriangkul, A. (2005).Movie effects on the Image of Thailand among Foreign Student Travelers. Proceedings of the 2005 northeastern recreation research symposium;2005 April 10–12; Bolton Landing:355–364.

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, Caputi & 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, Hermsen, 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. Quaizon 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, Hermsen, 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 1 illustrate the ranking of countries that rank in top ten in terms of women managerial share from 2004 to 2012

Table 1 Women's percentage share of all managers ILO Latest years until 2012

Rank	Country	Year	Percentage
1	Jamaica	2008	59.3
2	Columbia	2010	53.1
3	Saint Lucia	2004	52.3
4	**Philippines**	2012	**47.6**
5	Panama	2012	47.4
6	Belarus	2009	46.2
7	Latvia	2012	45.7
8	Guatemala	2012	44.8
9	Bahamas	2009	44.4
10	Moldova	2012	44.1

Source: ILO Global Report Women and Business Management: Gaining Momentum, 2015 p. 14

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.

REFERENCES

Aguilar, D. (1998). The Feminist Challenge: Women in Political Economy.

Appelbaum, Audet, L., Miller, J.C. (2003) Gender and Leadership?Leadership and Gender? A Journey through the landscape of theories" Leadership and Organization Development Journal, Vol. 24 Issue 1 pp 43-51

Boone, J., Houran, J., Veller, T. 2013. "Rethinking A Glass Ceiling in the Hospitality Industry. Cornell Hospitaity Quarterly

Brown, M. L. 2010. "Examining Leadership and the Laminated Glass Ceiling: Gender and Leadership Traits" Proquest LLC

Chandler, Diane. 2011. "What Women Bring to the Exercise of Leadership". Journal of Strategic Leadership, Vol. 3 No. 2 pp. 1-12.

Cotter, D. A., Hermsen, J.M.,Ovadia,S. & Vanneman,R. 2001. "The Glass Ceiling Effect" University of North Carolina Press pp. 655 – 682

Eagly. A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002) Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. Psychological Review, 109, 573–598

Eviota, E.U. (1994). Sex and Gender in Philippine Society; A discussion of issues on the relations of men and women, National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women, Manila, Philippines

ILO, 2015. Women in Business Management: Gaining Momentum, ILO 2015

Kark, R. (2004). " the Transformational leader: who is (s)he? A feminist perspective" Journal of Organizational Change Management, Vol. 17 Issue 2, pp. 160 - 176

Kiaye, R.E. & Singh, A.M. (2013). *The glass ceiling: a perspective of women working in Durban,* Gender Management: An International Journal Vol. 28 No. 1 pp.28-42

Marinakou, E.2014. "Women in Hotel Management and Leadership: Diamond or Glass?" Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Management.Vol 2 No,1pp. 18-25

Patel, G. & Buiting, S. 2013 "Gender Differences in Leadership Styles and the Impact within Corporate Boards" Commonwealth Secretariat

Pounder, James S. 2002. "Do women really make better leaders than men?" Hong Kong Institute of Business Studies. Pp 1-16

Pounder, J.S. Coleman,M. (2002)."Women-better leaders than men? In general and educational management it still "all depends" ", Leadership and Organizational Development Journal, Vol. 23 Issue: 3 pp 122-133

Powell, G.N. (2012) "Six ways of seeing the elephant: the intersection of sex, gender and leadership", Gender in Management: An International Journal, Vol.27 Issue:2, pp. 119-141

Roffey, B. (2002). " Beyond Culture Centric and Gendered Models of management: Perspectives on Filipina Business Leadership", Women in Management Review, Vol. 17 Issue 8, pp.352–363

Schein, V.E. (2007) " Women in Management: Reflections and Projections", Women in Management Review Vol. 22 Issue 1 pp 6-18

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

Mawiah Sy, Sookmyung Women's University
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

Burns, N., Paterson, K. & Watson, N. (2009). An inclusive outdoors? Disabled people's experiences of countryside leisure services. Leisure Studies, 10(2),403-417.

Choi, G., & Lam, C. S. (2001). Korean students' differential attitudes toward people with disabilities: an acculturation perspective. International Journal of Rehabilitation Research, 24, 79-81.

Crawford, D., Jackson, E., & Godbey, G. (1991). A hierarchical model of leisure constraints.

Leisure Sciences, 13, 309-320.Daruwalla, P. & Darcy, S. (2005). Personal and societal attitudes to disability. Annals of Tourism Research, 32(3), 549-570.

Daruwalla, P. & Darcy, S. (2005). Personal and societal attitudes to disability. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (3), pages 549-570.

Department of Tourism. (2011, July 22). DOT vows integration of PWDs in tourism.

Retrieved from http://www.tourism.gov.ph/Pages/20110722DOTvowsintegrationofPWDsintourism.aspx

Findler, L., Vilchinsky, N. & Werner, B. (2007). The multidimensional attitudes scale toward persons with disabilities (MAS): Construction and validation. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin Sagepub, 50(30), 166-176.

Getachew, A.T. (2011). Attitudes of Ethiopian college students toward people with visible disabilities, (Dissertation). University of Iowa. Retrieved from http://ir.uiowa.edu/etd/1139

Grady, J. & Ohlin, J.B. (2009). Equal access to hospitality services for guests with mobility impairments under the Americans with Disabilities Act: Implications for the hospitality industry. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28(2009), 161-169.

Hernandez, B. (2004). Disability rights: Attitudes of private and public sector representatives.

Journal of Rehabilitation. Retrieved June 15, 2016, from http://eds.b.ebscohost.com/

Hernandez, B., Keys, C., & Belalcazar, F. (2000). Employer attitudes toward workers with disabilities and their ADA employment rights: A literature review. Journal of Rehabilitation, 66, 4-16.

Hunt, B., & Hunt, C., S. (2000). Attitudes toward people with disabilities: A comparison of undergraduate rehabilitation and business majors. *Rehabilitation Education,* 14, 269-283.

Kastenholz, E., Eusebio, C. & Figueiredo, E. (2015). Contributions of tourism to social inclusion of persons with disability. Disability & Society 30 (8), pp. 1259-1281.

Loi, K.I. & Kong, W.H. (2015). People with disabilities (PWD) in the tourism industry-

Concepts and issues. (Research). Institute for Tourism Studies. Retrieved from https://wp.nyu.edu/cts2015/wp-content/uploads/sites/657/2015/06/Loi-and-Kong.pdf

Mamboleo, G. (2009). Predictors of attitudes toward disability and employment policy issues among undergraduate students at the University of Nairobi (Dissertation). The University of Arizona. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/10150/193938

McKercher, B., Packer, T., Yau, M.K., & Lam, P. (2003). Travel agents as facilitators or inhibitors of travel: Perceptions of people with disabilities. Tourism Management, 24, 465-474. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0261517702001073

Palad, Y.Y. et al., (2016). Scoping review of instruments measuring attitudes toward disability. Disability and Health Journal, 9, pp. 354-374. Retrieved from http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1936657416300012

Thomas, A., Doyle, A., & Vaughn, D. (2007). Implementation of a computer based implicit association test as a measure of attitudes toward individuals with disabilities. Journal of Rehabilitation, 72, 3-14.

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2016). Disability at a Glance 2015: Strengthening employment prospects for persons with disabilities in Asia and the Pacific. Bangkok: United Nations. Retrieved from http://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/SDD%20Disability%20Glance%202015_Final.pdfUnited Nations Development Group. (2011). Including the rights of persons with disabilities in United Nations Programming at country level. Retrieved from http://www.un.org/disabilities/documents/iasg/undg_guidance_note_final.pdf

Uysal, M., Perdue, R., & Sirgy, J. (Eds.). (2012). Handbook of tourism and quality-of-life research: Enhancing the lives of tourists and residents of host communities. Springer Science & Business Media.

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

Choongbeom Choi, UNLV
Anna S. Mattila, Pennsylvania State University

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 powerfulness 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) × 2 (reference price: IRP vs. ERP) × 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).

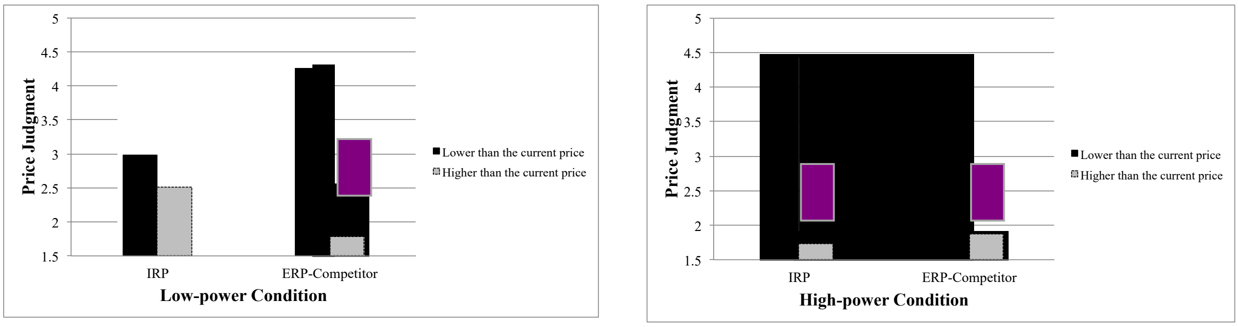


Figure 1. Interaction Effect of Reference Price and Price Level on Price Judgment in the High-power and Low-power Conditions

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.

REFERENCES

Briesch, R. A., Krishnamurthi, L., Mazumdar, T., & Raj, S. P. (1997). A comparative analysis of reference price models. Journal of Consumer Research, 24(2): 202-214.

Chen, C. Y. (2009). Who I am and how I think: The impact of self-construal on the roles of internal and external reference prices in price evaluations. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 19(3): 416-426.

Choi, C., and S. A. Mattila. (2014). The effects of promotion framing on consumers' price perceptions: The moderating role of a personal sense of power." Journal of Service Management, 25 (1): 149-160.

Galinsky, A. D., Magee, J. C., Gruenfeld, D. H., Whitson, J. A., & Liljenquist, K. A. (2008). Power reduces the press of the situation: implications for creativity, conformity, and dissonance. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 95(6), 1450-1466.

Galinsky, A. D., Rucker, D. D., & Magee, J. C. (2015). Power: Past Findings, Present Considerations, and Future Directions," in APA Handbook of Personality and Social Psychology, Vol. 3, Interpersonal Relationships, ed. M. Mikulincer, J. Simpson, and P. Shaver, Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Guinote, A. (2015). Social cognition of power. APA handbook of personality and social psychology, Volume 1: Attitudes and social cognition. APA handbooks in psychology., (pp. 547-569). Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association.

Jin, L., He, Y., & Zhang, Y. (2014). How Power States Influence Consumers' Perceptions of Price Unfairness. Journal of Consumer Research, 40(5): 818-33.

Karande, K., & Magnini, V. P. (2011). The relative use of contextual and temporal reference price components in hotel and airline purchases. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 35(1): 119-141.

Lee, A. Y. (2013). A Closer look at reference price: A commentary. AMS review, 3(3): 151-154.

Magee, J. C., & A. D. Galinsky. (2008). 8 Social Hierarchy: The Self-Reinforcing Nature of Power and Status. The Academy of Management Annals, 2 (1): 351-398.

Mazumdar, T., & Papatla, P. (2000). An investigation of reference price segments. Journal of Marketing

Research, 37(2): 246-258.

Monroe, K. B. (1973). Buyers' subjective perceptions of price. Journal of Marketing Research, 10(1): 70-80.

Ofir, C., Raghubir, P., Brosh, G., Monroe, K. B., & Heiman, A. (2008). Memory-based store price judgments: the role of knowledge and shopping experience. Journal of Retailing, 84(4): 414-423.

Rucker, D. D., Preacher, K. J., Tormala, Z. L., & Petty, R. E. (2011). Mediation analysis in social psychology: Current practices and new recommendations. Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 5(6): 359-371.

Viglia, G., A. Mauri, & M. Carricano. (2016). The exploration of hotel reference prices under dynamic pricing scenarios and different forms of competition." International Journal of Hospitality Management, 52: 46-55.

THE EFFECTS OF COMPLAINT TENDENCY ON SERVICE RECOVERY EFFORTS

Gumkwang Bae, Dong-Eui University
Dae-Young Kim, University of Missouri

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-Casielles 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] and frequency of compensation [one- or two-time compensation within same budget]) 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.

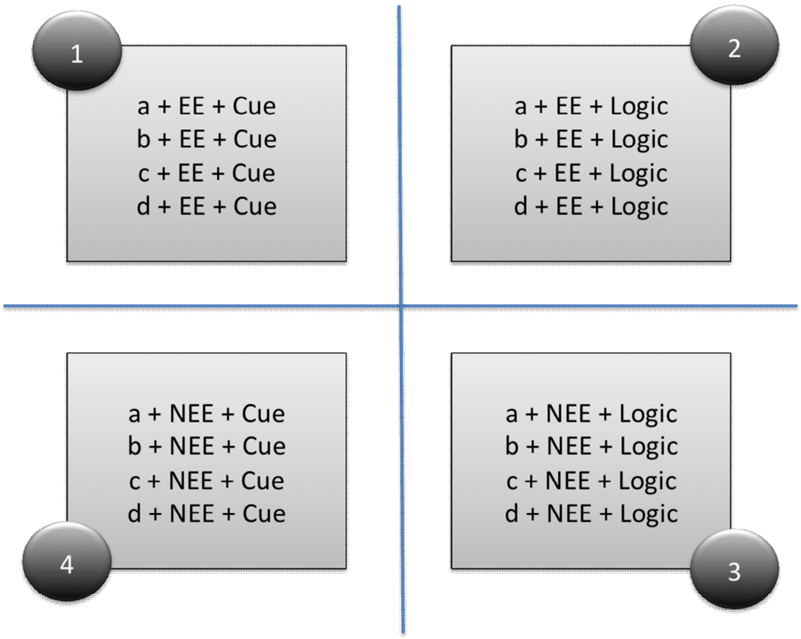
Instrument

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 Maholanobis 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

REFERENCES

Bitner, M.J., Booms, B.H., Mohr, L.A. (1990). The service encounter, diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. Journal of Marketing, 54, 71-84.

Blodgett, J.G., Hill. D.J., & Tax, S.S. (1997). The effects of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice on post-complaint behavior. Journal of Retailing, 73(2), 185-210.

Bodey, K., & Grace, D. (2006). Segmenting service "complainers" and "non-complainers" on the basis of consumer characteristics. Journal of Service Marketing 20(3), 178-187.

Boshoff, C., & Leong, J. (1998). Empowerment, attribution and apologizing as dimensions of service recovery: An experimental study. International Journal of Service Industry Management 9(1), 24-47.

Chebat, J. C., Charlebois, M., & Gélinas-Chebat, C. (2001). What makes open vs. closed conclusion advertisements more persuasive? The moderating role of prior knowledge and involvement. Journal of Business Research, 53(2), 93-102.

Galitsky, B.A., Kovalerchuk, B., & de la Rossa, J.L. (2011). Assessing plausibility of explanation and meta-explanation in inter-human conflicts. Engineering Applications of Artificial Intelligence, 24(8), 1472-1486.

Hocutt, M.A., & Stone, T.H. (1998). The impact of employee empowerment on the quality of a service recovery effort. Journal of Quality Management 3(1), 117-132.

Hoffman, K.D., Kelley, S.W., & Rotalsky, H.M. (1995). Tracking service failures and employee recovery efforts. Journal of Services Marketing, 9(2), 49-61.

Huang, W-.H., Lin, T-.D. (2011). Developing effective service compensation strategies: Is a price reduction more effective than a free gift? Journal of Service Management, 22(2), 202-216.

Kim, N., & Ulgado, F. M. (2012). The effect of on-the-spot versus delayed compensation: the moderating role of failure severity. Journal of Service Marketing, 26(3), 158-167.

Maxham III, J. G., & Netemeyer, R. G. (2002). A longitudinal study of complaining customers' evaluations of multiple service failures and recovery efforts. Journal of Marketing, 66(4), 57-71.

Ohbuchi, K.–I., & Kameda, M. (1989). Apology as aggression control: Its role in mediating appraisal of and response to harm. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 56(2), 219-227.

Ok, C. (2004). The effectiveness of service recovery and its role in building long-term relationships with customers in a restaurant setting (Doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University).

Okimoto, T.G. (2008). Outcomes as affirmation of membership vale: Material compensation as an administrative response to procedural injustice. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 44, 1270-1282.

Richins, M.L. (1983). An analysis of consumer interaction styles in the marketplace. Journal of Consumer Research, 10, 73-82.

Smith, A. K., Bolton, R. N., & Wagner, J. (1999). A model of customer satisfaction with service encounters involving failure and recovery. Journal of marketing research, 356-372.

Tsai, C.–T., & Su, C.–S. (2009). Service failure and recovery strategies of chain restaurants in Taiwan. The Service Industries Journal, 29(12), 1779-1796.

Tsarenko, Y., & Tojib, D.R. (2011). A transactional model of forgiveness in the service failure context: a customer-driven approach. Journal of Services Marketing, 25(5), 381–392.

Vazquez-Casielles, R., Iglesias, V., & Varela-Neira, C. (2012). Service recovery, satisfaction and behavior intentions: analysis of compensation and social comparison communication strategies. The Service Industries Journal, 32(1), 83-103.

Wirtz, J., & Mattila, A.S. (2004). Consumer responses to compensation, speed of recovery and apology after a service failure. International Journal of Service Industry Management, 15(2), 150-66.

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

Mia Fey P. Atendido-Esteva, San Sebastian College-Recoletos
Mario H. Maranan, San Sebastian College-Recoletos
Cristine A. Basco Shaira, San Sebastian College-Recoletos
Kathrina N. Lastrollo, San Sebastian College-Recoletos
Ana Nicole V. Malapote, San Sebastian College-Recoletos

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.

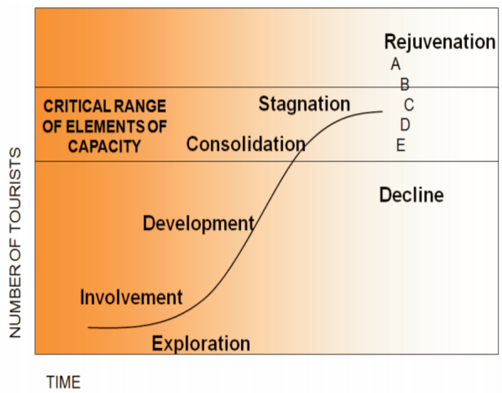
It is significant to note that the Umbrella Rocks have been showing indications of its potentialities as a tourist destination in Pangasinan. Given the utmost attention and considering the financial resources of the Local Government Unit, there is no reason why the beauty of Umbrella Rocks cannot be 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.

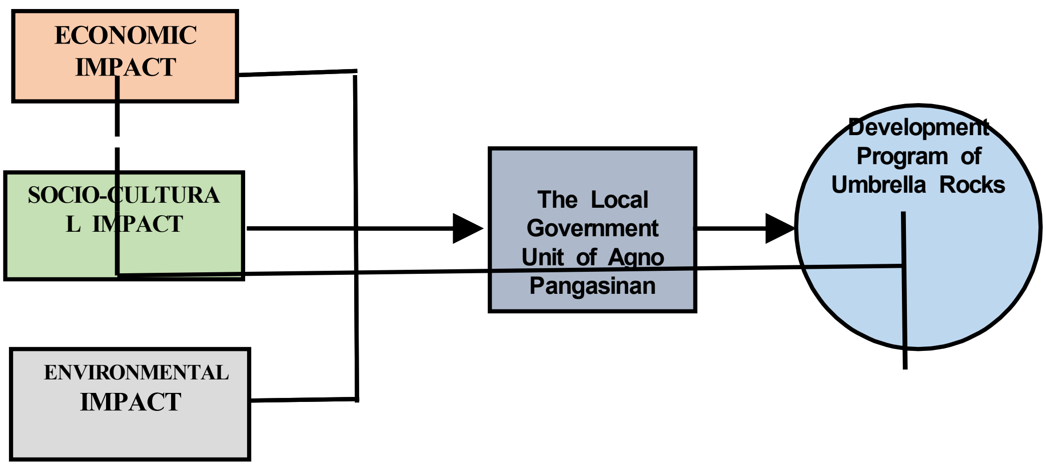
Through this scholarly paper, the researchers wish to comprehend the viability of efforts of the Local Government Unit in developing Umbrella Rocks in Agno Pangasinan as a major tourist destination of the Northern part of the Philippines.

Theoretical Framework



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.

REFERENCES

Journals

Campbell, Lisa M. (1999) Ecotourism in Rural Developing Communities University of Western Ontario, Canada Annals of Tourism Research, Vol. 26, No. 3, pp. 534±553, 1999

Choi, Hwan SUk and Sirakay, Erkan (ND) "Sustainability Indicators for Managing Community Tourism".

Dev, Sudipta (2013). Holistic approach to sustainable tourism. Athena Information Solutions Pvt. Ltd.. Express Travel World. http;//www.expresstravelworld.com. *Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*. Web. 16 Nov. 2015. URL http://go.galegroup.com/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA33

Gunn, C. 1994. Tourism Planning: Basics, Concepts, Cases. Third Edition.

Imperial Jr. Demetrio. (retrieved 2015) Introducing participatory planning practices with local governments: A Philippines case study, Demetrio Imperial Jr., Philippines

Isaac Manu, , Kuuder, Conrad-J.Wuleka (2012) Community-Based Ecotourism and Livelihood Enhancement in Sirigu, Ghana. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol. 2 No. 18; October 2012*

Kuuder,Conrad-J.Wuleka. (2013) Livelihood Enhancement through Ecotourism; A case of MognoriEcovillage near Mole National Park, Damongo, Ghana University for Development Studies Department of Ecotourism and Environmental Management ..*International Journal of Business and Social Science Vol. 4 No. 4; April 2013*

Mitchell Mathis and Daniel Matisoff (2004) A Characterization of Ecotourismin the Texas Lower Rio Grande Valley Houston Advanced Research Center

Sander, Ben (2010) The Importance of Education in Ecotourism Ventures. Substantial Research Paper American University

United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, "Investment in the sustainable management of natural resources: Emerging opportunities and policies", E/ESCAP/MCED(6)/8, A Note by the Secretariat at the Ministerial Conference on Environment and Development in Asia and the Pacific, Astana, 27 September-2 October 2010. Available from ww.unescap.org/mced6/documents/Documents/MCED 6_8E.pdf (accessed 24 February 2012).

Watkin, John R. (2003). S u m m a ry of the Proceedings of the East Africa Regional Conference on Ecotourism. The Evolution of Ecotourism in East Africa: From an idea to an industry. IIED Wildlife and Development Series No. 15, June 2003

Online Sources

International Ecotourism Society (TIES)
Overview of Ecotourism (Ecological Tourism)

http://www.infobarrel.com/Advantages_and_Disadvantages_of_Ecotourism Jul 17, 2012 Edited Dec 5, 2015

Koens, J., Dieperink, C. and Miranda, M. (2009) Ecotourism as a Development Strategy: Experiences from Costa Rica. Environment, Development & Sustainability, 11, 1225. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10668-009-9214-3

Other Sources

1987 Philippine Constitution

RA 9593. Tourism Act of 2009

A Joint Document of the World Bank and the Asian Development Bank. DECENTRALIZATION IN THE PHILIPPINES DECENTRALIZATION IN THE PHILIPPINES Strengthening Local Government Financing and Resource Management in the Short Term Strengthening Local Government Financing and Resource Management in the Short Term. March 31, 2005

HOW TO ENGAGE JOB SEEKERS IN HOTELS' FACEBOOK CAREER SITES

Yi-Sung Cheng, University of Missouri
Seonghee Cho, University of Missouri

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 Ouirdi 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.

REFERENCES

Barron, P. (2008). Education and talent management: Implications for the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 20*(7), 730-742.

Berg, B. L. (2009). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Bolton, R. N., Parasuraman, A., Hoefnagels, A., Migchels, N., Kabadayi, S., Gruber, T., Loureiro, Y. K., & Solnet, D. (2013). Understanding Generation Y and their use of social media: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Service Management, 24*(3), 245-267.

Camprubí, R., & Coromina, L. (2016). Content analysis in tourism research. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 18*, 134-140.

Chang, W., & Medera, J. M. (2012). Using social network sites for selection purposes: An investigation of hospitality recruiters. J*ournal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 11*(3), 183-196.

Cho, J., Park, D. J., & Ordonez, Z. (2013). Communication-oriented person–organization fit as a key factor of job-seeking behaviors: Millennials' social media use and attitudes toward organizational social media policies. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 16*(11), 794-799.

Dessart, L., Veloutsou, C., & Morgan-Thomas, A. (2015). Consumer engagement in online brand communities: A social media perspective. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 24*(1), 28-42.

Dijkmans, C., Kerkhof, P., & Beukeboom, C. J. (2015). A stage to engage: Social media use and corporate reputation. *Tourism Management, 47*, 58-67.

El Ouirdi, M., El Ouirdi, A., Segers, J., & Pais, I. (2016). Technology adoption in employee recruitment: The case of social media in Central and Eastern Europe. *Computers in Human Behavior, 57*, 240-249.

Gibbs, C., MacDonald, F., & MacKay, K. (2015). Social media usage in hotel human resources: Recruitment, hiring and communication. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 27*(2), 170-184.

Gironda, J. T., & Korgaonkar, P. K. (2014). Understanding consumers' social networking site usage. *Journal of Marketing Management, 30*(5-6), 571-605.

Kolbe, R. H., & Burnett, M. S. (1991). Content analysis research: An examination of applications with directives for improving research reliability and objectivity. *Journal of Consumer Research, 18*, 243-250.

Krippendorff, K. (2004). *Content analysis: an introduction to its methodology*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications Inc.

Ladkin, A., & Buhalis, D. (2016). Online and social media recruitment: Hospitality employer and prospective employee considerations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 28*(2), 327-345.

Lim, J. S., Hwang, Y., Kim, S., & Biocca, F. A. (2015). How social media engagement leads to sports channel loyalty: Mediating roles of social presence and channel commitment. *Computers in Human Behavior, 46*, 158-167.

Luchman, J. N., Bergstrom, J., & Krulikowski, C. (2014). A motives framework of social media website use: A survey of young Americans. *Computers in Human Behavior, 38*, 136-141.

Madera, J. M. (2012). Using social networking websites as a selection tool: The role of selection process fairness and job pursuit intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(4), 1276-1282.

Paniagua, J., & Sapena, J. (2014). Business performance and social media: Love or hate? *Business Horizons, 57*(6), 719-728.

Parveen, F., Jaafar, N. I., & Ainin, S. (2015). Social media usage and organizational performance: Refl ections of Malaysian social media managers. *Telematics and Informatics, 32*(1), 67-78.

Pew Research Center (2016). Social media update 2016. Retrieved from http://www.pewinternet.org/2016/11/11/social-media-update-2016/

Pew Research Center (2017). Social media fact sheet. Retrieved from http://www.pewinternet.org/fact-sheet/social-media/

Pring, C. (2012). 100 social media statistics for 2012. Retrieved from http://thesocialskinny.com/100-social-media-statistics-for-2012/

Statista (2016). United States: Number of social network users 2015-2021. Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/statistics/278409/number-of-social-network-users-in-the-united-states/

Stone, D. L., Deadrick, D. L., Lukaszewski, K. M., & Johnson, R. (2015). The influence of technology on the future of human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review, 25*, 216-231.

Vitouladiti, O. (2014). Content analysis as a research tool for marketing, management and development strategies in tourism. *Procedia Economics and Finance, 9*, 278-287.

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

Ryan Joseph Calinao, Lyceum of the Philippines University-Laguna

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.

REFERENCES

Yi, S., Jonathon, G., &Liping, A. (2011). Exploring Asian Cruise Tavelers' Travel Experience and Perceptions.

PERCEIVED LEARNING IN INTERNATIONAL CRUISE: BASIS FOR PROGRAM ENHANCEMENT

Ryan Joseph G. Calinao, Lyceum of the Philippines University

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 especial 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

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

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

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

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

Variables	Pearson Chi-square Value	P-value	Interpretation
1. I can apply the different principles and techniques in basic food preparation and cooking	2.632ᵃ	.853	Not Significant
2. I can dramatize hotel practices in managing customer complaints.	5.915ᵃ	.433	Not Significant
3. I can demonstrate hotel practices in managing demand and supply.	10.820ᵃ	.094	Not Significant
4. I can simulate passenger/crew drills onboard the ship.	12.283ᵃ	.198	Not Significant
5. I can display proper donning of the life jacket.	12.623ᵃ	.180	Not Significant
6. I can plot shore excursion activities.	3.832ᵃ	.922	Not Significant
7. I can demonstrate to prepare and serve basic foods attractively and efficiently.	8.528ᵃ	.202	Not Significant
8. I can read globes and maps.	3.139ᵃ	.959	Not Significant
9. I can create PPT (PowerPoint presentation) and AV (Audio Visual) presentation.	7.983ᵃ	.536	Not Significant
10. I can apply skills in food & beverage and housekeeping.	11.791ᵃ	.225	Not Significant

egend: p-value (Asymp. Sig) is <.05 = significant relationship; p-value (Asymp. Sig) is >.05 = no gnificant 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

Commision in Higher Education, Memorandum Order 17 series 2012. “Policies and guidelines on educational tours and field trips of college and graduate students.”Retrievedn January 20, 2016 from http//www.ched.gov.ph/wpa–content/uploads/2013/07/CMO-NO.17-s2012.pdf

Gopalan, S. (2009). The role of study trips in educational. Retrieved January 20, 2016 from http://www.journal.kfionline.org/issue-7/the-role-of-study-trips-in-education

Gretzel, U. and Jamal T. (2009). Teaching international tourism: an interdisciplinary, field based course. Journal of teaching in travel and tourism, 8(2-3) 261-282. Retrieved http://journalssfu.ca/liu/index.php/HLRC/article/download/19/40.

Lyceum of the Philippines University – Laguna (2016), retrieved on January 20, 2016 from http://lpulaguna.edu.ph/about-lpu-laguna/

Morris, A. (2014). Benefits of educational field trips. Retrieved January 20, 2016 from http://www.ehow.com/facts_5518764_benefits-educatoinal-field trips.html

Salaria N. (2012). International journal of transformations in business management meaning of the term-descriptive survey research method. Retrieved fromhttp://www.ijtbm.com/webmaster/upload/apr_2012_NEERU%20SALAA%202.pdf

Crump, J.A., and Sugraman, J. (2008 Ethical consideration for short term experiences by training improve health jama, 300(12),1456-1458.

Dermot, Kehoe (2011) Practice makes perfect: The importance of practical learning. Educational psychology interactive. Valdosta, GA: Valdosta State University

Goh, E. (2011). The value and benefits of fieldtrips in tourism and hospitality education. Higher learning research communications, 1(1), 60-70.

Huang, J Jia (2010). Factors affecting internships satisfaction: Based on organizational socializations theory.

Lohmann, G. (2014). Learn while cruising: experiential learning opportunities for tourism and hospitality higher education.

Pitman, T., Broomhall, S., McEwan, J., & Majocha, E. (2010). Adult learning in educational tourism. Australian journal of adult learning, 50(2), 219-238.

Shakil, A. F., Faizi, W. U. N., & Hafeez, S. (2011). The need and importance of field trips at higher level in Karachi, Pakistan. International journal of academic research in business and social sciences, 1(2), 1-16.

Vojvodic, K., Gurtov, V., Kekkonen, A., Sigova, S., Eftimov, L., Sokolova, O., Chernoshtan, Z. educational cruises–tourism products promoting learning. International scientific publications, 4.

Strauch, C. C., & Al Omar, M. J. (2014). Critical analysis of learning theories and ideologies and their impact on learning:“Review Article”. The online journal of counseling and education, 3(2), 62-77.

Huitt, W. (2011). Bloom et al.'s taxonomy of the cognitive domain.

TRAVEL INNOVATION THROUGH SOCIAL MEDIA USING SMART GADGETS

Jaivie Del Socorro, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
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 EXPEREICNES

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

	Mean		Std. Deviation	
	Internship	Part-time job	Internship	Part-time job
Interpersonal skills	5.74	5.38	1.004	0.937
Technical skills	5.11	4.84	1.325	1.171
Communication with customers	5.95	5.99	1.095	0.916
Time management	5.49	5.18	1.299	1.176
Team Spirit	5.51	5.10	1.375	1.304
Problem solving	5.68	5.60	1.151	0.903
Operaional skills	5.76	4.46	1.270	1.799
Leadership	4.28	3.84	1.512	1.586
Planning & orgainzing your work	5.26	4.95	1.115	1.206
Proficiency in written English/Chinese	4.71	4.74	1.475	1.440
Oral Communication in Englush/Chinese	5.94	5.40	1.045	1.232
Prioritize your job task	5.55	4.78	1.105	1.134
Initiative	5.52	5.07	1.119	1.124
Follow supervisors'instruction/orders	6.02	5.52	0.917	1.215
Perform job tasks independently	5.75	5.51	0.950	1.162
Getting along with colleagues	5.79	5.30	0.984	1.960
Satisfaction	5.18	5.19	1.213	0.925

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=.917) 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 internship 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 job 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).

Table 2. Analysis of the job skills among 2 groups of studnets

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Interpersonal skills	Equal variances assumed	.371	.543	2.708	241	.007	.36733	.13564	.10015	.63452
	Equal variances not assumed			2.737	161.604	.007	.36733	.13419	.10234	.63232
Technical skills	Equal variances assumed	1.557	.213	1.461	219	.145	.27126	.18569	-.09470	.63722
	Equal variances not assumed			1.530	147.564	.128	.27126	.17727	-.07905	.62157
Communication with Customers	Equal variances assumed	1.066	.303	-.256	233	.798	-.03716	.14520	-.32322	.24891
	Equal variances not assumed			-.272	173.921	.786	-.03716	.13637	-.30631	.23200
Time management	Equal variances assumed	.410	.523	1.687	203	.093	.31273	.18541	-.05284	.67830
	Equal variances not assumed			1.717	117.758	.089	.31273	.18213	-.04795	.67340
Team Spirit	Equal variances assumed	1.332	.250	2.007	216	.046	.39883	.19876	.00707	.79059
	Equal variances not assumed			2.048	132.958	.043	.39883	.19472	.01368	.78398
Problem solving skills	Equal variances assumed	1.411	.236	.502	231	.616	.07486	.14912	-.21896	.36867
	Equal variances not assumed			.543	190.732	.587	.07486	.13776	-.19687	.34658
Operaional skills	Equal variances assumed	13.192	.000	5.746	202	.000	1.29247	.22492	.84898	1.73596
	Equal variances not assumed			4.932	76.701	.000	1.29247	.26206	.77062	1.81433
Leadership	Equal variances assumed	.507	.478	1.507	135	.134	.44072	.29249	-.13772	1.01917
	Equal variances not assumed			1.475	64.371	.145	.44072	.29880	-.15612	1.03757
Planning & orgainzing your work	Equal variances assumed	.069	.793	1.752	201	.081	.31291	.17864	-.03934	.66515
	Equal variances not assumed			1.686	94.799	.095	.31291	.18564	-.05564	.68145
Proficiency in written English/Chinese	Equal variances assumed	.130	.718	-.138	167	.890	-.03412	.24687	-.52150	.45327
	Equal variances not assumed			-.140	94.120	.889	-.03412	.24446	-.51948	.45125
Oral Communication in Englush/Chinese	Equal variances assumed	5.193	.024	3.367	224	.001	.53590	.15915	.22226	.84953
	Equal variances not assumed			3.163	115.384	.002	.53590	.16942	.20033	.87147
Prioritize your job task	Equal variances assumed	.029	.866	4.085	187	.000	.76984	.18847	.39804	1.14164
	Equal variances not assumed			4.031	74.502	.000	.76984	.19098	.38935	1.15033
Initiative	Equal variances assumed	.107	.744	2.417	185	.017	.45961	.19013	.08450	.83472
	Equal variances not assumed			2.412	76.245	.018	.45961	.19057	.08008	.83913
Follow supervisors'instruction/orders	Equal variances assumed	4.793	.030	3.457	230	.001	.49832	.14417	.21426	.78238
	Equal variances not assumed			3.121	111.171	.002	.49832	.15969	.18189	.81475
Perform job tasks independently	Equal variances assumed	3.117	.079	1.564	211	.119	.23873	.15264	-.06217	.53963
	Equal variances not assumed			1.441	98.426	.153	.23873	.16569	-.09005	.56752
Getting along with colleagues	Equal variances assumed	3.239	.073	3.224	221	.001	.49085	.15224	.19082	.79088
	Equal variances not assumed			3.000	113.457	.003	.49085	.16361	.16672	.81498
Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	2.254	.135	-.065	248	.948	-.00975	.15055	-.30628	.28677
	Equal variances not assumed			-.071	210.232	.944	-.00975	.13796	-.28172	.26221

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=0.003, $p<.05$) 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

Aggett, M., & Busby, G. (2011). Opting out of internship: Perceptions of hospitality, tourism and events management undergraduates at a British University. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports & Tourism Education, 10(1), 106-113

Chen, T.L. & Shen, C.C. (2012). Today’s intern, tomorrow’s practitioner? – The influence of internship programmes on students’ career development in the hospitality industry. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 11(1), 29-40.

Chuang, N.K., & Jenkins, M.D. (2010). Career decision making and intention: A study of hospitality undergraduate students. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 34(4), 512-530.

Davies, L. (1990). Experience-based learning within the curriculum: A synthesis study. Sheffield, UK: Community Nurse Audiometrists Association Press.

Fong, L.H.N., Lee, H.A., Luk, C. & Law, R. (2014). How do hotel and tourism students select internship employers? A segmentation approach. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 15, 68-79.

Gault, J., Redington, J., & Schlager T. (2000). Undergraduate business internships and career success: Are they related? Journal of Marketing Education, 22(1), 45-53.

Jiang, B., & Tribe, J. (2010). ‘Tourism jobs – Short lived professions’: Student attitudes towards tourism careers in China. Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, 9(1), 4-19.

Raybould, M., & Wilkins, H., (2006). Generic skills for hospitality management: A comparative study of management expectations and student perceptions. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 13(2), 177-188.

Siu, G., Cheung, C., & Law, R. (2012). Developing a conceptual framework for measuring future career intention of hotel interns. Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 12(2), 188-215.

Tse, T.S.M. (2010). What do hospitality students find important about internships? Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 10(3), 251-264.

Yiu, M. & Law, R. (2012). A review of hospitality internship: Different perspectives of students, employers, and educators. Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism, 12, 337-402.

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 beenexperiencing labor shortages whereas developing countries such 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 of 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, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2013; Mok et al, 1998; Park & Gursoy, 2012; Solnet & Hood, 2008; Walsh & Taylor, 2007; White, 2005, 2006). Some scholars also related work values to other constructs such as organizational commitment (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2001), decision making (Shafer et al., 2001), and national culture (Mangundjaya, 2010). However, few researchers have investigated the 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 organizationalvalues 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 thetype 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 opposedto 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 wereperceived distinctively 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 1. The LWVS 25-item format

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

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 otherssuch as recognition and authority

METHOD

Survey Instrument

The present study has adoptedthe 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 indicatethe 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 measuringall 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 studyis 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 renownedleisure 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 fromemployees working in the 4-star hotels (55.9%) and 5-star hotels (44.1%) located in Surabaya (58.9%) and Bali (41.1%).

Table 2. Demographic Profile of the Respondents (N=358)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	198	55.3
Female	160	44.7
Age (years)		
< 22	23	6.4
22-36	244	68.2
37-51	91	25.4
Educational level		
Junior/senior high school	81	22.6
Diploma	145	40.5
Undergraduate	132	36.9
Marital status		
Married	191	53.4
Not married	167	46.6
Religion		
Moslem	173	48.3
Christian/Catholic	86	24.0
Hindu	94	26.3
Buddha/Confucius	4	1.1
Type of Hotel		
4-star hotels	200	55.9
5-star hotels	158	44.1
Hotel Location		
Surabaya	211	58.9
Bali	147	41.1
Job Position		
Staff	170	47.5
Supervisor	85	23.7
Junior Manager	44	12.3
Senior Manager	41	11.5
Others	18	5.0

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 meansthat 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

Dimension	Overall Mean		Mean by hotel location			
			Surabaya		Bali	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Instrumental	4.12	0.837	4.02	0.805	4.26	0.863
The assurance of Job security	4.38	0.753	4.30	0.739	4.50	0.762
Benefits to meet personal needs	4.35	0.766	4.29	0.722	4.44	0.820
Good salary	4.29	0.787	4.19	0.788	4.43	0.767
Balance work life	4.21	0.858	4.14	0.825	4.31	0.896

Dimension	Overall Mean		Mean by hotel location			
			Surabaya		Bali	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Convenient hours of work	4.12	0.861	4.02	0.848	4.27	0.863
Constructive feedback	4.09	0.805	4.01	0.750	4.20	0.868
Access to the Information needed	4.08	0.793	4.03	0.752	4.15	0.847
Recognition for a job well done	3.85	0.944	3.69	0.900	4.09	0.957
Supportive Supervisor	3.72	0.966	3.55	0.921	3.95	0.985
Cognitive	3.91	0.885	3.79	0.880	4.08	0.866
Career Advancement	4.24	0.811	4.13	0.821	4.39	0.772
Continuously learn	4.20	0.834	4.08	0.815	4.38	0.830
Achievement in accomplishment	4.04	0.867	3.91	0.846	4.21	0.870
Use ability	3.87	0.849	3.74	0.846	4.04	0.827
Interesting, exciting, and engaging	3.78	1.000	3.65	1.010	3.97	0.958
Challenge abilities	3.77	0.867	3.67	0.847	3.90	0.878
Variety in work activities	3.73	0.899	3.61	0.901	3.90	0.871
Freedom to make decisions	3.68	0.953	3.53	0.953	3.88	0.918
Social/Altruistic	3.97	0.888	3.88	0.892	4.10	0.863
Lively and fun working environment	4.14	0.862	4.02	0.894	4.31	0.783
Friendly co-workers	4.07	0.920	3.95	0.947	4.25	0.851
Social interaction	3.85	0.920	3.76	0.900	3.97	0.936
Help people	3.83	0.849	3.79	0.825	3.88	0.883
Prestige	3.44	1.013	3.36	0.990	3.54	1.069
Significant impact on the organization	3.97	0.858	3.91	0.829	4.05	0.894
Influence organizational outcomes	3.59	0.944	3.50	0.968	3.71	1.020
Authority to organize	3.35	1.020	3.29	0.984	3.44	1.067
Prestigious and regarded highly by others	2.84	1.230	2.75	1.178	2.97	1.295

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-starhotel) 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 values 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).

Table 4. Mann-Whitney Test Results for Work Values

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

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

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 5. Kruskal Wallis Results for Work Values

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

*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 enhancedunderstanding 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 performancebased 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 providinga greater understanding of work values across various departments and job levels in Indonesia's hotel industry.

REFERENCES

Ali, A.J. and Al-Kazemi, A. (2005). The Kuwaiti manager: Work values and orientations. Journal of Business Ethics, 60, 63-73.

Aritonang, M.S. and Razak, I. (2016, January 14). Indonesia challenged to benefit from AEC. The Jakarta Post. Retrieved from https://global.factiva.com/ha/default.aspx#./!?&_suid=14579606632170765285584865068

Brown, D. (2002). The role of work and cultural values in occupational choice, satisfaction, and success: A theoretical statement. Journal of Counseling & Development, 80, 48-55.

Cennamo, L., and Gardner, D., 2008. Generational differences in work values, outcomes and person-organisation values fit. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 23 (8), 891–906.

Chen, J. S., Chu, K. H.-L., and Wu, W. C. (2000). Tourism students' perceptions of work values: a case of Taiwanese universities. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 12(6), 360–365.

Chen, P. and Choi, Y. (2008). Generational differences in work values: a study of hospitality management. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 20 (6), 595 – 615.

Davidson, M.C.G., Timo, N. and Wang, Y. (2010). How much does labour turnover cost? A study of four and five star hotels. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 22 (4), 1-31.

DeCooman, R., andDries, N. (2012). Attracting generation Y: How work values predict organizational attraction in graduating students in Belgium. In E. S. Ng, S. T. Lyons, & L. Schweitzer (Eds.), Managing the new workforce: International perspectives on the millennial generation (pp. 42–63). Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Dose, J.J. (1997), Work values: An integrative framework and illustrative application to organizational socialization. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 70 (3), 219-40.

Elizur, D. (1984). Facets of work values. Journal of Applied Psychology, 69, 379-89.

Elizur. D., and Koslowsky. M. (2001). Values and organisational commitment. International Journal of Manpower, 22(7), 593–599.

Elizur , D., and Sagie, A. (1999). Facets of personal values: A structural analysis of life and work values. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 48 (1), 73 – 87.

Gay, E. G., Weiss, D. J., Hendel, D. D., Dawis, R. V., and Lofquist, L. H. (1971). Manual for the Minnesota importance questionnaire. Minneapolis, MN; Industrial Relations Center, University of Minnesota.

George J.M. and Jones G.R. (1999). Understanding and Managing Organizational Behavior (3rd Edn). New York: Addison-Wesley.

Gursoy, D., Chi, C.G.Q., andKaradag, E. (2013). Generational differences in work values and attitudes among frontline and service contact employees. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32 (1), 40-48.

Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture’s consequences: International differences in work-related values. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1984). Cultural dimensions in management and planning. Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 1(2), 81–99.

Hofstede, G. and Hofstede, G. J. (2005). Cultures and organizations: Software of the Mind (2nd Ed.) New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Infeld, D. L., Adams, W. C., Qi, G., and Rosnah, N. (2010). Career values of public administration and public policy students in China, Malaysia and the United States. International Journal of Public Administration, 33, 800–815.

Kupperschmidt, B. R. (2000). Multigeneration employees: Strategies for effective management. Health Care Manager,19, 65–76.

Liang,Y.(2012). The relationships among work values, burnout, and organizational citizenship behaviors. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 24 (2). 251 –268.

Lucas, R., and Deery, M. (2004). Significant developments and emerging issues in human resource management. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 23, 459–472.

Lyons, S., Duxbury, L. and Higgins, C. (2005), An empirical assessment of generational differences in work-related values. Proceedings of the Administrative Sciences Association Canada (ASAC) Symposium, Toronto, Canada, May 28-31, pp. 62-71.

Lyons, S. T., Higgins, C. A., and Duxbury, L. (2010). Work values: Development of a new three-dimensional structure based on confirmatory smallest space analysis. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17(2), 969-1002.

Judge, T.A. and Bretz, R.D. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77 (3), 261-71.

Mangundjaya, W.L.H. (2010). Is there cultural change in the nation cultures of Indonesia?. In Y. Kashima, E. Kashima, & R. Beatson (Eds.), Steering the cultural dynamics: Selected papers from the 2010 Congress of the International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology. Melbourne, Australia: International Association for Cross-Cultural Psychology. Retrieved from www.iaccp.org

Mok, C., Pine, R., and Pizam, A. (1998). Work values of chinese hotel managers. Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research, 21(3), 1–16.

MOW International Research Team. (1987). The meaning of working. London: Academic Press.

Negara, S.D. (2014, August 9). Indonesia needs to invest more in human resources. The Jakarta Post.Retrieved from http://www.thejakartapost.com/news/2014/08/09/indonesia-needs-invest-more-human-resources.html

Neville, D. D., and Super, D. E. (1989). The values scale: Theory, application, and research. Manual, (2nd Ed.). Mountain View, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Papavasileiou, E. F., and Lyons, S. T. (2015). A comparative analysis of the work values of Greece’s "Millennial" generation. The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 26(17), 2166–2186.

Park, J., and Gursoy, D. (2012). Generation effects on work engagement among U.S. hotel employees. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31(4), 1195–1202.

Pizam, A. (1993), "Managing cross-cultural hospitality enterprises", in Jones, P. and Pizam, A. (Eds), The International Hospitality Industry: Organizational and Operational Issues (pp. 205-225). New York, NY: Wiley.

Pizam, A. (1999). The state of travel and tourism human resources in Latin America. Tourism Management, 20 (5),575-86.

Pryor , R. G . L . (1979) . In search of a concept: Work values . The Vocational Guidance Quarterly. 27 (2), 250–258 .

Roe, R., and Ester, P. (1999). Values and work: empirical findings and theoretical perspectives. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 48 (1), 1–21.

Ros, M., Schwartz, S., and Surkiss, S. (1999). Basic individual values, work values, and the meaning of work. Applied Psychology: An International Review, 48, 49–71.

Sagie, A., Elizur, D. and Koslowsky, M. (1996). Work values: a theoretical overview and a model of their effects. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17, 503-14.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 25, 1–65.

Shafer, W., Morris, R., & Ketchand, A. (2001). Effects of personal values on auditors' ethical decisions. Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal, 14 (3), 254–277.

Sillerud, H. (2011). Generational differences in employee work values: An explorative study in a Norwegian work context. Oslo: Norwegian School of Management.

Siu, V., Tsang, N. and Wong, S. (1997).What motivates Hong Kong's hotel employee?. Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 38(5), 44-9.

Smola, K. andSutton, C. (2002). Generational differences: revisiting generational work values for the new millennium. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23(4), 363-82.

Solnet, D. and Hood, A. (2008). Generation Y as hospitality employees: framing a research agenda. Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, 15(1), 59-68.

Sritama, S. (2015, December 17). Hotel Chain. The Nation. Retrieved from https://global.factiva.com/ha/default.aspx#./!?&_suid=1457960541463005740755808251419

Super, D.E. (1970), Work Values Inventory. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Super, D.E. (1980). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 16, 282-98.

Super, D.E. (1995).Values: their nature, assessment, and practical use. In Super, D.E. & Sverko, B. (Eds), Life Roles, Values, and Careers: International Findings of the Work Importance Study (pp. 54-61). San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Tashandra,N. (2016, March 1). Pekerja asing serbu Indonesia, pemerintah diminta lakukan antisipasi. Kompas News. Retrieved from http://nasional.kompas.com/read/2016/03/01/16335541/Pekerja.Asing.Serbu.Indonesia.Pemerintah.Diminta.Lakukan.Antisipasi

Walsh, K. andTaylor, M. (2007). Developing in-house careers and retaining management talent: what hospitality professionals want from their jobs. Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 48(2), 163-82.

White, C. (2005). The relationship between cultural values and individual work values in the hospitality industry. International Journal of Tourism Research, 7(4-5), 221–229.

White, C. (2006). Towards an understanding of the relationship between work values and cultural orientations. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 25(4), 699–715.

Widarti, P. (2014, October 12). MEA 2015: PHRI Dorong Sertifikasi Keahlian Tenaga Kerja Hotel. Retrieved from http://industri.bisnis.com/read/20141012/12/264205/mea-2015-phri-dorong-sertifikasi-keahlian-tenaga-kerja-hotel

Widodo, W.S. (2016a, March 31). SDM pariwisata RI ditargetkan ranking 1 di ASEAN tahun 2019. Retrieved from http://travel.detik.com/read/2016/03/31/100313/3176439/1382/sdm-pariwisata-ri-ditargetkan-ranking-1-di-asean-tahun-2019

Widodo, W.S. (2016b, March 31). 3 Masalah SDM pariwisata Indonesia bersaing di tingkat global. Retrieved from http://travel.detik.com/read/2016/03/31/080407/3176358/1382/3-masalah-sdm-pariwisata-indonesia-bersaing-di-tingkat-global

Zupan, N., Kase, R., Raskovic, M., Yao, K., & Wang, K. (2013). Getting ready for generation Y joining the workforce: A comparative analysis of work values of Chinese and Slovenian business students. In M. Raskovic (Ed.), Book of proceedings of the 1st China-Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) Conference on Cross-Cultural Dialogue, Education & Business, October 4–6, Ljubljana, Slovenia.

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

Helen W H Lee, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Kaye Chon, The Hong Kong Polytechnic Universit

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.

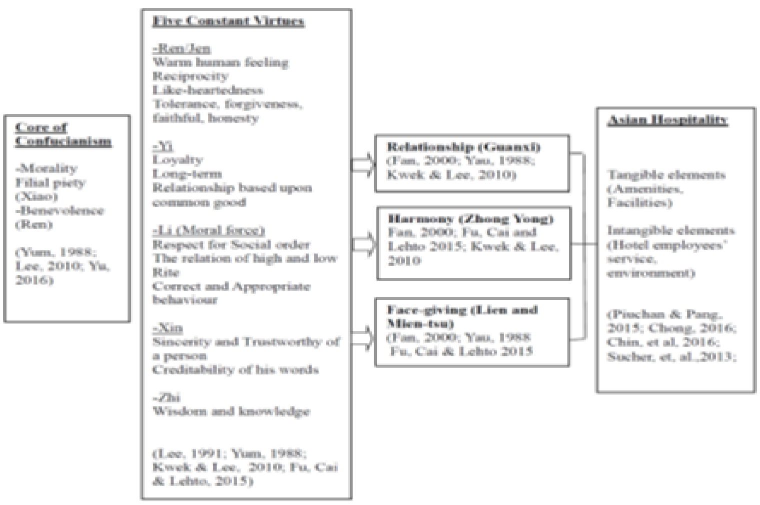
1.2 Objectives

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 thestudy

Figure 1 – Impacts of Confucian Values on Asian Hospitality



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 hadstrong 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-personalrelationship 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-tsu) 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.

REFERENCES

Chin, David C. W, Chitlada, Pinthong, Yen, Kang, & Chon, Kaye (2016). “What Makes Asian Hospitality Unique? An Exploratory Analysis”, School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, In the 11th PacCHRIE Conference 2016, 11-13 May 2016.

Chon, Kaye (2016). “Asian Paradigm in Hospitality Management (Lecture Notes)”,

School of Hotel and Tourism, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Choy, Kaye (Editor) (2013). “Tourism in Southeast Asia: A New Direction”, The Haworth Hospitality Press, Inc. Preface, xiii.

Fan, Ying (2000). “A Classification of Chinese Culture”, Cross Cultural Management: An International

Journal, Vol. 7, Iss 2 3-10.

Fu, Xiaoxiao, Cai, Liping & Lehto, Xinran (2015). “A Confucian Analysis of Chinese Tourists' Motivations”, Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 32:180-197, 2015 DOI: 10.1080/10548408.2014.896233

Hofstede, G. (1980). “Culture’s Consequences: International differences in work related values”, Beverly Hills, CA:Sage.

Kwek, Anna & Lee, Young Sook (2010). “Chinese Tourist and Confucianism”, Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research, Vol. 15, No.2, June 2010.

Lam, Carmen, Ho, Grace K.S., & Law, R. (2015),"How can Asian hotel companies remain internationally competitive?", International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Vol. 27, Iss 5, 827 – 852 http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-05-2013-0226

Lee, Chol (1991). “Modifying an American Consumer Behaviour Model for Consumers in Confucian Culture”, Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 3:1-1,27-50, DOI: 10.1300/J046V03n01_03

Piuchan, Manisa, & Pang, Loretta (2015). “Service Experience Dimensions in Asian Hospitality: A Case Study of Hotels in Thailand and Hong Kong”. In the EuroCHRIEConference 2015, 15-17 October 2015, Manchester, UK

STR (2016). “Global Hotel Market Study,” a presentation by Steve Hood of SHARE Center at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Sucker, Worarak, Pusiran, Arif Kamisan, Dhevabanchachai, Nate-tra, & Chon, Kaye (2013). “The Influences of Asian Cultural Values in the Asian Hospitality Services”, In the 11th PacCHRIE Conference 2013, 21-24 May 2013, Macau SAR, China. Conference Proceedings: ISBN 978-99965-1-047-2.

Yau, Oliver, H.M. (1988). “Chinese Cultural Values: Their Dimensions and Marketing Implications", European Journal of Marketing, Vol. 22 Iss 5 pp. 44-57 Permanent link to this document: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000005285

Yu, Kam Por (2016). “Confucian values and East Asia. (Lecture Note)”, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Yum, June Ock.(1988).”The impact of Confucianism on interpersonal relationships and communication patterns in East Asia”, Communication Monographs, 55:4, 374-388, DOI:10.1080/0363775880936178

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

Jennifer Loverio, University of the Philippines
Shirley V. Guevarra, University of the Philippines

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 work 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.

REFERENCES

Castro, M. & Deluna, R. (2013). Factors Affecting Call Center as Job Preference among Employees in Davao City .Retrievefromhttps://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/51678/1/MPRA_paper_51678.pdf

Determinants of Food Choices. Retrieved on July 15, 2014 from http://www.eufic.org/article/en/expid/re-view-food-choice/

Dubé, L., LeBel, J.L., Lu, J. (2005). Affect asymmetry and comfort food consumption. Physiology & Behavior. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/pro-file/Ji_Lu3/publication/7555507_Affect_Asymmetry_and_Comfort_Food_Consumption/links/0046351a7b662a88a5000000.pdf

Habhab, S., Sheldon, J., Loeb, R. (2009). The relationship between stress, dietary restraint and food preferences in women. Retrieved on February 8, 2017 from http://www.Sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S)195666308006272

Kandiah, J., Yake, M., Jones, J. Meyer, M. (2006). Stress influences appetite and comfort food preferences in college women. Nutrition Research. Retrieved from www.elsevier.com/locate/nutres

Kim, Y., Yang, H.Y., Kim, A., Lim, Y. (2013). Academic stress levels were positively associated with sweet food consumption among Korean high-school students. Nutrition. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/printviewfile?accountid=47253

Loverio, J., Guevarra, S. (2015). Food Practices of Call Center Agents in Selected Companies in Metro Manila. Journal of Asian Regional Association of Home Economics, 23(2), 52-59

Nessia, R. (2013). Call Center Agents not eating enough healthy food, survey shows. Philippine Information Agency (PIA) Region VII Central Visayas. Retrieved from http://r07.pia.gov.ph/index.php?article=1121373437076.

Suarez, D. (2010). Call center workers' diet: Fast food, caffeine and alcohol. Retrieved August 15, 2014 from http://www.abs-cbnnews.com/lifestyle/08/05/10/call-center-worker-diet-fast-food-caffeine-and-alcohol

Wansink, B., Cheney, M., Chan, N. (2003). Mood and Gender Relate into the Selection & Intake of Comfort Foods. Retrieved from http://foodpsychology.cornell.edu/ out-reach/comfort-food.html

Wansink, B., Cheney, M., Chan, N. (2003) Exploring comfort food preference across age and gender. Physiology and Behavior. doi:10.101/S0031-9384(03)00203-8

TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND REGIONAL PRODUCTIVITY EFFICIENCY: EVIDENCE FROM CHINA

Bo Zhou*, Xiamen university
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.

$$TFP_{it} = \alpha + \alpha_f TF_{it} + \sum_{j=1}^{N} \beta_j x_{jt} + \delta_i + \gamma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \tag{1}$$

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. TF is the tourist arrivals to a region, the explanatory variable in the model. x_j 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

Tang-Chung Kan, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism
Joyce Hsiu-Yu Chen, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism
Tzu-Ching Lai, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism
Wen-Yun Chang, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism

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. Csikzentmihalyi (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.

REFERENCES

Boniface, P. (2003). *Tasting tourism: Travelling for food and drink.* Burlington: Ashgate

Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism: attraction and impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research, 31*(4), 755-778.

Csikszentmihalyi, Mihalyi. (1999). If we are so rich, why aren't we happy? *American Psychologist, 54*(10), 821–827.

Csikszentmihalyi, Mihalyi. (2000). The costs and benefits of consuming. *Journal of Consumer Research, 27*(2), 267–272.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Hedonia, eudaimonia, and well-being: An introduction. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 9,*1–11.

Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Threedecades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*, 276–302.

Diener, Edward. (2000). Subjective well-being: The science of happiness. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 34–43.

Hall, C. M., & Sharples, L. (2008). Food and wine festivals and events around the world. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Hoffman, Donna L., & Novak, Thomas P. (1996). Marketing in hypermedia computer-mediated environments: Conceptual foundations. *Journal of Marketing, 60*, 50–68.

Huppert, F. A. (2009). Psychological well-being: Evidence regarding its causes and consequences. *Applied Psychology:Health and Well-Being, 1*, 137–164.

Kawamoto, Ryuichi, Yoshida, Osamu, Oka, Yuichiro, & Kodama, Akihiro. (2005). Influence of living alone on emotional well-being in community-dwelling elderly persons. *Geriatrics & Gerontology International, 5*(3), 152-158.

Myers, David. (2000).The funds, friends, and faith of happy people. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 56–68.

Pearce, P.L. M. Kang. (2009). The effects of prior and recent experience on continuing interest in tourist settings. *Annals of Tourism Research, 36* (2), 172–190

Pinquart, M., & Sorensen, S. (2000). Influences of socioeconomic status, social network, and competence on subjective well-being in later life: A metaanalysis. *Psychology and Aging, 15*, 187–224.

Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 57*(6), 1069-1081.

Ryff, Carol D. & Corey Lee M. Keyes (1995). The Structure of Psychological Well-Being Revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*(4), 719-727

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

Thanya Lunchaprasith, Silpakorn University

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 14^{th} -18^{th} 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 ambiance 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.

REFERENCES

Avieli, N. (2013). What is "Local Food?" Dynamic culinary heritage in the World Heritage Site of Hoi An, Vietnam. *Journal of Heritage Tourism (Special Issue: Heritage Cuisines)*, *8*(2-3), 120–132.

Bender, A., & Forbes. (2013). The World's Top 10 Cities For Street Food. Retrieved from http://www.forbes.com/pictures/ehlk45fiii/1-bangkok-thailand-3/

Bernama. (2016, August 11). Bangkok's street food world's best, says CNN. *New Straits Times*. Kuala Lampur. Retrieved from http://www.nst.com.my/news/2016/08/164682/bangkoks-street-food-worlds-best-says-cnn?utm_source=nst&utm_medium=nst&utm_campaign=nstrelated

Cohen, E. (1988). Authenticity and Commoditization in Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *15*, 371–386.

Cohen, E. (2016). The Permutations of Thailand's "Floating Markets." *Asian Journal of Tourism Research*, *1*(1), 59–98.

Fox, R. (2007). Reinventing the gastronomic identity of Croatian tourist destinations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *26*(3), 546–559.

Hall, C. M. (2013). Why forage when you don't have to? Personal and cultural meaning in recreational foraging: a New Zealand study. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, *8*(2-3), 224–233.

Haven-Tang, C., & Jones, E. (2005). Using local food and drink to differentiate tourismd estinations through a sense of place: a story from Wales-dining at Monmouthshire's Great Table. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, *4*(4), 69–86.

Kanokpongchai, S., Vespada, Y., Chantasingh, C., Halliday, R., Baker, W., Yaopirom, P., & Prateepwitsarut, B. (2001). *อาหาร ทรัพย์และศิลป์แผ่นดินไทย (Thai Cuisine: Treasure and Art of the Land)*. Bangkok: Plan Motif Publishers.

Kappert, J. (2000). Community and rural development in Northern Portugal. In Greg Richards & D. Hall (Eds.), *Tourism and Sustainable Community Development* (pp. 258–267). London; New York: Routledge.

Lonely Planet. (2012). The best countries for food. Retrieved from http://www.lonelyplanet.com/thailand/travel-tips-and-articles/76220

McKean, P. (1973). *Cultural Involution: Tourists, Balinese, and the process of modernization in an anthropological perspective*. Brown University.

Murray, E. V. (2007). Thailand-The Kitchen of The World: Origin and Growth of the Thai Food Industry & Lessons for India. *CAB Calling*, 16–26.

O'Sullivan, D., & Jackson, M. J. (2002). Festival Tourism: A Contributor to Sustainable Local Economic

Development? *Festival Tourism: A Contributor to Sustainable Local Economic Development?*, *10*(4), 325–342.

Pangkesorn, A. (2013). Thai Arts & Creativity: The New Identity for Thai Foods Cateringe. *Veridian E-Journal SU*, *6*(6), 31–55. Retrieved from http://www.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/Veridian-E-Journal/article/view/35082/29151

Poupon, R. (2013). *The Thai Food Complex: From the Rice Fields to Industrial and Organic Foods*. Bangkok: White Lotus.

Robinson, R. N. S., & Clifford, C. (2007). Primi, Secondi, Insalata: Augmenting Authenticity at Special Events via Foodservice Experiences. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, *3*(2).

Salamone, F. A. (1997). Authenticity in tourism: The San Angel Inns. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *24*(2), 305–321.

Scarpato, R. (2002). *Gastronomy as a tourist product: The perspective of gastronomy studies*. London: Routledge.

Shea, G. (2016, August 9). World's 23 best cities for street food. *CNN Travel*. Atlanta, GA. Retrieved from http://edition.cnn.com/2016/08/08/foodanddrink/best-cities-street-food/

Shepherd, R. (2002). Commodification, Culture and Tourism. *Tourist Studies*, *2*(2), 183–201.

Spence, C., & Piqueras-Fiszman, B. (2014). *The Perfect Meal: The Multisensory Science of Food and Dining*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons.

Stalker, N. (2009). The Globalisation of Macrobiotics as Culinary Tourism and Culinary Nostalgia. *Asian Medicine*, *5*(1), 1–18.

Sunanta, S. (2005). The Globalization of Thai Cuisine. In *Canadian Council for Southeast Asian Studies Conference*. Retrieved from http://www.yorku.ca/ycar/Publications/CCSEAS_Papers_2005/Sunanta.pdf

The Government Public Relations Department. (2016). Giving a Boost to Thai Food Industry and Thai Cuisine Overseas. Retrieved February 26, 2017, from http://thailand.prd.go.th/1700/ewt/thailand/ewt_news.php?nid=4554&filename=exchangeBrunei

Vitterso, G., & Amilien, V. (2011). From tourist product to ordinary food. *Anthropology of Food*, *8*. Retrieved from http://aof.revues.org/6833

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

Janet Chang, National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality and Tourism
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 research. 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

Cohen, E., & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in tourism attraction and impediment. Annals of Tourism Research, 31 (4), 755-778.

Chang, R. C. Y., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. H. N. (2010). Food preferences of Chinese tourists. Annals of Tourism Research, 37 (4), 989-1011.

Chang, R. C. Y., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. H. N. (2011). Attributes that influence the evaluation of travel dining experience: When East meets West. Tourism Management, 32, 307-316.

Chitra, U., Adhikari, K., Radhika, M.S., & Balakrishna, N. (2016). Neophobic tendencies and dietary behavior in a cohort of female college students from southern India. Journal of Sensory Studies, 31 (1), 70-77.

Hills, P., & Argyle, M. (2002). The oxford happiness questionnaire: A compact scale for the measurement of psychological well-being. Personality and Individual Differences, 33, 1073-1082.

Mak, A. H. N., Wong, K. K. F., & Chang, R. C. Y. (2009). Health or Self-indulgence?

The Motivations and Characteristics of Spa-goers. International Journal of Tourism Research, 11, 185-199.

EMPATHY AND PREFERENCE FOR TRAVEL DESTINATIONS

Tomomi Hanai, Teikyo University
Takashi Oguchi, Rikkyo University

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 emphatic 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, α = .76), "perspective taking" (5 items, α = .74), "fantasy" (4 items, α = .77), and "empathic concern (-)" (5 items, α = .67).

Table 1. The factor structure of the Japanese version of IRI.

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

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

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.

REFERENCES

Davis, M. H. (1983). Measuring Individual Differences in Empathy: Evidence for a Multidimensional Approach. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44, 113-126.

Lennox, R. and Wolfe, R. N. (1984). Revision of the Self-Monitoring Scale. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46, 1349-1364.

Lepp, A. & Gibson, H. (2007). Sensation seeking and tourism: Tourist role, perception of risk and destination choice. Tourism Management, 29, 740-750.

Sakurai, S. (1988). The Relationship between Empathy and Helping Behavior in College Students. Bulletin of Nara University of Education. Cultural and Social Science, 37(1), 149-154.

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of Expressive Behaviour. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 30, 526-537.

Tobari, M. (2000). Empathy as a Multidimensional Construct: A Review of Research on Empathy. The Japanese Journal of Personality, 9(1), 36-51.

Yashiro, K. & Oguchi, T. (2003). Individual Preferences for Sightseeing Destinations determined by "Individual Primal Scene" and Psychological Differences. The Tourism Studies, 15(1), 27-33.

Yoo, K-H. & Gretzel, U. (2011). Influence of personality on travel-related consumer-generated media creation. Computers in Human Behavior, 27(2), 609-621.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 26283017.

DOES TRAVELING TO PLAY POK MON GO CONTRIBUTE TO TOURISM?

Yohei Nocuchi, Kyorin University
Tomomi Hanai, Teikyo University
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 view point 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.

Figure "Pokémon GO MAP" of central business district of Yokosuka (Yokosuka Action Committee for the Promotion (n.d.). Yokosuka GO)

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

Apple Inc. (n.d.). iTunes Preview Pokémon GO. Retrieved February 21, 2017, from https://itunes.apple.com/jp/app/pokemon-go/id1094591345

Miyagi Prefecture. Plan to Increase PokéStops. Explore Miyagi. Retrieved February 21, 2017, from https://www.pokestop.miyagi.jp/

Nikkei Inc. (n.d.) Revitalization of Disaster Affected Areas, Four Prefectures in Tohoku area and Kumamoto by Pokémon GO. Collaboration with the Game Operation Company. Retrieved February 21, 2017, from http://www.nikkei.com/article/DGXLASFB10H1E_Q6A810C1000000/

Pokémon GO Company. (n.d.). Pokémon GO Official Site. Retrieved February 21, 2017, from http://www.pokemongo.jp/

Yokosuka Action Committee for the Promotion (n.d.). Yokosuka GO. Retrieved February 21, 2017, from https://www.cocoyoko.net/special/yokosukaGO.html

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

Naho Maruyama, Takasaki City University of Economics
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

Akis, S., Peristianis, N., & Warner, J. (1996). Residents' attitudes to tourism development: the case of Cyprus. Tourism Management, 17(7), 481-494.

Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. Annals of Tourism Research, 19(4), 665-690.

Aytar, V., & Rath, J. (2012). Selling ethnic neighborhoods: the rise of neighborhoods as places of leisure and consumption: Routledge.

Boley, B. B., & McGehee, N. G. (2014). Measuring empowerment: Developing and validating the Resident Empowerment through Tourism Scale (RETS). Tourism Management, 45(0), 85-94.

Boley, B. B., Ayscue, E., Maruyama, N., & Woosnam, K. M. (2016). Gender and empowerment: assessing discrepancies using the resident empowerment through tourism scale. Journal of sustainable tourism, 1-17.

Butler, R. (2004). The tourism area life cycle in the twenty-first century. A companion to tourism, 159-169.

Crehan, K. A. (1997). The fractured community: landscapes of power and gender in rural Zambia. Berkeley, CA: Univ of California Press.

Diedrich, A., & García-Buades, E. (2009). Local perceptions of tourism as indicators of destination decline. Tourism management, 30(4), 512-521.

Henderson, J. (2000). Attracting tourists to Singapore's Chinatown: a case study in conservation and promotion. Tourism Management, 21(5), 525-534.

Jamison, D. (1999). Tourism and ethnicity: The brotherhood of coconuts. Annals of Tourism Research, 26(4), 944-967.

Ko, D.-W., & Stewart, W. P. (2002). A structural equation model of residents' attitudes for tourism development. Tourism Management, 23(5), 521-530.

Lankford, S. V., & Howard, D. R. (1994). Developing a tourism impact attitude scale. Annals of Tourism Research, 21(1), 121-139.

Lepp, A. (2007). Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda. Tourism management, 28(3), 876-885.

Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Allen, L. (1990). Rural resident tourism perceptions and attitudes by community level of tourism. Journal of travel research, 28(3), 3-9.

Maruyama, N. U., Woosnam, K. M., & Boley, B. B. (2016). Comparing levels of resident empowerment among two culturally diverse resident populations in Oizumi, Gunma, Japan. Journal of sustainable tourism, 1-19.

Maruyama, N., & Woosnam, K. M. (2015). Residents' ethnic attitudes and support for ethnic neighborhood tourism: The case of a Brazilian town in Japan. Tourism Management, 50, 225-237.

Sirakaya, E., Teye, V., & Sönmez, S. (2002). Understanding Residents' Support for Tourism Development in the Central Region of Ghana. Journal of Travel Research, 41(1), 57-67.

Woosnam, K. M., & Norman, W. C. (2010). Measuring

Residents' Emotional Solidarity with Tourists: Scale Development of Durkheim's Theoretical Constructs. Journal of Travel Research, 49(3), 365-380.

Woosnam, K. M., Maruyama, N., & Boley, B. B. (2016). Perceptions of the 'Other'Residents: Implications for Attitudes of Tourism Development Focused on the Minority Ethnic Group. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 33(5), 567-580.

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

Chien-Tzu Yang, National Penghu University
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

Jamie Lo, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

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 1. Taxonomy of “Theory

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

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

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

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 tourism-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 McGehee and Xu, 2012). Researchers assured trustworthiness of this study with regard to four criteria developed by DeCrop (2004; Cited McGehee 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

Agrusa, J., Kim, S. and Wang, K. (2011). Mainland Chinese tourists to Hawaii: Their characteristics and preferences. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 28(3), 261-278.

Crawford, D., and Godbey, G. (1987). Reconceptualizing barriers to family leisure. Leisure Sciences, 9(2), 119-127.

Crawford, D., Jackson, E. and Godbey, G. (1991). A hierarchical model of leisure constraints. Leisure Sciences, 13(4), 309-320.

Godbey, G., Crawford, D. and Shen, X. (2010). Assessing hierarchical leisure constraints theory after two decades. Journal of Leisure Research, 42 (1), 111-134.

Hofstede, G. (2012). National culture. Retrieved September 20, 2016, from https://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html.

Ji, M., Li, M. and King, B. (2015). The Impacts of China's new free-trade zones on Hong Kong tourism. Journal of Destination Marketing & Management, 4(4), 203-205.

Kim, H., Park, J., Lee, S. and Jang, S. (2012). Do expectations of future wealth increase outbound tourism? Evidence from Korea. Tourism Management, 33(5), 1141–1147.

King, B. and Gardiner, S. (2015). Chinese international students. An avant-garde of independent travelers. International Journal of Tourism Research, 17(2), 130-139.

Lai, C., Li, X., and Harrill, R. (2013). Chinese outbound tourists' perceived constraints to visiting the United States. Tourism Management, 37, 136-146.

Lee, S., Jeon, S. and Kim, D. (2011). The impact of tour quality and tourist satisfaction on tourist loyalty: The case of Chinese tourists in Korea. Tourism Management, 32(5), 1115-1124.

Lowry, L., Cartier, E., Back, R., and Delconte, J. (2015, June). Addressing the need for new tourism theory: The utility of constructivist grounded theory methodology for theory development. Paper presented at Tourism Travel and Research Association International Conference, Massachusetts. United States: Tourism Travel and Research Association.

Ong, C. and Cros, H. (2012). The Post-Mao gazes: Chinese Backpackers in Macau. Annals of Tourism Research, 39(2) 735-754.

Smith, S., Xiao, H., Nunkoo, R. and Tukamushaba, E. (2013). Theory in hospitality, tourism, and leisure studies. Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 22 (8), 875-894.

Song, H., Li, G., Veen, R. and Chen, J. (2011). Assessing mainland Chinese tourists' satisfaction with Hong Kong using tourist satisfaction index. International Journal of Tourism Research, 13 (1), 82-96.

Timothy, D. and Kim, S. (2015). Understanding the tourism relationships between South Korea and China: a review of influential factors. Current Issues in Tourism, 18(5), 413-432.

Udo-Akang, D. (2012). Theoretical constructs, concepts, and applications. American International Journal of Contemporary Research, 2 (9) 89-97.

Wacker (1998). A definition of theory: research guidelines for different theory-building research methods in operations management. Journal of Operations Management, 16(4), 361–385.

Xu, Y., and McGehee, N. (2012). Shopping behavior of Chinese tourists visiting the United States: Letting the shoppers do the talking, Tourism Management, 33(2), 427-430.

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

Rachel Lam, Hong Kong Community College

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 organsations 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 behviours, 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.

REFERENCES

Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1995). *MLQ: Multifactor leadership questionnaire for research: permission set*, Mind Garden, Inc., Redwood City, CA.

Brownell, J. (2010). Leadership in the service of hospitality. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 51*(3), 363-378.

Butler, A. M., Kwantes, C. T., & Boglarsky, C. A. (2014). The effects of self-awareness on perceptions of leadership effectiveness in the hospitality industry: A cross cultural investigation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 40*, 87-98.

Constanti, A. Z. P. (2010). Leadership styles and burnout: Is there an association?. International *Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 22*(3), 300-320.

Crews, J. (2015). What is an ethical leadership?: The characteristics of ethical leadership from the perceptions held by Australian senior executives. *Journal of Business and Management, 21*(1), 2015.

Dai, Y-D., Dai, Y-Y., Chen, K-Y., & Wu, H-C. (2013). Transformational vs transactional leadership: which is better?: A study on employees of international tourist hotel in Taipei City. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 25*(5), 760-778.

Erkutlu, H. (2008). The impact of transformational leadership on organisational and leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Management Development, 27*(7), 708-726.

Hon, A. H. Y. & Chan, W. W. H. (2012). Team creative performance: The roles of empowering leadership, creative-related motivation, and task interdependence. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 54*(2), 199-210.

Huang, J., Li, W., Qiu, A., Yim, F. H-k., & Wan, J. (2016). The impact of CEO servant leadership on firm performance in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 28*(5), 945-968.

Kara, D., Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., & Lee, G. (2013). The effects of leadership style on employee well-being in hospitality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 34*, 9-18.

Langhorn, S. (2004). How emotional intelligence can improve management performance. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 16*(4), 220-230.

Ling, Q, Liu, F., & Wu, X. (2016). Servant versus authentic leadership: Assessing effectiveness in China's hospitality industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 1-16*.

Maier, T. A. (2011). Evaluating the alignment of acafemic research and industry leadership best practices. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Education, 23*(4), 46-51.

Marinova, S.,Van Dyne, L., & Moon, H. (2015). Are good citizens good transformational leaders as well? An employee-centric perspective on transformational leadership. *Group and Organisation Management, 40*(1), 62-87.

Minett, D, Yaman, H. R., & Denizci, B. (2009). Leadership styles and ethical decision-making in hospitality management. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 28*, 486-493.

Newman, A. & Butler, C. (2014). The influence of follower cultural orientation on attitudinal responses towards transformational leadership: evidence from the Chinese hospitality industry. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 25*(7), 1024-1045.

Qin, Q., Wen, B., Ling, Q., Zhou, S., & Tong, M.

(2014). How and when the effect of ethical leadership occurs? A multilevel analysis in the Chinese hospitality industry. International *Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 26*(6), 974-1001.

Robbins, S. P. & Judge, T. A. (2015). Organisational Behaviour. (16th Ed.). Courier Kendallville, IN: Pearson.

Rothfelder, K., Ottenbacher, M. C., & Harrington, R. J. (2013). The impact of transformational, transactional and non-leadership styles on employee job satisfaction in the German hospitality industry. *Tourism and Hospitality Research, 12*(4), 201-214.

Scott-Halsell, S. A., Blum, S. C. & Huffman, L. (2008). A study of emotional intelligence levels in hospitality industry professionals. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 7*(2), 135-152.

Scott-Halsell, S., Shumate, S. R., & Blum, S. (2007). Using a model of emotional intelligence domains to indicate transformational leaders in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality and Tourism, 7*(1), 99-113.

Testa, M. R. (2007). A deeper look at national culture and leadership in the hospitality industry. *Hospitality Management, 26*, 468-484.

Wolfe, K. & Kim, H. J. (2013). Emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and job tenure among hotel managers. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 12*(2), 175-191.

Wu, L-Z, Tse, E. C-Y., Fu, P., Ho, K. K. & Liu, J. (2013). The impact of servant leadership on hotel employees' servant behaviour. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 54*(4), 383-395.

INVESTIGATION OF RESEARCH TRENDS IN HOSPITALITY ACADEMIA

Sunny Ham, Yonsei University
Kee-Young Kwahk, Kookmin University
Chang-Sik Kim, Kookmin University
Seo-Young Kim, Yonsei University

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., García-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

Feldman, R., Dagan, I., Hirsh, H., 1998. Mining text using keyword distributions. Journal of Intelligent Information Systems 10 (3), 281–300.

Hanneman, R. A., & Riddle, M. (2005). Introduction to social network methods.

Porter, A., Kongthon, A., & Lu, J. C. (2002). Research profiling: Improving the literature review. Scientometrics, 53(3), 351-370.

Semio Corporation, 2004. Text mining and the knowledge management space. Available http://www.dmreview.com/whitepaper/paper_sub.cfm?whitepaperId=10080

Singh, N., Hu, C., & Roehl, W. S. (2007). Text mining a decade of progress in hospitality human resource management research: Identifying emerging thematic development. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 26(1), 131-147.

Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). Social network analysis: Methods and applications (Vol. 8). Cambridge university press.

CONSEQUENCES OF DINE ALONE: CLOSER EXAMINATION ON SOLO DINERS

Jeong-Yeol Park, University of Central Florida
Jooyeon Ha, San Jose State University

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:

H_1: Different table layout will have significant influence on solo-diners' positive emotion.
H_2: Different table layout will have significant influence on solo-diners' negative emotion.
H_3: Solo-diners' positive emotion has a positive effect on behavioral intentions
H_4: 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:

H_5: The influence of table layouts on positive emotion can differ according to the level of perceived loneliness.
H_6: 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) $emotions = \beta_0 + \beta_1\ Layouts + \varepsilon$
(2) $emotions = \beta_0 + \beta_1\ Layouts + \beta_2\ Loneliness + \varepsilon$
(3) $emotions = \beta_0 + \beta_1\ Layouts + \beta_2\ Loneliness + \beta_3\ Layouts \times Loneliness + \varepsilon$

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.

REFERENCES

Babin, B. J., Darden, W. R., & Babin, L. A. (1998). Negative emotions in marketing research: affect or artifact? *Journal of Business Research*, *42*(3), 271–285.

Bainbridge, J. (2016). The rise of the solo diner. Retrieved from: http://www.foodrepublic.com/2016/04/26/the-rise-of-the-solo-diner/.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*(6), 1173–1182.

Bianchi, C. (2015). Solo Holiday Travellers: Motivators and Drivers of Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *18*(2), 197–208.

Dutton, S. (2016). South Korea sets the standard for global solo dining trends, Retrieved from: http://blog.euromonitor.com/2016/08/south-korea-sets-standard-global-solo-dining-trends.html.

Han, H., Back, K. J., & Barrett, B. (2009). A consumption emotion measurement development: a full-service restaurant setting. *Service Industries Journal*, *30*(2), 299–320.

Jang, S., & Namkung, Y. (2009). Perceived quality, emotions, and behavioral intentions: Application of an extended Mehrabian–Russell model to restaurants. *Journal of Business Research*, *62*(4), 451–460.

Jani, D., & Han, H. (2013). Personality, social comparison, consumption emotions, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *25*(7), 970–993.

Liu, Y., & Jang, S. (2009). The effects of dining atmospherics: An extended Mehrabian–Russell model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *28*(4), 494–503.

Machleit, K. A., & Mantel, S. P. (2001). Emotional response and shopping satisfaction: Moderating effects of shopper attributions. *Journal of Business Research*, *54*(2), 97–106.

Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Oliver, R. L. (1994). Conceptual Issues in the Structural Analysis of Consumption Emotion, Satisfaction, and Quality: Evidence in a Service Setting. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *21*(1), 16–22.

Peattie, S., Clarke, P., & Peattie, K. (2005). Risk and responsibility in tourism: promoting sun-safety. *Tourism Management*, *26*(3), 399–408.

Peplau, L. A., & Cutrona, C. E. (1980). The revised UCLA Loneliness Scale: Concurrent and discriminant validity evidence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *39*(3), 472–480.

Potter, C (2015). You're not alone: OpenTable study reveals in rise in solo dining, names top restaurants for solo diners. Retrieved from: http://blog.opentable.com/2015/youre-not-alone-opentable-study-reveals-rise-in-solo-dining-names-top-restaurants-for-solo-diners/

Sharma, S., Durand, R. M., & Gur-Arie, O. (1981). Identification and Analysis of Moderator Variables. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(3), 291–300.

Um, S., Chon, K., & Ro, Y. (2006). Antecedents of revisit intention. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *33*(4), 1141–1158.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, *60*(2), 31–46.

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

Mia Fey P. Atendido-Esteva, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
Paul Micah S. Francisco, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
Angelica Locelle C. Macasaet, San Sebastian College- Recoletos
Ruth Danielle T. Miraflor, San Sebastian College- Recoletos

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 line 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

Jonghan Hyun, Kent State University
Kiwon Lee, Kent State University

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 calorie 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

Amidor, T. (October 12, 2010). 6 Healthiest ethnic cuisines. Food Network. Retrieved October 1, 2015 from http://blog.foodnetwork.com/healthyeats/2010/10/12/6-healthiest-international-cuisines/

Chandon, P., & Wansink, B. (2007). The biasing health halos of fast-food restaurant health claims: lower calorie estimates and higher side-dish consumption intentions. Journal of Consumer Research, 34(3), 301-314.

Corapi, A. (August 25, 2010). The 10 healthiest ethnic cuisines. CNN. Retrieved October 1, 2015 from http://www.cnn.com/2010/HEALTH/08/25/healthiest.ethnic.cuisines/

Denny, S. (November 27, 2014). Ethnic foods for a healthy plate. Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics. Retrieved October 1, 2015 from http://www.eatright.org/resource/health/lifestyle/culture-and-traditions/ethnic-foods-for-a-healthy-plate.

Ebster, C., & Guist, I. (2005). The role of authenticity in ethnic theme restaurants. Journal of Foodservice Business Research, 7(2), 41-52.

Flight, I., Leppard, P., & Cox, D. N. (2003). Food neophobia and associations with cultural diversity and socio-economic status amongst rural and urban Australian adolescents. Appetite, 41(1), 51-59.

Friedman, J. (2009). Obesity: Causes and control of excess body fat. Nature, 459 (7245), 340-342.

Hill, J. O., & Peters, J. C. (1998). Environmental contributions to the obesity epidemic. Science, 280(5368), 1371-1374.

Jang, S.C., Liu, Y., & Namkung, Y. (2011). Effects of authentic atmospherics in ethnic restaurants: investigating Chinese restaurants. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 23(5), 662-680.

Mintel (2015a). Executive summary: healthy dining trends.

Mintel (2015b). Executive summary: marketing health to women.

National Institutes of Health. (2015). Tipsheet: Eating healthy ethnic food. Retrieved October 1, 2015 from https://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/health/educational/lose_wt/eat/tips_eth_dine.htm.

National Restaurant Association. (2015). Global palates: Ethnic cuisines and flavors in America.

Ogden, C. L., Carroll, M. D., Kit, B. K., & Flegal, K. M. (2014). Prevalence of childhood and adult obesity in the United States, 2011-2012. Journal of the American Medical Association, 311(8), 806-814.

Provencher, V., Polivy J., & Herman, C. P. (2009). Perceived healthiness of food. If it’s healthy, you can eat more! Appetite, 52(2), 340-344.

Reilly, J. J., Methven, E., McDowell, Z. C., Hacking, B., Alexander, D., Stewart, L., &Kelnar, C. J. (2003). Health consequences of obesity. Archives of disease in childhood, 88(9), 748-752.

Rolls, B. J., Roe, L. S., Kral, T. V., Meengs, J. S., & Wall, D. E. (2004). Increasing the portion size of a packaged snack increases energy intake in men and women. Appetite, 42(1), 63-69.

Roseman, M. G. (2006). Changing times: Consumers choice of ethnic foods when eating at restaurants. Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 14(4), 5-32.

Verbeke, W., & Poquiviqui López, G. (2005). Ethnic food attitudes and behaviour among Belgians and Hispanics living in Belgium. British Food Journal, 107(11), 823-840.

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

Toyohiko Sugimoto, Shibaura Institute of Technology
Hayato Nagai, Wakayama University

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.

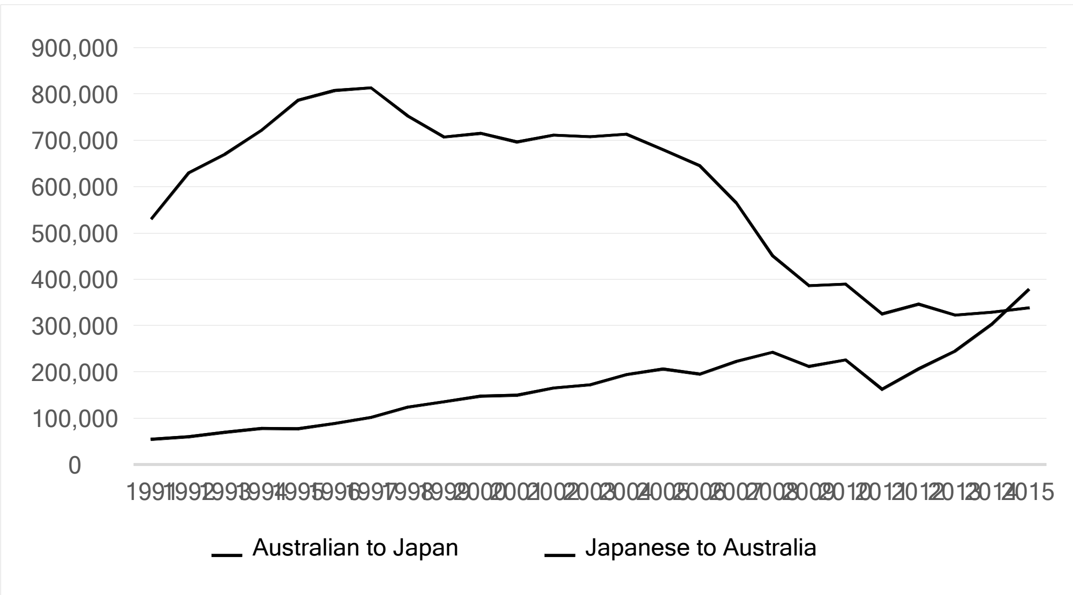


Figure 1. Number of tourists between Japan and Australia
Source: ABS (2016); JTB Tourism Research & Consulting Co. (2016)

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), favourable 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

Abascal, T. E., Fluker, M., & Jiang, M. (2017). An holistic approach to a tourism activity choice model. In C. Lee, S. Filep, J. N. Albrecht & W. J. Coetzee (Eds.), Time for big ideas? Re-thinking the field for to-morrow: Proceedings of the 27th CAUTHE Annual Conference (pp. 526-538). Dunedin, New Zealand: Department of Tourism, University of Otago.

Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2016). 3401.0 - Overseas arrivals and departures, Australia, Nov 2016 [Table 7: Short-term movement, resident departures - selected destinations: Trend]. Retrieved 01/26, 2017, from http://www.abs.gov.au/AUSSTATS/abs@.nsf/DetailsPage/3401.0Nov%202016?OpenDocument

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3(2), 77-101.

Dewan, I., & Benckendorff, P. (2013). Impact of tech savviness and impulsiveness on the mobile in-formation search behaviour of young travellers. In L. Cantoni & Z. Xiang (Eds.), Information and communications technologies in tourism 2013. London, England: Springer.

Fodness, D., & Murray, B. (1999). A model of tourist information search behavior. Journal of travel re-search, 37(3), 220-230.

Gitelson, R., & Kerstetter, D. (1995). The influence of friends and relatives in travel decision-making. Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing, 3(3), 59-68. doi: 10.1300/J073v03n03_04

Japan National Tourism Organization. (2016). JNTO Data handbook for inbound tourists to Japan 2016: Japan National Tourism Organisation.

JTB Tourism Research & Consulting Co. (2016). Statistics of oveaseas residents' visits to Japan (historical figures/by country/by purpose), from http://www.tourism.jp/en/tourism-database/stats/

King, R. L., & Woodside, A. G. (2001). Qualitative com-parative analysis of travel and tourism pur-chase-consumption systems. Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure, 2, 87-105.

Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2005). Gastronomy tourism: A meaningful travel market segment. Journal of Culinary Science & Technology, 4(2-3), 39-55.

Nishimura, S., Waryszak, R., & King, B. (2006). Guidebook use by Japanese tourists: A qualitative study of Australia inbound travellers. International Journal of Tourism Research, 8(1), 13-26.

Pearce, P. L. (2005). Tourist behaviour: Themes and conceptual schemes. Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1999). A cultural analysis of Japanese tourists: Challenges for tourism marketers. European Journal of Marketing, 33(11/12), 1203-1227.

Sirakaya, E., & Woodside, A. G. (2005). Building and testing theories of decision making by travellers. Tourism management, 26(6), 815-832.

Solomon, M. R., Dann, S., Dann, S., & Russell-Bennett, R. (2007). Consumer behaviour: Buying, having, being. Frenchs Forest, Australia: Pearson Education.

Um, S., & Crompton, J. L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. Annals of Tourism Research, 17(3), 432-448.

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

Yu-Shu Lin, Tunghai University
Shuo-Shiung Chou, Tunghai University
Meng-Lei I.C. Monica Hu, Jinwen University Science and Technology

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

Shannon Yi, The Chinese University of Hong Kong
Chloe Y. Qiu, The Chinese University of Hong Kong
Lisa Wan, The Chinese University of Hong Kong

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 (Slåtten 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 front-line 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 advices 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.

REFERENCES

Antony, J., Jiju Antony, F., & Ghosh, S. (2004). Evaluating service quality in a UK hotel chain: a case study. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 16(6), 380-384.

Avnet, T., & Higgins, E. T. (2006). How regulatory fit affects value in consumer choices and opinions. Journal of Marketing Research, 43(1), 1–10.

Avnet, T., Laufer, D., & Higgins, E. T. (2013). Are all experiences of fit created equal? Two paths to persuasion. Journal of Consumer Psychology, 23, 301-316.

Bakker, A. B., Hakanen, J. J., Demerouti, E., & Xanthopoulou, D. (2007). Job resources boost work engagement, particularly when job demands are high. Journal of educational psychology, 99(2), 274.

Bettencourt, L. A., & Gwinner, K. (1996). Customization of the service experience: the role of the frontline employee. International journal of service industry management, 7(2), 3-20.

Cadotte, E. R., & Turgeon, N. (1988). Key factors in guest satisfaction. Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 28(4), 44–51.

Cesario, J., Grant, H., & Higgins, E. T. (2004). Regulatory fit and persuasion: Transfer from "feeling right." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 86, 388-404.

Cesario, J., Higgins, E. T., & Scholer, A. A. (2008). Regulatory fit and persuasion: Basic principles and remaining questions. Social & Personality Psychology Compass, 2, 444-463

Chung, B. G., & Schneider, B. (2002). Serving multiple masters: Role conflict experienced by service employees. Journal of services Marketing, 16(1), 70-87.

Edmondson, D.R. & Boyer, S.L. (2013). The moderating effect of the boundary spanning roleon perceived supervisory support: a meta-analytic review. Journal of Business Research, 66 (11), 2186-2192.

Erickson, G.S. & Eckrich, D.W. (2001). Consumer affairs responses to unsolicited consumer compliments. Journal of Marketing Management, 17 (3), 321-340.

Fisher, C. D. (2000). Mood and emotions while working: Missing pieces of job satisfaction. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21(2), 185-202.

Fridman, I., Scherr, K. A., Glare, P. A., & Higgins, E. T. (2016). Using a non-fit message helps to de-Intensify negative reactions to tough advice. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 42(8), 1025–1044.

Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. American Psychologists, 52, 1280-1300.

Higgins, E. T., Friedman, R.S., Harlow, R. E., Idson, L. D., Ayduk, O. N., & Taylor, A. (2001). Achievement orientation from subjective histories of success: promotion pride versus prevention pride. European Journal of Social Psychology, 31, 3-23.

Kahn, W. A., (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. Academy of Management Journal, 33,692-724.

Karatepe, O. M. (2013). High-performance work practices and hotel employee performance: The mediation of work engagement. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32, 132-140.

Rich, B. L., Lepine, J. A., & Crawford, E. R. (2010). Job engagement: Antecedents and effects on job performance. Academy of Management Journal, 53, 617–635.

Robertson, P.J. (1995). Involvement in boundary-spanning activity: mitigating the relationship between work setting and behavior. Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 5 (1), 73-98.

Slåtten, T., & Mehmetoglu, M. (2011). Antecedents and effects of engaged frontline employees: A study from the hospitality industry. Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 21(1), 88-107.

Zablah, A. R., Franke, G. R., Brown, T. J., & Bartholomew, D. E. (2012). How and when does customer orientation influence frontline employee job outcomes? A meta-analytic evaluation. Journal of Marketing, 76(3), 21-40.

EFFECTIVE WINE TOURISM ADVERTISING

Jungyun (Christine) Hur, Sacramento State-California State University
SooCheong (Shawn) Jang, Purdue University

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.

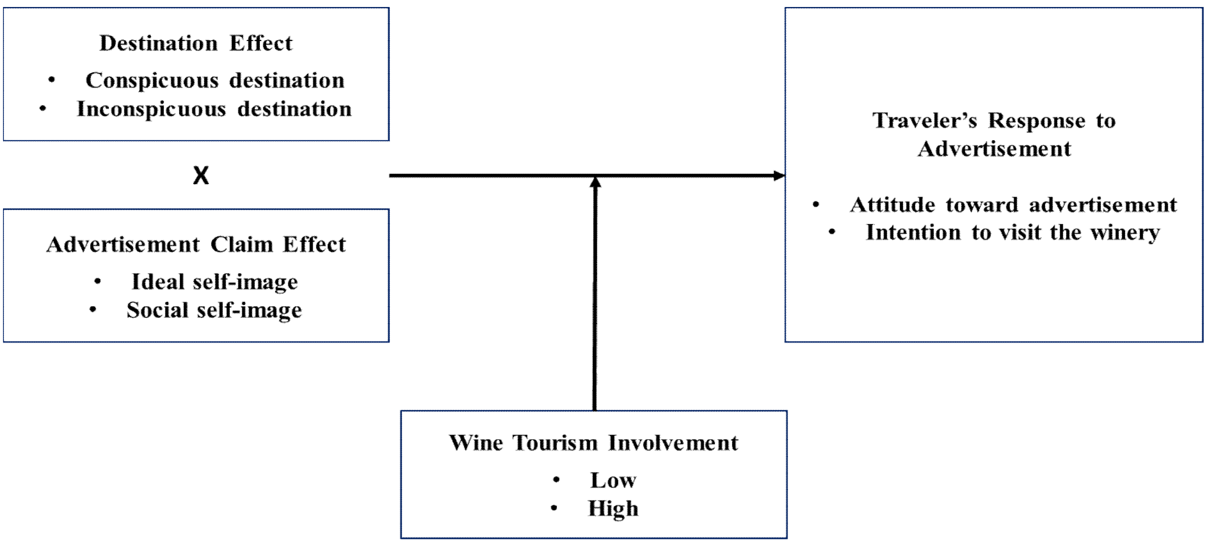


Figure 1. A Research Framework

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.

REFERENCES

Braun, O. L., & Wicklund, R. A. (1989). Psychological antecedents of conspicuous consumption. *Journal of Economic psychology, 10*(2), 161-187.

Byrd, E. T., Canziani, B., Hsieh, Y. C. J., Debbage, K., & Sonmez, S. (2016). Wine tourism: Motivating visitors through core and supplementary services. *Tourism Management, 52*, 19-29.

Drolet, A., Williams, P., & Lau-Gesk, L. (2007). Age-related differences in responses to affective vs. rational ads for hedonic vs. utilitarian products. *Marketing Letters, 18*(4), 211-221.

Getz, D., & Brown, G. (2006). Critical success factors for wine tourism regions: a demand analysis. *Tourism management, 27*(1), 146-158.

Hollebeek, L. D., Jaeger, S. R., Brodie, R. J., & Balemi, A. (2007). The influence of involvement on purchase intention for new world wine. *Food Quality and Preference, 18*(8), 1033-1049.

Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. (2006). Predicting behavioral intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism management, 27*(4), 589-599.

Lockshin, L., Quester, P., & Spawton, T. (2001). Segmentation by involvement or nationality for global retailing: A cross-national comparative study of wine shopping behaviours. *Journal of Wine Research, 12*(3), 223-236.

MacLeod, N., & Hayes, D. (2013). Understanding self-guided trails: two explorative typologies. *Managing Leisure, 18*(4), 257-272.

Moulard, J., Babin, B. J., & Griffin, M. (2015). How aspects of a wine's place affect consumers' authenticity perceptions and purchase intentions: The role of country of origin and technical terroir. *International Journal of Wine Business Research, 27*(1), 61-78.

Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research,* *38*(4), 340-352.

Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-concept in consumer behavior: A critical review. *Journal of consumer research, 9*(3), 287-300.

Sirgy, M. J. (1985). Using self-congruity and ideal congruity to predict purchase motivation. *Journal of business Research, 13*(3), 195-206.

Vermeir, I., & Verbeke, W. (2006). Impact of values, involvement and perceptions on consumer attitudes and intentions towards sustainable consumption. *Journal of Agricultural & Environmental Ethics, 19*(2), 169-94.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research, 12*(3), 341-352.

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

Annaliese Gillette, East Carolina University
JungHoon Lee, East Carolina University

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 ($\beta = .30$, $p < .001$) significantly contributed to predicting CQ, supporting Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive relationship between CQ and ICA. Results showed that ICA ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .01$) 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: $\beta = .27$; and mediating model: $\beta = .21$), 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 ($\Delta\chi 2 = 31.11$, $\Delta df = 16$, $p < .01$), 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.

REFERENCES

Ang, S., & Van Dyne, L. (2008). Handbook of Cultural Intelligence: Theory, Measurement, and Applications. New York, NY: ME Sharpe.

Arora, P., & Rohmetra, N. (2010). Cultural intelligence: Leveraging differences to bridge the gap in the international hospitality industry. International Review of Business Research Papers, 6(5), 216-234.

Berger, C.R., & Calabrese, R.J. (1975). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: Toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. Human Communication Research, 1(2), 99-112.

Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures. Palo Alto, CA: Stanford University Press.

Gabel, R. S., Dolan, S. L., & Cerdin, J. L. (2005). Emotional intelligence as predictor of cultural adjustment for success in global assignments. Career Development International, 10(5), 375–395.

Mayer, J., & Salovey, P. (1990). Emotional intelligence. Amityville: NY. Baywood Publishing Co., Inc.

Neuliep, J.W., & McCroskey, J.C. (1997a). The development of a U.S. and generalized ethnocentrism scale. Communication Research Reports, 14, 385-398.

Neuliep, J.W., & McCroskey, J.C. (1997b). The development of intercultural and interethnic communication apprehension scales. Communication Research Reports, 14, 145-156.

Sumner, W.G. (1906). Folkways: The Sociological Importance of Usages, Manners, Customs, Mores, and Morals, Ginn & Co., New York, NY.

Thomas, K.M. (1996). Psychological privilege and ethnocentrism as barriers to cross-cultural adjustment and effective intercultural interactions. The Leadership Quarterly, 7(2), 215-228.