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REACTIONS IN SERVICE FAILURE: THE EFFECTS OF BRAND WARMTH AND BRAND COMPETENCE

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INTRODUCTION

Prior literature in services marketing has suggested that major motivations for consumer complaint after service failures are to express negative emotions and to look for redress (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax 1997; Nyer 1997), however, some research found out that consumers may also complain with a good intention, that is, to help the service firms to achieve service enhancement (Liu & Mattila, 2015). In this context, we categorize such consumer complaint as positive complaint (i.e., with constructive suggestion), which is different from traditional negative complaint (i.e., without constructive suggestion). Considering the positive outcome of the former one in terms of service improvement, it is of great value to investigate which factors drive consumers to engage in positive complaint under service failure circumstances.

We suggest that consumers' differential perception of a firm brand may lead to whether they choose positive complaint in service failures. In general, consumers may perceive a brand as warm (i.e., having a good intention to do business, e.g., friendly and trustworthy) or competent (i.e., having an ability to achieve its business goal, e.g., professional and efficient) (Kervyn, Fiske and Malone, 2012). A warm image is linked with social responsibility and caring, while a competent image is related to expertise. Consumers would be more likely to have a higher level of empathy and intention to help a service firm with a warm (vs. competent) image, and such help intention would translate to positive complaint intention in service failure. We also posit that a competent (vs. warm) brand would lead to higher likelihood for customers to attribute the failure to external factors and less stability to service providers, thus maintaining an

inclination to repurchase in spite of a low voice intention.

METHOD

In a pilot study, we recruited 173 college participants (113 Women, $M_{age} = 21.79$). Participants were firstly asked their perception of warmth and competence towards several brands in various industries (e.g., luxury products, electronic devices, restaurants), two of which were our focal brands – one social-enterprise café and one commercial café in the campus. Social enterprises are perceived warm but not competent compared to commercial counterparts (Aaker, Vohs and Mogilner, 2010). Expectation of service quality was measured for control purpose. Then consumers were randomly assigned to the two conditions of brand perception (warm vs. competent). Participants first read a scenario about ordering a cup of coffee shortly before their morning class. We manipulated the perception of a warm brand by describing the venue as the social-enterprise café in the college. Similarly, competent brand was manipulated as the commercial café in the same college. Then the service failure was described as the attendant wrongly giving them a cup of iced coffee after they particularly asked for a cup of hot coffee (the prices between the hot the cold coffee is the same). Later, participants indicated their purchase intention, intention to provide constructive suggestion and complain, and dissatisfaction level towards the café.

FINDINGS

Analysis of perception measures confirmed the social enterprise is perceived warmer than the commercial café. In contrast, the latter is perceived

more competent than the former. Participants did not report significantly different dissatisfaction levels and intentions to complain between two conditions. Furthermore, the two dimensions of brand perception on suggestion and return intention were significant respectively. Specifically, participants reported a higher intention to give constructive suggestions when service firm is perceived with a warm (vs. competent) brand image, whereas the likelihood to repurchase remained parallel. Meanwhile, participants implied a higher intention to return to a competent brand (vs. warm) brand. However, such competent brand image does not lead to differential effects on the intention to provide positive complaints.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

While previous literature studied negative complaining behaviors mainly, we examine the positive consumer complaints (i.e., constructive suggestion). We suggest that the two dimensions of brand perception - warmth and competence would influence customers' intention to provide positive complaint and return intention independently. We will conduct more experimental studies to reveal the underlying mechanism in the future.

Our results provide managerial implications in the area of brand building. Although generally speaking, maintaining a positive brand image would be an effective strategy to attenuate negative outcomes under service failures, the specific outcomes (i.e., providing constructive suggestions and repurchase) differ by the focus of brand image.

That is, building a competent brand image could maintain customers' repurchase intention, however, it does not encourage customers to voice their opinions when service failures happen. Thus, if the service deficiency is not tackled in the long term, the service organizations would face difficulties maintaining customer base. In contrast, building a warm brand image would be beneficial in the sense that firms can collect constructive feedbacks for enhancing service quality in the long run.

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VIRTUAL REALITY APPLIED TO THE HERITAGE PARK TOUR

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INTRODUCTION

The monuments are the relics or sites left by the trajectory of human civilization, and the monuments behind each monument are more vivid and lively stories. The ancient monuments are the witnesses of history, and they are the carriers of cultural inheritance. The connection between the past, the present, and the future is of great significance to human civilization. It can be used to understand the life and wisdom of the ancestors; it can guide us to understand the historical connotation of its cultural connotation, and it will be able to pass on this culture to the future. Therefore, the preservation of monuments is an urgent task. It is not only to protect the precious historical heritage from being damaged but also to be able to appreciate and watch the public. How to preserve and preserve the monuments is a major issue today.

With the advancement of technology and the popularity of the Internet, from the development of pictures, traditional photos, digital photography to web multimedia, the way digital content is presented has also undergone great changes. The carrier has evolved from flat books, magazines, and papers. Mobile phone, tablet. In recent years, the emergence of virtual reality (VR) technology, combined with sound, image, animation, computer computing technology and related equipment, using the computer to simulate the 3D space, when the user wears VR glasses, let the user produce a human-like appearance the illusion of its environment makes the user experience more diverse.

The purpose of this study is to use virtual

reality (VR) technology to guide the monuments. It cannot be used to make up for the shortcomings of the traditional plane introduction, and it can make the user feel as if they are in the historical site, which is similar to the scene. The effect can reduce the damage to the monument. In addition, the virtual reality platform can be used to guide the monuments. It can also be integrated through video and audio, video, contact information, animation, and interactive in the virtual environment so that users have a deeper experience.

METHOD

This study first provides ideas and ideas through a large number of network-augmented reality-related materials, collects relevant audio-visual materials for the desired monuments, and plans the presentation structure to start digital content production. And facilities, presented in the form of virtual reality.

In order to create digital content in virtual reality, the choice of hardware is very important. Although the general smartphone also has software to take panoramic photos, the software uses a special algorithm to synthesize the photos, basically has a lot of distortion, and cannot get a good virtual reality experience. The panoramic camera Garmin Virb 360 used in this study has 2 fisheye lenses and "4K Spherical Stabilization" function. It has a panoramic image anti-shock function, which can capture complete 360-degree picture and surround sound, and display dynamic images and still photos with high resolution. It can take a panoramic photo of 15 million pixels.



Figure 1. Schematic diagram of Virb 360

After taking a panoramic photo of each scene of the monument, you need to understand the characteristics of the panorama and preprocess the part that needs to be retouched. In the production part of virtual reality content, there are various tools and platforms at present, and some can directly download software to edit on the computer, but considering the subsequent sharing and dissemination, direct use of the network platform is a more economical and effective choice. In addition, the types of digital content that can be presented are also important considerations, such as basic text, audio and video, images, and even further web content. Therefore, this study chose the “Thinglink” platform to create digital content in virtual reality. According to the scene design, the collection of the related materials of the historic site and the panorama photo editing, together with the audio guide and the film introduction, can finally complete the streetscape tour of the historic site, and add the cultural relic information in the park to let the visitors experience Virtual reality tour guide.

FINDINGS

This study provides ideas and ideas through a large number of network-augmented reality-related materials. Through Garmin Virb 360 and camera shooting Street View and importing “Thinglink” post-production, editing, beautification, etc., the environment, equipment, and facilities are expanded. The reality is presented in the form of virtual reality, which promotes cultural assets of the monument to the public and tourists.

Because most visitors make a look at the park's monuments, the form is designed to be the front door of the park, plus the campus address and ride information to allow visitors to get all the information they need in one form.

Below is a screenshot of the Oxford Guide to the tourist guide:

Oxford College (known as "School of Science") is a Western-style modern school founded in 1882 by the Canadian Christian Presbyterian missionary Rev. George Leslie Mackay in Tamsui, Taiwan.

(Wikipedia, 2019)

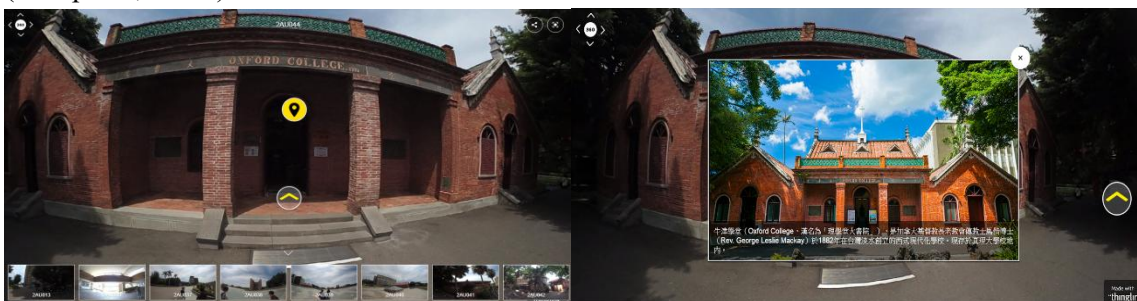


Figure 2. Oxford College screenshot

Figure 3. Oxford College Description

In addition to making streetscapes and using the features of the form, this study allows users to maximize the effects of the finished products produced by the Institute. The virtual reality adds more information to the panorama of the landscape, which not only enriches the content but also adds some fun.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study is to make the crystallization of digital technology widely used in human life, greatly improve the convenience of life, and then complete the great ambition to drive the social economy.

This study produced an action-based navigation system through virtual reality, which will attract visitors to understand regional settings, cultural relics, and historical culture.

The main results of this study are as follows:

1. Let visitors know more about park information and cultural relics and attractions.
2. Use digital products such as smartphones

or tablets to conduct navigational activities to reduce paper abuse in the written guidebook and reduce the manpower of the commentator.

3. Expanding the information in the real world can reduce the time for visitors to check, and can quickly get information about the object.

4. Utilize the development of science and technology, implement digital interaction in the experience of cultural innovation, bring more fun and novelty of tourism, and enhance the cultural impression of tourists on the spot.

5. Increasing the virtual object into reality through the real-life scanning, adding the level of interactive experience of cultural innovation, complementing the situation that the past history and culture failed to present.

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COMPREHENSIVE ANALYSIS OF UNESCO WORLD HERITAGE SITES (WHSs) IN “DANGER” CATEGORY

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INTRODUCTION

UNESCO World Heritage Sites (WHSs) are areas of such Outstanding Universal Value (OUV) that they are given status as places of cultural or ecological significance. Most of the countries with these sites of OUV see the awarding of UNESCO status as a way to bolster their economy, not only from tourism, but also from many different agencies that can provide funds to the country for restoration or conservation processes (Caust & Vecco, 2017). As an increase in visitors bring in economic prosperity to the communities, at the same time, it may also threaten the unique features of the local culture. Goh (2015) stated that with the arrival of WHS in the Lenggong Valley, conservation management started solely focusing on ways to retain its OVUs for its archaeological significance. This study also suggests that it creates a strain between the official OVUs and the local values. From a community perspective, the contemporary heritage management of the Lenggong Valley tends to depreciate local cultural values and their living traditions. It is important that tourism at WHSs should not only be encouraged, but it should be protected as well (Goh, 2015). The findings from another study showed that 60% of WHSs are potentially exposed to at least one of four geological hazards examined, namely earthquakes, landslides, volcanic eruptions, and tsunamis (Pavlova, Makarigakis, Depret, & Jomelli, 2017). Those dangers appear to be common at WHSs and it should be carefully analyzed to assess the disaster risk. It is recommended that the guidelines for periodic reporting can address the need for baseline security at WHSs, whereas seeking international collaboration with the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) to

encourage and require standards of protection through regulation, can have far-reaching benefits for WHSs and meaningful impact on both a global and domestic scale (Vrabel, 2014). There are 1092 UNESCO WHSs worldwide preserving valued cultural and natural resources. However, 54 sites are currently in danger of being delisted of their status (UNESCO World Heritage Center, n.d.). The cause of their degradation ranges from Flooding to Financial Resources and include 66 possible factors/threats. Existing literature focuses on the degradation of single or multiple sites, mainly due to environmental factors, poor management, or over tourism. The purpose of this study is to fill the gap in the literature by providing a comprehensive analysis of all 54 UNESCO WHSs in “Danger” category. In doing that, we examined the reoccurring factors/threats that contribute to site degradation. A proper understanding of these factors and their measure of frequencies can provide insight on identifying immediate needs of these sites and suggest policy recommendations towards their protection. We argue that the better understanding of the sites and their status and the policies that shape their management could contribute to better protect and establish more stable UNESCO WHSs.

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected from the website of UNESCO (UNESCO World Heritage Center, n.d.). All the data is current to the 2018 UNESCO report. For all the 54 UNESCO WHSs in “Danger” category, we examined the site type (e.g., natural or cultural), the year the site was inscribed as UNESCO WHS, the year put in “Danger” category, and the factors that affect the state of conservation.

Further, these factors' categorizations into five different themes based on their characteristics similarity are assessed.

Table 1: Descriptive Information for UNESCO WHSs in “Danger” Category

World Heritage Sites (WHSs)	Type	Year Listed	Year Listed in “Danger” Category
Minaret and Archaeological Remains of Jam	Cultural	2002	2002-Present
Cultural Landscape and Archaeological Remains of the Bamiyan Valley	Cultural	2003	2003-Present
Historic Centre of Vienna	Cultural	2001	2017-Present
City of Potosi	Cultural	1987	2014-Present
Manovo-Gounda St Floris National Park	Natural	1988	1997-Present
Humberstone and Santa Laura Saltpeter Works	Cultural	2005	2005-Present
Virunga National Park	Natural	1979	1994-Present
Kahuzi-Biega National Park	Natural	1980	1997-Present
Garamba National Park	Natural	1980	1984-1992 & 1996-Present
Salonga National Park	Natural	1984	1999-Present
Okapi Wildlife Reserve	Natural	1996	1997-Present
Abu Mena	Cultural	1979	2001-Present
Mount Nimba Strict Nature Reserve*	Natural	1981	1992-Present
Rio Platano Biosphere Reserve	Natural	1982	1996-2007 & 2011-Present
Tropical Rainforest Heritage of Sumatra	Natural	2004	2011-Present
Hatra	Cultural	1985	2015-Present
Ashur (Qal'at Sherqat)	Cultural	2003	2003-Present
Samarra Archaeological City	Cultural	2007	2007-Present
Old City of Jerusalem and its Walls	Cultural	1981	1982-Present
Lake Turkana National Park	Natural	1997	2018-Present
Archaeological Site of Cyrene	Cultural	1982	2016-Present
Archaeological Site of Leptis Magna	Cultural	1982	2016-Present
Archaeological Site of Sabratha	Cultural	1982	2016-Present
Rock-Art Sites of Tadrart Acacus	Cultural	1985	2016-Present
Old Town of Ghadames	Cultural	1986	2016-Present
Rainforests of the Atsinanana	Natural	2007	2010-Present
Old Towns of Djenné	Cultural	1988	2016-Present
Timbuktu	Cultural	1988	1990-2005 & 2012-Present
Tomb of Askia	Cultural	2004	2012-Present
Nan Madol: Ceremonial Centre of Eastern Micronesia	Cultural	2016	2016-Present
Air and Tenere Natural Reserves	Natural	1991	1992-Present
Birthplace of Jesus: Church of the Nativity and the Pilgrimage Route, Bethlehem	Cultural	2012	2012-Present
Palestine: Land of Olives and Vines-Cultural Landscape of Southern Jerusalem, Battir	Cultural	2014	2014-Present
Hebron/Al-Khalil Old Town	Cultural	2017	2017-Present
Fortifications on the Caribbean Side of Panama: Portobelo-San Lorenzo	Cultural	1980	2012-Present
Chan Chan Archaeological Zone	Cultural	1986	1986-Present
Niokolo-Koba National Park	Natural	1981	2007-Present
Medieval Monuments in Kosovo	Cultural	2004	2006-Present
East Rennell	Natural	1998	2013-Present
Ancient City of Damascus	Cultural	1979	2013-Present
Ancient City of Bosra	Cultural	1980	2013-Present
Site of Palmyra	Cultural	1980	2013-Present
Ancient City of Aleppo	Cultural	1986	2013-Present
Crac des Chevaliers and Qal'at Salah El-Din	Cultural	2006	2013-Present
Ancient Villages of Northern Syria	Cultural	2011	2013-Present
Tombs of Buganda Kings at Kasubi	Cultural	2001	2010-Present
Liverpool-Maritime Mercantile City	Cultural	2004	2012-Present
Selous Game Reserve	Natural	1982	2014-Present
Everglades National Park	Natural	1979	1993-2007 & 2010-Present
Historic Centre of Shakhrisyabz	Cultural	2000	2016-Present
Coro and its Port	Cultural	1993	2005-Present
Old Walled City of Shibam	Cultural	1982	2015-Present
Old City of Sana'a	Cultural	1986	2015-Present
Historic Town of Zabid	Cultural	1993	2000-Present

FINDINGS

There are 16 natural and 38 cultural WHSs in “Danger” category (Table 1). Five themes from

66 factors/threats include: *Construction and Infrastructure, Pollution, Resource Extraction and Use, Human Activities, and Natural Events.* (Figure 1).

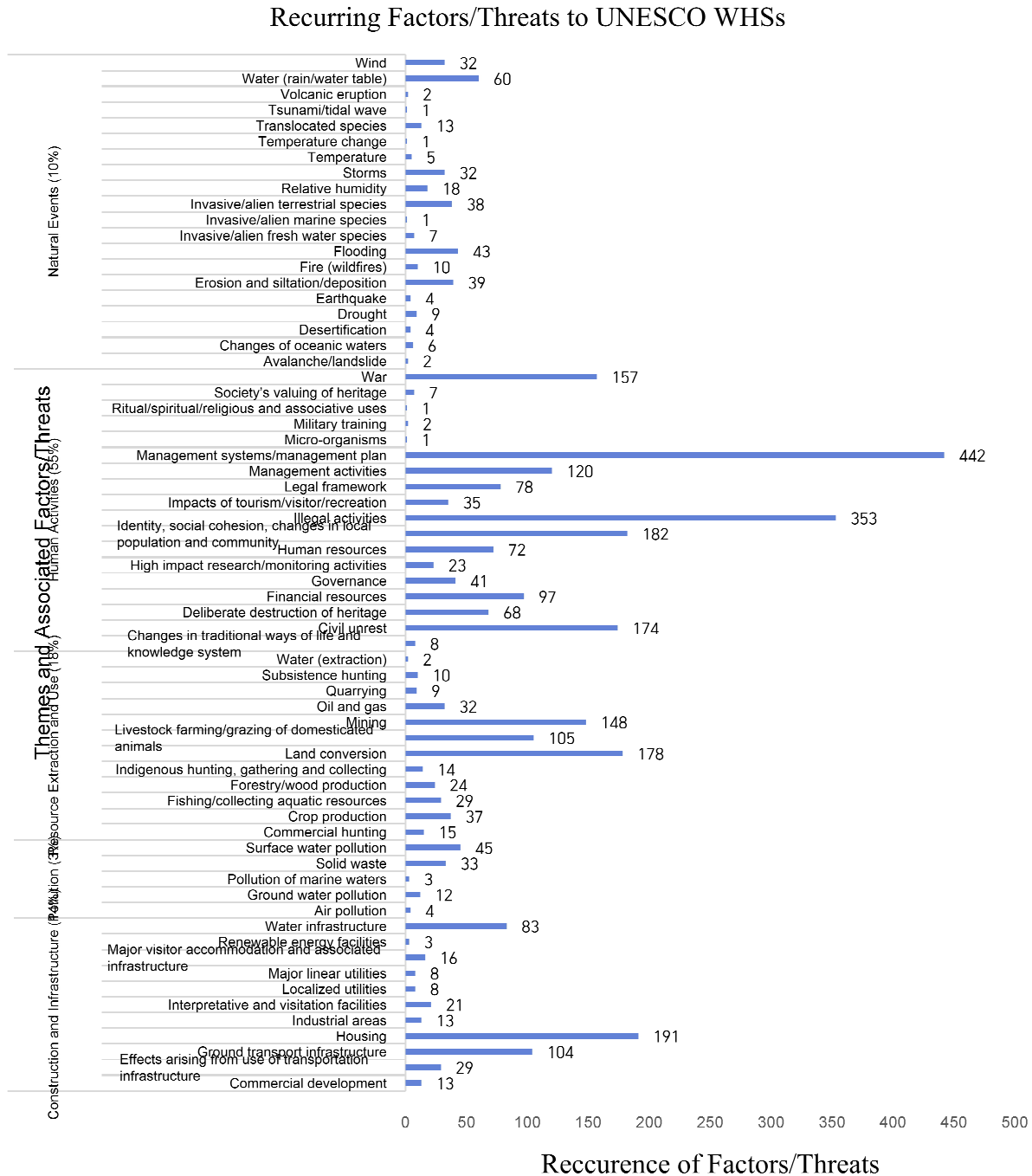


Figure 1: Factors/Threats and their prevalence to UNESCO World Heritage Sites (WHSs)

Findings show that *Human Activities* are the primary threats (55%) causing degradation of UNESCO WHSs followed by *Resource Extraction*

and Use (18%), *Construction and Infrastructure* (14%), *Natural Events* (10%), and *Pollution* (3%). Within these major themes, “management

systems/management plan,” “illegal activities,” “housing,” “identity, social cohesion, changes in local population and community,” and “land conversion” are the top most prevalent threats recurring in UNESCO WHSs globally.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Having a holistic view of the WHSs allows policy makers to best prioritize management of in-danger sites. It is clear that in-danger sites are impacted mostly by *Human Activities* which need immediate attention and a better management strategy. The body of literature on over tourism at WHSs speaks to this issue as well. Carrying capacity calculations should be done on UNESCO WHSs prior to providing status to prepare the site for the influx in interest and human use. “Civil unrest,” “War,” “Identity, social cohesion, changes in local population and community,” and “Illegal activities” are significant factors/threats with many instances of reoccurrence but are harder to manage/control. Context-based understanding is required to devise a strategy to mitigate some of these problems. However, WHSs with similar threats should reciprocate and collaborate to serve their mutual interests of solving the problems. We also argue that the best way to protect the sites is to prioritize the people; their needs and associated issues. Having people at the core of the management practice by adopting an inclusive approach can enable people to develop feelings of ownership with those places in which they live, and this promotes conservation.

The need for a people-first approach is modeled after the success of community-based tourism which asserts that the local communities of destinations and areas of cultural and ecological significance are best able to identify management plans that fit their particular needs. Meanwhile, other subsequent themes and their interrelation with the *Human Activities* should be kept in mind to cope with these threats.

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THE UNDERLYING CAUSES OF THE DECLINE OF “KALESA” IN NAGA CITY, CAMARINES SUR

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INTRODUCTION

Culture is every country's treasure. It includes the history, tradition and lifestyle of the people in the past that has left a significant mark and in some way had shaped the people's way of life. In some countries especially those with rich culture and tradition, may it be urban or rural areas, have been showcasing their cultural facilities and traditions through their museums, festivals, rituals and indigenous practices. It is evident that tourism plays a vital role in nurturing a place culture and tradition. Culture tourism as defined in the Cultural Tourism in Europe by Richard (1996), is the movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs.

Philippines is one of the countries that tourists like to explore because of its unique and rich heritage. In a report made by the Bureau of Trade in Industry on January 14, 2019, the international tourist's arrivals to the Philippines rose to 7.4% to 5.9 million visitors for the period January to October 2018 compared to its level in the same period last year.

Spanish and American influence runs deep in the Filipinos, some of those traditions can still be seen today however, there are those that Filipinos are slowly forgetting about due to the influence of the western culture which has a great impact to the way of life of the Filipinos. One of which that is slowly vanishing in the streets of Naga City in Camarines Sur is the “kalesa”. A kalesa is a horse-drawn calash used in the Philippines. It was one mode of transportation introduced to the islands in the 18th century by Spanish colonizers, and was initially reserved for only nobles and high-ranking civic officials. Today, they are rarely used, except in the tourist-frequented areas of old cities (Manuga

et. al, 2015).

Kalesa can still be seen in most of the streets in Naga City in the 80s and 90s however due to innovations made in the transportation industry, public commuters preferred riding in a much more modern vehicles which gives a better means of transportation. Through the years, the number of kalesa continues to decline and at present Kalesa can be seen in the streets of Barangay Abella, Naga City only. Younger generations today are not aware that Kalesa has been one of the most used public transportation in Naga City. The ongoing study is aimed to provide knowledge of the history of kalesa in Naga City and uncover the underlying reasons that causes the tradition to decline. Furthermore, the initiatives made by the local government and concerned agencies to preserve the “kalesa” will be determined. Likewise, this study will try to know the future plans of the local government in preserving the declining traditions in Naga City and explore possible ways to preserve the tradition by obtaining necessary information from primary and secondary sources.

METHOD

The researchers made use of the descriptive research design for this study. Key informant interview and survey served as the main tool in gathering information. Five (5) “kutsero” or driver and owners of “kalesa” were involved in this study. Other key persons who were interviewed were Barangay officials in Abella, the City Tourism Officer, local Historian, and a local government official. The transcripts of the interviews were analyzed using content analysis. A random survey will also be conducted to determine the respondents awareness and if they have seen and experienced riding one. The tool will be divided into two portion. The 1st part deals with the basic information needed

to determine the profile of the respondents while the 2nd part determines the cultural awareness of the respondents and the role of the stakeholders in raising awareness and preserving kalesa. The last part is an open ended question to determine the kind of action or tool must the concerned agencies do to revive the kalesa and other traditions of the Naga City that may come up from the study.

FINDINGS

From the initial findings gathered, results showed that there are only seven kalesa operating in Abella, Naga City. According to the *kutseros* or drivers of kalesa, they used to roam around the city before the modern vehicles emerged. They could be seen not only in the street of Abella but also in the major streets of Naga City. Kalesa in the 1970s, 80s and 1990s served as one of the mode of public transportation in the city.

Reasons for the Decline of Kalesa

With the rise of the upgraded vehicles that could transport the commuters easily and conveniently, the passengers decline in numbers as the years passed by. According to the Mr. Alex Santos, Tourism Officer in Naga City. One of the reasons people opted to ride in tricycle and “padyak” rather than *kalesa* is because they could not contain the sight of the horses being whipped down by the *kutseros*. At times the horses stopped to pee or poop in the middle of the street which causes discomfort among the riders. The mixed reactions and feedback from the riding vehicles and the public sector on the horse manure spotted in the major roads and polluting the surroundings of the city and the treatment of the *kutseros* has also contributed to prohibit the *kalesa* in the major of the streets of the city.

In 1993, the Local Government of Naga issued the City Ordinance 93-049 or the Transport and Traffic Code of the City which controls and regulates the operation of motor vehicles, motorized tricycles, bicycle, *padyak* and the likes which include animal vessels such as the *kalesa*. Under the ordinance, new traffic rules and regulations on the street and highways were enforced especially during rush hours. As to the initiatives undertaken by the local government in preserving kalesa, Mr. Santos admitted that they have not thought and

discussed further about the matter yet. He mentioned that their office is working on the documentation of the cultural heritage of the city and continuously promotes the city’s rich culture through the museums, archives and activities of the city. In a survey conducted in Norway by Eivind Falk, he explained that Community centres, museums, archives and other similar entities will not only have an important role in documentation, but also in communicating intangible cultural heritage. The survey being conducted in this study shall provide pertinent information on the roles of the stakeholders in preserving the declining tradition.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

Progress can be very good however, there are some things that are being sacrificed. The case of kalesa in Naga City only manifests that the rise of technology will always affect some important attributes in every society, one of which is the locale’s tradition or culture. The *kutseros* were not given enough attention in Naga. The city is quite unaware of the implication of the vanishing tradition.

Before, kalesa is a symbol of high social status, but now, kalesa is just part of an old tradition and has been replaced by cars and more efficient public utility vehicles. In a study conducted by Quinones (2018), the decline of these carriages as modern vehicles popularized, have greatly affected the *kutseros* as well as the horses. The number of Filipinos who uses kalesa as a source of income led them as not being regarded as much, leading to lower income, misinformation and maltreatment of the horses. The government should provide aid and provide guidance for those interested and currently working for the kalesa.

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THE MT. KUMGANG TOURISM PROJECT: TRACING TOURIST CHANGES BETWEEN SOUTH KOREA AND NORTH KOREA

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INTRODUCTION

In April 2018 an Inter-Korea Summit was held between the Republic of Korea (ROK or “South Korea”) and the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK, or “North Korea”) to initiate a cooperative relationship between the two independent countries. At the third Inter-Korea Summit meeting in Pyongyang in September 2018, the “”, one of the projects proposed to realize this cooperative relationship was the Mt. Kumgang tourism project. In the 2019 New Year Address to the nation, North Korean leader Kim Jong-Un spoke about the resumption of the Kaesong Industrial Complex and Mt. Kumgang tourism project without any precondition. This announcement was welcomed by South Korean President Moon Jae-In. As a result of these high-profile announcements, expectations for the resumption of the Mt. Kumgang tourism project has grown. The current situation on the Korean peninsula seems to be shifting to a peaceful atmosphere with these three inter-Korean summit talks all held within 2018. Even though since then the North American summit talks held in Hanoi in February 2019 were not productive, the two Koreas are continuing to hold dialogue (Hankyoreh 2019 03 10).

International and domestic views towards the Mt. Kumgang tourism project are not all positive. The United States has stated very publicly that international sanctions on North Korea are to be fully maintained until North Korea takes concrete denuclearization measures (Chosun Ilbo 2019 03 09). Therefore, the United States may consider travel to Mt. Kumgang in a negative light, as it

is engaging with North Korea. On the domestic front, it has been pointed out that the cash which would flow into North Korea through a Mt. Kumgang tourism project could be used towards military expenditures, or at the very least, as a means of maintaining the North Korean system (Chosun Ilbo 2011 12 29).

Many scholars and researchers have argued that tourism can play a role in alleviating conflicts between nations divided by religion, race, ideology, war, and contributes to world peace (Butler & Mao, 1996; D'Amore, 1988; Kim & Crompton, 1990; Matthews & Ritcher, 1991; Pizam et al., 2002; Var et al., 1989; Var et al., 1989). In fact, South Korea has experienced several military and diplomatic conflicts, such as the Sea Battle of Yeonpyeong, North Korea's withdrawal from the NPT (Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty), and nuclear tests, but the Mt. Kumgang tourism project has continued. It also means that tourism to Mt. Kumgang plays a big role, and is seen as a symbol, towards inter-Korean reconciliation. However, others do not consider tourism as a catalyst for bringing peace (Anastasopoulous, 1992; Cho, 2007; Kim & Cho, 2006; Kim & Prideaux, 2003; Litvin, 1998; Milman, Reichel, & Pizam, 1990; Pizam, Jafari, & Milman, 1991; Richter, 1983). In particular, one argued that Mt. Kumgang tourism has little contribution to peace on the Korean peninsula (Kim & Cho, 2006).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the state of affairs of the Mt. Kumgang tourism project over a period of 21 years, from its initiation on January 1st, 1998 to March 31st, 2019, following the summit between U.S. and North Korea. In particular, the viewpoint South

1) Mt. Kumgang together with Mt. Baekdu is considered as a National Sacred Mountain through all South and north Korean.

2) Kaesong Industrial Complex was to develop an industrial park where companies could manufacture their products using North Korean labor. The project was launched in 2004, largely financed by the South to increase co-operation.

Koreans have towards South-North tourism is addressed. Findings from this study may contribute towards engaging South-North Korean tourism, thereby enhancing the overall relations between the two Koreas.

LITERATURE REVIEW

South-North Korean Tourism and Mt. Kumgang Tourism

“South-North Korean Tourism” is perhaps somewhat of a misnomer, as in fact it stands for a limited tourism which only allows South Koreans to travel to North Korea, and not the other way around. It is therefore not a reciprocal relationship, as the initial term may imply. South-North Korea Tourism can be divided into two types: ‘Mt. Kumgang Tourism’ and ‘Kaesong Tourism’ (Hyundai Economic Research institute, 2012). While ‘Kaesong Tourism’ started in 2007 and lasted only for 1 year, ‘Mt. Kumgang Tourism’ started in 1998, and had lasted for 10 years until 2008. At that time an unfortunate incident occurred where a Mt. Kumgang tourist was shot and killed.³⁾ Due to the longevity of the former therefore, most research related to “South-North Tourism” has been focused on ‘Mt. Kumgang Tourism’ (Cho, 2004; Cho, 2007; Jeong, Choi, & Jeong, 2002; Kim & Cho, 2006; Kim & Prideaux, 2006; Kim, 2002; Shin, 2011) In fact, ‘Mt. Kumgang Tourism’ and ‘South-North Tourism’ are often used as interchangeable terms because there really is no alternative at present to Mt. Kumgang for South-North Korean tourism.

South-North Korean Tourism started in November 1998, initiated by Hyundai Group Founder, Chung Ju-yung, who visited North Korea at that time with 500 cows as a gift to them. Since that time, there have been several crises which have hampered inter-Korean exchanges, such as the bombardment of Yeonpyeong⁴⁾, and the nuclear weapons tests of North Korea⁵⁾. However, in 2003 when the Mt. Kumgang tour program started, termed the ‘ground tour program’, and Kaesong, these

situations had settled down. However, this peaceful situation lasted only five years, until the death of a Mt. Kumgang tourist in 2008. Although tremendous political effort and positive media reporting was put towards the rectification of this incident, to encourage the resumption of South-North Korean tourism, there has been no forward progress to date. However, after the inauguration of Moon Jae-in as South Korea’s president, inter-Korean summits were held. With three inter-Korean summits held in 2018, there are favorable currents towards South-North Korean Tourism, and expectations for the resumption of inter-Korean tourism are increasing.

To date, many studies have been done about Mt. Kumgang tourism examining South-North Korean Tourism potentials, but still to date researchers cite a lack of longitudinal research existing in the body of literature, as current research is limited to a short-term period of time only.

Tourism and Trust

“Trust” is considered to be the belief that enables one to voluntarily embrace dangerous behavior based on the expectation that everyone involved in a task will do their best job (Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Hosmer, 1995). It has the implication of a willingness to take on risky elements voluntarily, under the expectation that the person or persons involved in the situation will perform to their best (Hosmer, 1995). In other words, “trust” is a psychological state involving a “trustee” a person who is giving the trust, and a “trustor”, a person whom this trust is being invested (Holmes & Rempel, 1989). The higher the trust among the members, the more active the communication will be, and the higher the quality of information sharing and mutual cooperation will be between the two entities (Lee, Kim, & Hong, 2009). However, explaining trust merely as a psychological state has the risk of narrowing the concept, and creating a negative impression (Kramer, 1999). Trust can be applied not only to individual human relations, but it can be

3) For more information and details on this occurrence please see: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mount_Kumgang_Tourist_Region

4) For more information and details on this occurrence please see: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bombardment_of_Yeonpyeong

5) For more information and details on this occurrence please see: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_nuclear_weapons_tests_of_North_Korea

extrapolated to the field of international relations, to be used not only on an institutional level but also on a country level.

If we apply this concept of trust on a country to country level, it means that one country takes on a risk for themselves due to investing in another country; or it may be that the other country is willing to accept the investment of trust in them (Ju, 2014). Trust, when considered in the parameters of the international community, can be seen as having trust in other countries, with the belief that most countries have goodwill (Brewer, 2004). The essence of trust has roots in political philosophy, with Kant (1796) in his doctrine “Perpetual Peace”, presenting six main dictums for immediate peace to be achieved, and three consequent dictums on how to build on and maintain that trust for permanent peace among nations. He noted in the sixth main dictums that trust is very important, especially during the time of war, and that confidence in this trust must not be broken in order that peace may not be reconcilable. As such, his dictum states that countries should not attempt to ‘assassinate’ or ‘poison’ other countries, or incite rebellion. Kant believed that these actions made it impossible for the trust to remain for peace between nations to be concluded. In a more contemporary setting, Brewer et al. (2004) also refers in the belief to trust as common sense, even though most countries have doubted other countries and the assumption that these other countries have good intentions and good will toward them as a country. Trust as “credit” and “duty” is an important type of trust that all countries should build, unless the country is within the ranks of the great power countries’ (Ju, 2014). As Fukuyama (1995) has noted a country's competitiveness is determined by the level of trust it possesses and once it loses this trust, it loses the opportunity to make future promises to other countries (Hardin, 2002), in other words, it loses its leverage.

There are not many studies on “tourism and trust”, but there are mainly studies focusing on the necessity of trust for sustainable tourism. Bramwell (2005) in his work, describes the characteristics of trust within tourism governance, focusing on the governance of sustainable tourism. Nunkoo (2017) conducted research on governance and sustainable tourism related to trust, power, and social capital. Trust requires itself in society as well as within countries. Tourism is an agent as well as an agency,

operating not only within one country but also between countries. Therefore, tourist exchanges are obviously the most effective means towards the cessation and solving of hostility between two entities, thereby establishing a trusting relationship through the physical exchanges of human contact (D'Amore, 1988).

Tourism and peace

Just as there have been many studies on “tourism and trust”, there have been many studies on the relationship between tourism and peace (Anastasopoulous, 1992; Anson, 1996; Butler & Mao, 1996; Caneday, 1991; Cho 2007; D'amore, 1988; Guangrui, 1993 Guo, 2006; Kant, 1796; Kim & Cho, 2006; Kim & Prideaux, 2003; Knopf, 1991; Litvin, 1998; Meinardus, 1999; Milman, Reichel, & Pizam 1990; Pizam, 2002; Pizam, Milman, & Jafari, 1991; Richter, 1983; Steffen, 1997). Studies have been conducted specifically to investigate whether tourism brings peace (Anastasopoulous, 1992; Cho, 2007, Kim & Cho, 2006, Kim & Prideaux, 2003, Litvin, 1998, Milman et al., 1990, Pizam et al., 1991; Richter, 1983). , Anastasopoulous (1992) researched whether tourism could play a role as a peace mediator in the controversial situation between Greece and Turkey. Milman et al. (1990) examines the relation between Israel and Egypt; Pizam et al. (1991) suggest an empirical study on tourism not acting as a catalyst for peace in the US-Soviet relations (Anastasopoulous, 1992; Milman et al., 1990; Pizam et al., 1991). Litvin (1998) questions whether tourism is beneficiary to bringing about a peaceful situation, if not able to act as a catalyst of peace. He argues that careful scrutiny is needed to contribute to peace, which is often referred to as ‘the role of tourism’. (Cho, 2007) claims that tourism contributes to peace more than is known Kim & Prideaux (2003) argue that and tourism is a by-product of peace.

Kant (1796) in his “Perpetual Peace” states that people deserve the ‘right of asylum or hospitality, albeit without the ride of permanent residence’. In other words, people should be allowed to travel to other countries freely. Many scholars have noted that tourism can be used as a vehicle to relieve tension between countries (Butler & Mao, 1996; Guangrui, 1993; Pizam, 2002; Meinardus, 1999), and that tourism contributes to world peace

by improving international understanding and cooperation through various exchanges (Canaday, 1991; D' Amore, 1988; Guo, 2006; Knopf, 1991; Steffen, 1997).

METHOD

Contents analysis method

Contents analysis is a research method that describes communication contents in an objective, systematic and quantitative manner (Berelson, 1952; Budd, Thorp, & Donohew, 1967). It is a method of analysis often used in research for recorded documents, such as books, magazines, newspapers, speeches, letters, poems, songs, pictures, websites, e-mails, and internet posts (Babbie, 2015; Chung & Kim, 2001; Kim & Cho, 2015; Oh & Kim, 2000; Park, Jeon, & Jeong, 2012). Content analysis has been used to evaluate trends in the field of tourism research (Cho, 1997, Dann, Nash, & Pearce, 1988; DeSchriver, & Weissinger, 1984; Kim, 1990; Riddick, Rive & Upchurch, 2008). From the year 2000 onwards, a number of studies have focused on domestic tourism phenomena using and in particular, content analysis of newspapers (Cho & Park, 2008; Kim & Cho, 2006; Kim & Cho, 2015; Kim & Kim, 2003; Son, 2018).

Sampling plan

Mass media has a great impact on individuals' perception of events (Noh & Shin, 2012). Newspaper articles from mass media are important sources of information individuals use to acquire information about past events (Lee, Lee, & Yang, 2018). However, newspapers have different ideological tendencies, so even if it is the same issue being reported, the view of that issue may be different depending on a particular media's philosophical grounding (Dunwoody & Griffin, 1993; Shoemaker & Reese, 1996).

For this study, selected newspaper articles from a variety of mass media sources were gathered in order to account for the various perceptions, especially the citizens' viewpoints and perceptions as highlighted the media sources, as it pertained to tourism in Mt. Kungang. Several articles were amassed (Cho & Park, 2008; Kim & Cho, 2015; Kim & Kim, 2003; Lee et al., 2018; Lee, Han, & Kim, 2018; Lee & Kang, 2013; Shim 2013; You, Yoon, Chun, & Ju, 2017) from both a conservative

daily newspaper in South Korea known, Chosun Ilbo, and a progressive daily newspaper, Hankyoreh. Only the editorials within the newspapers were selected for analysis because this is the part of the paper that expresses the greatest philosophical grounding of a newspaper. (Cho & Park, 2008).

The purpose of this study is to examine the changes in the viewpoints held within the newspapers related to 'Mt. Kungang tourism' from the period of the South Korean government under President Kim Dae-jung to the current government of President Moon Jae-in. It is from President Kim Dae-jung's government period that the Mt. Kungang tourism project initiated. Following research by Kim & Cho (2006), which analyzes the peace index of Kungang tourism, the keyword used to collect material for the current analysis was "Mt. Kungang". terials gathered for this research was obtained from the Chosun Ilbo Archiveand KINDS, both available online.

Coding Categories

Content analysis requires the formation of "coding categories," or themes, to gather information which is diverse, yet has similar characteristics (Oh & Lee, 2000). The themes used to gather data for the present analysis were: as target newspaper, the article period, the article focus, and the article tone (Barnes et al., 2008; Kim & Cho, 2015; Kim & Kim, 2003; Lee et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018).

The focus of article was decided through the researches of Kim & Cho (2006) Kim & Prideaux (2006) and KINDS, and classified into five categories as political diplomacy, social culture, economy, military and tourism. The tone of article is to identify the attitude of the media, which means the viewpoint or the attitude toward the subject (Jung & Yu, 2013), especially Mt. Kungang tourism. Therefore, the article tone is divided into three part, 'Positive tone,' 'Negative tone', and 'Neutral.' (Lee, 2009) The article 'Positive tone' uses an optimistic or positive language and the article 'Negative tone' uses hostile, conflicting, cynical, negative, aggressive language and articles of 'neutral tone' just deliver objective facts about the subject (Jung & Yu, 2013).

Reliability

Reliability means that the same results can

be obtained by measuring the same data independently (Oh & Lee, 2000). In particular, reliability in content analysis is a measure of the degree coding categories are same among coders (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). As such, two methods are used to ensure the reliability measurement. “Intracoder reliability” is used to ensure the result from of a single coder is consistent and can be repeated; “intercoder reliability” is used to ensure consistency of results between different coders (Kondracki, Wellman, & Amundson, 2002).

Assuming that the population is the data used in the content analysis, the reliability is representative in the case of randomly sampled samples (Kim, 2005). Since the sample is the most appropriate sample to extract 10% of the data used for content analysis (Lombard, Synder-Duch, & Bracken, 2002), 37 of the 362 articles were selected randomly. In qualitative research, there is a risk that subjectivity intervenes in the grouping and

categorization of factors (Drapeau, 2002). In this study, we were aware of such a phenomena, and tried to ensure both intracoder and intercoder reliability were consistent. The current study has an intracoder reliability rate of 90%, considered the lowest reliability rate for a content analysis study (Holsti, 1969). The intercoder reliability measurement, 90% in the article focus, 90% in the article tone, and the total reliability was 90%.

FINDINGS

Characteristics of samples

Of the 403 articles examined for this research, 105 were published in the Chosun Ilbo newspaper, and 298 were published in the Hankyoreh newspaper. Articles not related to Mt. Kumgang tourism were excluded. This resulted in 95 usable articles from Chosun Ilbo, and 267 usable articles from Hankyoreh.

Table 1. Frequency by year of term “Mt. Kumgang”

	Chosun Ilbo	Hankyoreh	Total
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
1998	11(11.6)	23(8.6)	34(9.4)
1999	5(5.3)	16(6.0)	21(5.8)
2000	3(3.2)	4(1.5)	7(1.9)
2001	10(10.5)	25(9.4)	35(9.7)
2002	6(6.3)	26(9.7)	32(8.8)
2003	3(3.2)	23(8.6)	26(7.2)
2004	-	4(1.5)	4(1.1)
2005	2(2.1)	5(1.9)	7(1.9)
2006	2(2.1)	11(4.1)	13(3.6)
2007	-	7(2.6)	7(1.9)
2008	7(7.4)	23(8.6)	30(8.3)
2009	2(2.1)	12(4.5)	14(3.9)
2010	6(6.3)	15(5.6)	21(5.8)
2011	3(3.2)	10(3.7)	13(3.6)
2012	1(1.1)	4(1.5)	5(1.4)
2013	1(1.1)	20(7.5)	21(5.8)
2014	3(3.2)	18(6.7)	21(5.8)
2015	-	13(4.9)	13(3.6)
2016	-	-	-
2017	2(3.1)	1(0.4)	3(0.8)
2018	11(11.6)	4(1.5)	15(4.1)
2019	17(17.9)	3(1.1)	20(5.5)
Total	95(100)	267(100)	362(100)

Discussion on contents based on the Period of Published Article

Mt. Kumgang tourism can be seen in enter the newspaper periodicals from when Hyundai Group chairman, the late Chung Ju-yung, visited North Korea in June 1998. One week after Chung's visit to North Korea, an event happened whereby North Korean infiltrated the South using a submarine. This caused a schism in the political arena of South Korea at the time: to continue development of the Mt. Kumgang tourism project, thereby acknowledging a distinction in economic and politic spheres; or to carry through on the project, after receiving an acknowledgement from North Korea of their mistake with an apology and promise to prevent such a recurrence. An editorial in the Chosun Ilbo (June 24th, 1998), stated 'until the North is transformed into a credible opponent in the case of submarine infiltration, it is necessary to establish a complex policy like good cop and bad cop' Such a comment reflects the view that not all citizens trusted North Korea. However, other terms found in the periodicals at that time considered the Mt. Kumgang tourism project still as a 'Breakthrough exchange in private sector,' 'A road of inter-Korean exchanges and the way of thawing sea ice,' 'Our aspiration,' 'The process of breaking down the walls,' and 'One step closer to unification.' The Mt. Kumgang project did in fact continue forward despite the various factions.

In May 1999, the following year, when the Mt. Kumgang tour project already begun, a collision between Hyundai merchant ship and a North Korean ship occurred. Because of the accident, the North refused South Korean cruise ship which travel to Mt. Kumgang to enter the North Korean port at the time, both newspapers criticized North Korea's stance and voiced the need to separate the incident from tourism business of the Mt. Kumgang project. Following this, another incident occurred one month later in June 1999, with an altercation between North Korean and South Korean troops in the West Sea. Then came news of detainment of Mt. Kumgang South Korean tourists. Due to these two large incidents, many worried about how South Koreans can trust and believe North Korea to continue travel to Mt. Kumgang. In a Hankyoreh (May 19th, 1999) editorial it was stated 'the credibility of Mt. Kumgang business originally based on 'trust' has fallen.

In the year 2000, the first inter-Korean summit was held. One might assume that such a summit between the Koreas means the two countries were on the track to a more close relationship. However, trust was not perceived by those in the international community, as a Hankyoreh editorial (June 15th, 2000) states "the international community is not at the stage of assuring North Korea's change. This is because the long-term ideological closeness of North". The South-North summit was held both in North Korea and South Korea for bringing about the ambience of peace. This inter-Korean summit had in fact the opposite effect of what one might expect on the Mt. Kumgang tourism project. The Mt. Kumgang tourism project was reported to have a deficit of 290 billion won (Chosun Ilbo 2000 12 27).

On the domestic front in South Korea, Hyundai Group was experiencing financial instability. This financial instability was being referred to as a "financial crisis" for Hyundai Group in 2001, and it raised many questions about the sustainability of the Mt. Kumgang tourism project. The Hyundai Group requested government support at this time, but the government was unable to provide financial backing because it had just introduced new policies to separate economic intervention of state to private companies ("chaebols") with government "bailout" packages. At the time, both newspapers, with their differing political structural foundations agreed a road forward with the Mt. Kumgang Tourism project was not very feasible, with Chosun Ilbo (May 2nd, 2001) stating "the tourism business of Mt. Kumgang can only be continued if the North Korean authorities understand the South Korean economic system and reality (Chosun Ilbo 2001 05 02)", and the Hankyoreh (May 23rd, 2001), stating "without profit, it cannot last long and be sustainable, no matter how good a business is. "

KCC Corporation, which was renamed from Kumgang Korea Chemicals in 2005, and is an affiliate of Hyundai, took over Hyundai Group, in 2003, due to its deficit. KCC said that despite the government's support, it will reconsider the Mt. Kumgang tourism project, which suffered a loss of 1 trillion won (860 million dollar) over a five year period of operation. In June 2003, a groundbreaking ceremony occurred opening the Kaesong Industrial Complex, and overland tourism resumed in

September. In 2005, the number of tourists to Mt. Kumgang exceeded one million. This shows that tourism to Mt. Kumgang can act as a vehicle to resolve frozen relations between the two Koreas. Even though North Korea tested a Taepodong-2 long-range ballistic missile and conducted a nuclear test in 2006, the tourism flow seemed to only reduce in 2006 to pick up again due to the 2007 inter-Korean summit, when tourism to Kaesong region was introduced in a peaceful mood (Hankyoreh 2007 11 05).

In 2008, however, this all changed with a tourist to Mt. Kumgang was shot and killed by a North Korean soldier. It may have been an accidental event, but it was certainly unexpected, and public opinion was in both newspapers' editorials reported in a negative light. Hankyoreh (July 16th, 2008) stated that "the external image of the North was definitely deteriorated. It is easy to lose trust, but hard to get it back." While the Chosun Ilbo (July 12th, 2008) expressed its thoughts as such: "The government must promptly get apologize from North Korea". In addition to the strong criticism on North Korea, the public asked for clarification of the incident. However, North Korea did not give any clear communication on the matter, nor offer any apology. In fact, to the surprise of many, they demanded an apology from South Korea over this issue. The North argue that the tourist wandered into the North section at a very early odd time in the morning on her own and though the North Korean soldier issued warnings to her, she kept running. In the following November, the President of South Korea at the time, President Lee Myung-bak, a previous CEO of Hyundai Engineering and Construction, emphasized the importance of constructing trust between the South and the North (Hankyoreh 2008 11 26).

Since 2009, inter-Korean relations have been at an impasse, and the Mt. Kumgang tourism project has also been discontinued. North Korea wants to resume tours to Mt. Kumgang, and has offered reunion of separated South and North Korean

families as an incentive, but the South Korean government has countered this invitation, this saying an investigation into the death of the South Korean tourist is needed with measures implemented to prevent any such recurrence in the future. North Korea refused to have an official investigation into this incident, and in 2010, North Korea seized property owned by South Korean businesses in Mt. Kumgang, "North Korea lost trust in international business because it handed Mt. Kumgang tour business right to another travel agencies, excluding Hyundai Group which landed an exclusive contract with Mt Kumgang (Hankyoreh 2010 03 26)."

North Korea initiated the shut down on the Kaesong Industrial Complex in 2013, after which inter-Korean exchanges have mostly been blocked and North Korea's economy has become difficult. In order to aid the impasse, North Korea suggested family reunions and a resumption of the Mt. Kumgang tour. At the time in the editorials, one can see Hankyoreh (August 19th, 2013), stating "North Korea's attitude is to make the reopening of Mt. Kumgang tourism a premise of reunion of separated families" And the Chosun Ilbo (August 20th, 2013) stating "the family reunion is a humanitarian and national issue that should not be associated with any political or economic issues between the two Koreas." Both editorials therefore at the time can be seen to be in disagreement with North Korean thought: Family reunification was not to be used as an issue to resolve the Kaesong Industrial Complex impasse. Though in fact, reunions of separated families occurred in 2014 and 2015 did eventuate, under the government of South Korean President Park Geun-hye, reunions of separated families continued to be a difficult issue, and consequently, the Mt. Kumgang tourism project was also infringed upon. When the incumbent President Moon Jae-In held an inter-Korean summit in 2018, Chosun Ilbo (March 13th, 2017) and Hanyoreh (the expectation for the resumption of tourism on Mt. Kumgang grew.

Table 2. Chronology based on year on SK-NK tourism projects and related exchanges

President	Date	Event
President Kim, D. J.	Jun 1998	Hyundai Group founder Chung visits North Korea delivering 500 cattle
	Nov 1998	Commencement of the Mt. Kumgang cruise tour
	Jun 1999	Detention of Min, Y.M. a South Korean tourist
	Jun 1999	First battle of Yeonpyeong
	Jan 2002	Financial problem with Mt. Kumgang tourism
	Jun 2002	Second battle of Yeonpyeong
President Roh, M. H.	Feb 2003	Initiation of Mt. Kumgang tour
	Oct 2006	1 st Nuclear test
	Dec 2007	Commencement of Kaesong tour
President Lee, M. B.	Jul 2008	Death of South Korean tourist to Mt. Kumgang by North Koreans
	May 2008	2 nd Nuclear test by North Korea
	Mar 2010	Sinking of Cheonan ship
	Nov 2010	Bombardment of Yeonpyeong
	Feb 2013	3 rd Nuclear test
President Park, K. H.	Jan 2016	4 th Nuclear test
	Sep 2016	5 th Nuclear test
President Moon, J. I.	Sep 2017	6 th Nuclear test
	Apr 2018	April 2018 Inter-Korean Summit
	May 2018	May 2018 Inter-Korean Summit
	Sep 2018	September 2018 Inter-Korean Summit
	Feb 2019	2019 North Korea-United States Summit

Contents analysis of articles

Contents analysis of articles from 1998-2019 are divided into five categories, as stated in the research methodology section: Politics & Diplomacy, Economy, Society & Culture, Military and Tourism. For each of the themes represented, the articles were read in full and both researchers

determined the category independently. However, in some instances, the article did not have a distinguished theme. In such cases, the article was classified based on its majority of content (Lee et al., 2018) and the classification was determined in relation to the title of the article as much as possible.

Table 3. Contents analysis of articles on S Tourism from 1998- 2019

Category	Contents of article	Total Frequency(%)
Political & Diplomatic	UN security council/ Inter-Korean summit/ South Korea-US summit/ High-level Expert preparatory group meeting/ Ministerial-level talks/ US-China summit	160(44.2)
Economic	Financial problem of Hyundai group/ South and North Korea Economic cooperation/ Kaesong industrial complex	37(10.2)
Society & Culture	Chung Ju-yung's visiting the North Korea with cow/ Culture, Sports interaction/ Family reunion	57(15.7)
Military	Detention of Min Young-mi / Shooting death of a tourist/ Pyeongchang Olympic	33(9.1)
Touristic	Mt. Kumgang tourism/ Detention, shot and killed of Mt. Kumgang tourist/ resume of Mt. Kumgang tourism/ DMZ tourism/ road tour/ Kaesong tourism/ Mt. Baekdu tourism	75(20.7)
Total		362(100)

The Politics and Diplomacy category, contains articles related to the UN Security Council sanctions, inter-Korean summit talks, ministerial-level talks, and the US-China summit talks. Through these kinds of articles, we can see that the Mt. Kumgang tourism project is not only a matter for South Korea and North Korea, but in fact, it is also a matter for international relation. The Mt. Kumgang tourism project can be enhanced through the alleviation of sanctions towards North Korea. The categories with the largest number of articles pertaining to the SK-NK tourism from 1998-2019 following 'Politics and Diplomacy', are as follows: 'Tourism' t Tourism (20.7%); Society and Culture (15.7%), Economy (10.2%) and m Military (9.1%). The articles related to economic affairs include Hyundai Group's financial problem with Mt. Kumgang tourism project, the government's support for inter-Korean economic cooperation, and the issue of the Kaesong Industrial Complex. The articles related to the military section include the submarine infiltration incident, the Yeonpyeong naval battle (West Sea engagement), the Cheonan incident, the missile test, and the nuclear test.

As for political and diplomatic aspects, the Mt. Kumgang tourism project is an emerging theme in talks between South and North Korea. Prior to the commencement of the Mt. Kumgang tourism project, it could be seen that its implementation was the concern of several countries. The Mt. Kumgang tourism project has been discussed in several high-ranking meetings, such as: the inter-Korean governmental talks, inter-Korean ministerial talks, US sanctions against North Korea talks, ROK and US summit talks. \. However, there was no achievement in the resumption of the Mt. Kumgang Tourism project. Kumgang It seems that the public opinion's demand to clarify the facts and thorough investigation of the shooting incident and to establish the principle of preventing the recurrence. However, other public opinion that the South would want to approach North Korea more inclusively. In other words, it was argued that the dialogue should be started without asking for an apology for the death of tourists on the mountain. As a result, all agree that tourism should be resumed in Mt. Kumgang, but there is a lot of disagreement about the process and method. However, it can be said that the people are aware that the tourism of Mt.

Kumgang is the first step to build trust between South and North Korea and that it is a national business that can go to reconciliation.

Looking at the economic aspect, it can be seen that the Hyundai Group and the Kaesong Industrial Complex are the main players. Particularly before the tour of Mt. Kumgang, it was actively discussed whether the government consider Mt. Kumgang project as economic area or politic area. When Mt. Kumgang tourism started, Hyundai Group's Kumgang tourism deficit problem occurred. Some argues that the government should intervene and help it. Others do not agree with it since it harms the principle of the separation of economic and politic. In order to contribute to the realization of South-North reconciliation and exchanges, it is necessary for the North Korean authorities to change their perception of this Mt. Kumgang project. In this sense, the business interruption crisis will rather enable the North Korean authorities to understand the operating principles of the market economy and adapt them. It was also an opportunity. In other words, some called for an understanding of North Korea's economic system. This is in line with the claim that only country can maintain a peaceful relationship by having a market economy system (Doyle, 1983). However, it can be said that the public opinion on tourism in Mt. Kumgang is a symbol of inter-Korean reconciliation.

From a socio-cultural point of view, it is not an exaggeration to say that Mt. Kumgang tour began since Chung ju-yung visited the North with 500 head of cattle. After Mt. Kumgang tourism get started, the exchange between South and North Korea get activated such as North Korean men and women basketball team, Hanyang University professors' visit to North Korea, the South and North Korea soccer tournament, the national unification tournament and so on. It is also aimed at sustainable tourism (Schulenkorf, 2013). Even after the tour of Mt. Kumgang was stopped, the reunion of separated families was regarded as a humanitarian project. However, discussions on the reunion of separated families have often been faded by North Korea's intention to link reunions of separated families with the resumption of tourism in Mt. Kumgang tourism. Since then, the atmosphere of exchange and cooperation with North Korea has been regenerated as the PyeongChang Winter Olympic season is approaching.

From the military point of view, there were incidents such as infiltration of submarine, infiltration of armed spies, and launch of Taepodong-1 before Mt. Kumgang tourism. After the Mt. Kumgang tourism was implemented, military provocations such as the launching of the first and second Yeonpyeong naval battle (West Sea engagements), Taepodong-2, and nuclear tests have continued to appear. However, during the war in the West Sea, the fact that the tour of Mt. Kumgang was conducted in the East Sea could be regarded as restoring the trust of the inter-Korean relations more socially and culturally. It also seemed to a peaceful atmosphere as the land mine removal work for demilitarized zone. However, North Korea has maintained a threat to South Korea and the international community, including the Cheonan incident and nuclear test after the Kumgang tourism stop.

As for the tourism side, there have been various discussions such as the 'tourism cost problem of Mt. Kumgang,' 'Mt. Kumgang tourism operation,' 'Mt. Kumgang tourism suspension' and 'Mt. Kumgang tourism resumption.' Before the visit to Mt. Kumgang, many problems were raised about the cost of Mt. Kumgang tourism. Since then, tourists from Mt. Kumgang have expressed their concern about the pollution of Mt. Kumgang's environment. If unification is to take place in the future, Mt. Kumgang will become a tourist attraction that needs to be cultivated. However, since then, environmental issues have been hard to find anymore due to the political and economic issues. During the period of starting in Mt. Kumgang tourism, Mt. Kumgang was stopped by several incidents such as 'tourist detention,' 'a bird flu in

North Korea,' and 'suicide by Chung Mong-heon.' However, the suspension was always made by North Korea one-sided. After the murder of tourists on the Mt. Kumgang, the tour of Mt. Kumgang come to an end. The South dispatched a joint investigation team to the case of the Kumgangsans tourists' murder and sent a promise to prevent the recurrence of the incident, while the North denied it.

Tone of article

The editorials in the Hankyoreh newspaper showed a more positive tone, one that lent more towards "reconciliation and cooperation of the nation" and acted as a "symbol of exchange". With regards to the Mt. Kumgang Tourism project, 46.4% of editorials indicated a positive tone and 30% a negative tone. However, in the case of the Chosun Ilbo newspaper, the editorials were more negative, with 70.5% inclining this way, compared to 4.2% which were more positive, it reveals negative tone. As it can be seen, the political foundation of the daily newspapers represent different sectors of public opinion.

Although the <Chosun Ilbo> has a lot of negative opinions about Mt. Kumgang tourism and the <Chosun Ilbo> itself is not completely representative of public opinion, the overall coverage is negative (40.6%) and positive (35.4%). In light of the results of Kim & Cho (2006) and Cho (2007) that the impact of tourism on Mt. Kumgang is insignificant and did not lead to the diffusion effect, the public's feelings about tourism in Mt. Kumgang were not favorable. That is, it can be analyzed that it did not change. In particular, it can be said that South Korean citizens are unlikely to trust North Korea.

Table 4. Tone of article

	Chosun Ilbo	Hankyore	Total
	No. (%)	No. (%)	No. (%)
Positive	4(4.2)	124(46.4)	128(35.4)
Negative	67(70.5)	80(30.0)	147(40.6)
Neutral	24(25.3)	63(23.6)	87(24.0)
Total	95(100)	267(100)	362(100)

CONCLUSION

The relationship of trust between South Korea and North Korea formed by inter - Korean tourism

is very important in the newspaper. For example, 'Continuing exchanges on the civilian level will be a great force in sustaining trust,' 'Through the experience of Mt. Kumgang tourism, the North get

relief and trust through exchanges with the South.’ ‘It is difficult to solve the nuclear problem and international relations without solving distrust caused by Mt. Kumgang tourism.’ have shown that tourism in Mt. Kumgang is beyond the trust relationship between the South and the North and is important for securing credibility in resolving North Korea's nuclear issues and in international relations. Furthermore, the positive attitude of South Korea for dialogue with North Korea is also important. However, as long as the attitude of North Korea does not change, South Korea's positive attitude toward North Korea has a limitation to extend appeasement policies.

In addition, during the tourism in Mt. Kumgang, there is not a perfect peaceful atmosphere but there is not a big tension between the North and the South. Based on existing empirical studies, there is much controversy as to which causes and consequences are tourism and peace. But many of these studies also show that there is a correlation between tourism and peace. Also, it can be seen that the Korean Peninsula can be distinguished from existing researches on countries that use different races, cultures and languages. Therefore, further research will be need to be conducted on how tourism affects countries when the same ethnic and cultural language is used. In particular, in case of Mt. Kumgang tourism, it is difficult to directly meet local residents and only limited areas have been visited. Therefore, it is necessary to examine carefully what role tourism can play as a tool to reduce political tensions and bring peace.

Finally, it should be noted that South-North tourism does not merely have to do with South and North Korea, as can be seen in the newspaper. Since North Korea is not recognized as a normal nation globally, the credibility of North Korea is very low. In such a situation, the South-North tourism makes the impression that the relationship between the two Koreas is soft, which can give the impression that Korea is out of the danger of war. Therefore, the progress of inter-Korean tourism can show the political and diplomatic situation that is stable and mutual trust between South Korea and North Korea. This shows that the relationship with North Korea has a great influence on national credibility. Also, foreign investors consider the atmosphere in Korean peninsula is an important variable. Therefore, South Korea should deeply consider how to utilize tourism

as a means of establishing trust and peace between South and North Korea.

The main limitation of this study is the involvement of subjectivity in the setting of the grouping and categorization of articles. In order to solve this problem, we have made a lot of efforts to secure the reliability within the coder and the reliability between the coder, but it is specified that there is a limit that can be incurred in the progress of the qualitative research. Secondly, I have studied a variety of articles accumulated for 20 years. However, due to the limitation of the research period, I chose only two daily newspapers from a large number of daily newspapers, only focusing on the topic of editorials. A follow up research will be needed to analyze massive amount of newspaper articles related to tourism in Mt. Kumgang.

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THE INFLUENCE OF EVENT QUALITY ON BRAND VALUE, SATISFACTION AND RECOMMEND INTENTION AS PERCEIVED BY FIRST BIRTHDAY EVENT PARTICIPANTS

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INTRODUCTION

According to Statistics Korea (2018), the birthrate in South Korea has steadily declined from about 10 years ago, and is now posing a threat. As more families have only one child, with this situation, their manifest attachment and attention to the child is shown in various social phenomena, earliest one of which is the grand first birthday parties. In the past, when infant mortality rate was high, the first birthday of babies meant that they survived the first big challenge in their lives and it turned into a tradition in South Korea. However, the market of the first birthday event is keep growing each year and planners of the event began to appear in the market and the profession is becoming more specialized. Current parents actively exchange information related to the first birthday party for their babies via online communities, which resulted reinforcing and sophisticating the community culture and reproducing and reinterpreting the culture of first birthday part, and high-end hotels and various family restaurants are actively marketing for attracting consumers' baby first birthday services (Park, 2010; Son & Lee, 2018). Despite the rapid growth of the event market in the related industry, research on the first birthday event is very limited. Especially, although the party is becoming a major event in kids market, detailed and logical research on the effects of various event attributes on the brand value, and recommendation intention, among other things, is rare. Therefore, this study will identify attributes of event quality perceived by customers who has invited to the first birthday event, and investigated how the event quality influences the brand value, satisfaction, and recommendation intention from the service companies.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Event Quality

Although evaluation is based on perception of the customers, quality is formed based on the level of satisfaction experienced by customers with the service provided by a service provider, and can be controlled by the provider (Kwon, Lee & Seo, 2010; Shin, Song & Lee, 2012). Therefore, quality can be defined as evaluation of something as perceived by the provider. Perception of quality is not only determined by evaluation of the product or service, but it also influences decision-making of the customer (Hyun, 2009; Jin & Yong, 2005). Quality in the event industry reflects customer value, and event quality refers to individual reaction and emotion in evaluating service (Jin, Lee, & Lee, 2013). So that quality is especially emphasized in events considering various intangible aspects with few tangible cues (Lim & Lim, 2010). Previous research on event quality has been conducted in various areas. Regarding festival-related event quality, Yoon et al. (2010) identified tangible and intangible constructs such as informational service, souvenir, program, food, and facility. Also, Lee, Lee & Yoon (2009) identified five dimension of festival quality as informational service, program, souvenir, food, and convenience facility. Lee et al. (2011) identified factors of festival qualities, based on relevant research, as informational service, festival program, festival product, natural environment, and convenience facility. In the event market, quality refers to individual reaction and emotion in evaluating service (Jin et al., 2013) and quality is especially emphasized because event is an intangible product with few tangible cues (Lim & Lim, 2010). Social science researchers have agreed on the importance and appropriateness of using brand value

as a concept for understanding human behaviors and conducted extensive research on the subject.

Brand Value

Aaker (1990) defined brand as a sum of assets and liabilities related to the relevant symbol, and suggested that it either increases or decreases the value of a product or service provided by a company to the customers. Brand value is a currency value for which consumers are willing to pay additionally to buy a particular brand over other similar brands. When consumers perceive a brand value as being higher, the currency value is considered as being higher as well. Therefore, in developed countries, brand values have been converted into price as early as the late 1980s (Simon & Sullivan, 1993). Simon & Social science researchers have agreed on the importance and appropriateness of using brand value as a concept for understanding human behaviors and conducted extensive research on the subject. In research related to consumer behavior, value is applied as a tool for understanding consumers' attitude or behavior (You & Song, 2010). Because of its intangibility, brand value is understood diversely according to the perspective of the researcher. Hence, this study reorganized brand recognition and brand association as the value of brand based on the previous research.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction is a concept for predicting consumer behavior and defined as "a summary of psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer's prior feelings about the consumption experience" (Oliver, 1980). Also, according to Jeong (2005), satisfaction refers to a cognitive state of customer in which, considering both the invested costs and effort for purchasing. Hence, current study will estimate the concept of satisfaction for assessing the cognitive state after participating the first birthday party.

Recommendation Intention

Intention means determination for a planned action in the future, and represents the probability of carrying out one's attitude or belief in action. Also, in service settings, repurchase intention can be defined as a possibility that a customer would use a product or service again in the future (Oliver,

1980). Whyte (1954) explained recommendation intention as 'word-of-mouth intention' or 'word-of-mouth' communication, and defined it as communication in interpersonal relationships that takes place between two or more people, such as members of a reference group or customer and seller. Therefore, the recommendation intention is a psychological behavior of recommending only positive information among a variety of types of information exchanged between relatives, acquaintances, colleagues, and neighbors, to other people (Kim & Kim 2010). A decision-making process does not end when purchase is decided, but includes a series of processes in which consumers experience satisfaction or dissatisfaction while using a purchased item, evaluate their own purchase decision, and decide repurchase of the product. Therefore, post-purchase behaviors can lead to repeated purchase and positive word-of-mouth, and, also acts as an important process that determines positive attitude of consumers toward the same and similar service or product.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Event quality has been explained as a feeling or reaction of consumers when they evaluate a product or service, and the quality has been considered important element since the tangible clues of event has only few visible clues (Jin, Lee, & Lee, 2013; Lim & Lim, 2010). In addition, the brand value has been employed as a critical component to better understand consumers' perception toward company, and it has been affected by various quality clues (You & Song, 2010). Therefore, current study will propose the following hypothesis.

H1: Event quality (Systemic, Humanic, Physical, Convenience) will influence on brand value.

H2: Event quality (Systemic, Humanic, Physical, Convenience) will influence on satisfaction.

H3: Brand value will be critical antecedent of satisfaction

H4: Brand value will be critical antecedent of recommend intention.

H4. Satisfied consumers from the first birthday party event will recommend the company to others.

PROPOSED METHOD

Data collection and Analysis

This study will be designed to find the relationships among event quality, brand value, satisfaction, and recommend intention as well. Modification of the preliminary questionnaires will be designed after a pilot test with faculty members who are major in hospitality management and have experienced the first baby birthday event. The validity of the questionnaire will be checked and subsequently increased by using cross validation. The final survey will be distributed to participants of the birthday party in Korea which is rapid growth of the event market, and it will be included in two parts. First, the designed questions will be assessed the participants' motivation about the experience of event, which were scored on a Likert seven-point scale ranging from 1 for "Not important at all," 4 for "Important," and 7 for "Very important." Second, the survey will be tested to determine the elements of the event quality, four dimensions (Systemic, Humanic, Physical, Convenience) for assessing the event quality, brand value, satisfaction, and recommend intention will be estimated by reviewing the previous literature.

Data will be analyzed by using the statistical-analysis program IBM SPSS 22.0 and AMOS 22.0 to identify the relationships on formulated hypotheses. Demographic statistics will be tested to verify the participants' socio-demographic elements, and the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis will be conducted to identify the measurement model. In addition, structural equation modeling will be performed to confirm the formulated study.

PROPOSED IMPLICATION

Despite the growth of the event market in Asia, research related to the first birthday event is very limited so far. In addition, the party is becoming a major event in kids business, detailed and logical research on the effects of various event factors on other critical clues such as value, satisfaction, future behavior intention is still rare. Therefore, the major findings of current study will contribute to improve the general event quality of first birthday party for both potential customer and managers of the event or destination. According to

the demonstrating of the formulated relationships, this study will help to show beneficial views in related event industry including foodservice, hotel, and so on especially in first birthday event area.

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INFLUENCE OF IMAGE-BASED SNS RESTAURANT INFORMATION VALUE ON CONSUMERS' PERCEIVED VALUE, ATTITUDE, AND PURCHASE INTENTION

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INTRODUCTION

Today, various experiences are shared through SNS. It makes two-way communication possible and restaurant information is shared and accepted through various channels. In particular, image-based SNS has a big impact on the decision-making process and marketing method in the restaurant industry where the visual impact of food, menu, as well as ambience is important (Kim & Park, 2011). So, with such a massive amount of information, determining which image-based SNS restaurant information affects customers' intention to purchase, and how customers' attitudes also affects their intention in their acceptance and sharing situation needs to be confirmed (Wu & Shuffer, 1987). This research is conducted to figure out the influence of image-based SNS restaurant information value and customers' attitude on purchase intention and to know whether customers' attitude affects the relationship between image-based SNS restaurant information value and purchase intention.

METHOD

The survey participants were selected among restaurant customers in their 20s and 30s in South Korea, who are familiar with using image-based SNS. 413 questionnaires were used out of a total of 430 questionnaires. The data collected is analyzed with the SPSS statistics program. To examine the regression coefficient between image-based SNS restaurant information value, consumers' attitude

and purchase intention, and exploratory factor analysis is conducted. As a result, image-based SNS restaurants information value has 4 factors (reliability, sharing, usefulness, conciseness), customers' attitude has 2 factors (opinion-leading attitude, sympathetic attitude), and purchase intention in restaurants has one factor including purchase and recommending the restaurant. Multiple regression analysis and hierarchical regression analysis were also used to examine the hypothesis of the research.

FINDINGS

The results of multiple regression analysis shows that reliability ($t=4.294$, $p<0.001$), sharing ($t=2.624$, $p<0.001$), usefulness ($t=5.499$, $p<0.001$), conciseness ($t=5.654$, $p<0.001$), the primary factors of image-based SNS restaurants information value, affects purchase intention in restaurants positively ($F=112.634$, $p<0.001$, $R^2=0.525$). It also turns out that usefulness and conciseness have comparatively more impact on purchase intention. This means that as customers perceive that restaurants' information of image-based SNS as useful and concise to get the information, their intention to purchase increases. In addition, the regression coefficient between image-based SNS restaurants information value and customers' opinion-leading attitude shows that reliability ($t=6.267$, $p<0.001$), sharing ($t=6.537$, $p<0.001$), usefulness ($t=3.386$, $p<0.01$), and conciseness ($t=-1.911$, $p<0.05$) of image-based SNS restaurants information value have a positive effect

on customers' opinion-leading attitude ($F=69.102$, $p<0.01$, $R^2=0.404$). Of these factors reliability and sharing have the largest effect. A regression coefficient between image-based SNS restaurants information value and customers' sympathetic attitude shows that sharing ($t=2.300$, $p<0.001$), usefulness ($t=9.332$, $p<0.001$), and conciseness ($t=6.300$, $p<0.001$) of image-based SNS restaurants information value have a positive effect on customers' sympathetic attitude ($F=126.910$, $p<0.001$, $R^2=0.554$). In terms of the relationship between customer attitude and purchase intention, the result shows that customers' opinion-leading attitude ($t=6.864$, $p<0.001$) and sympathetic attitude

($t=15.496$, $p<0.001$) have a positive effect on purchase intention ($F=263.265$, $p<0.001$, $R^2=0.562$). Furthermore, the mediating effect of customers' attitude between image-based SNS restaurants information value and purchase intention shows that customers' opinion-leading attitude has a partial mediating effect on reliability ($t=2.492$, $p<0.05$) and usefulness ($t=4.658$, $p<0.001$) of image-based SNS restaurants information value and purchase intention. Customers' sympathetic attitude also has a partial mediating effect on conciseness ($t=3.181$, $p<0.001$) of image-based SNS restaurants information value and purchase intention.

Table 1. Relation among image-based SNS restaurant information value, customers' attitude, and purchase intention

Image-based SNS restaurants information value				
	Reliability	Sharing	Usefulness	Conciseness
Purchase intention	4.294 ^{***}	2.624 ^{***}	5.499 ^{***}	6.654 ^{***}
	$F=112.634$, $p<0.001$, $R^2=0.525$			
Opinion-leading attitude	6.267 ^{***}	6.537 ^{***}	3.386 ^{**}	-1.911 [*]
	$F=126.910$, $p<0.001$, $R^2=0.554$			
Sympathetic attitude	6.000 ^{***}	2.300 ^{***}	9,332 ^{***}	6.300 ^{***}
	$F=126.910$, $p<0.001$, $R^2=0.554$			

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

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the image-based SNS restaurants information value and customers' attitude have a positive effect on purchase intention. When customers get restaurant information through image-based SNS, restaurants information value, usefulness and conciseness have a big influence to purchase intention. Therefore, restaurants must provide their customers with necessary information concisely. Since customers believe more in the information shared by individual visitors, it is important to naturally expose restaurants' physical characteristics such as ambience, menu, and logo. Customers who have a sympathetic attitude are more likely to have purchase intention. This means that customers tend to accept the information rather than spread it. Since acceptance of information requires information that is already spread, restaurants should try to promote customers who have opinion-leading attitudes to spread the information.

As customers' attitude is applied to image-based SNS restaurants information value and purchase intention, image-based SNS restaurants information value has a positive effect. Restaurants should try to provide visual information based on what customers value according to their attitudes. Also, it should be considered that various marketing methods need to focus on the customers' attitude of acceptance and spreading information in restaurants. Intangibility, which is the restaurants' characteristic of the past, is now vanishing by easy exposure of the information in various ways. Because of this, customers can get the restaurants' information in advance. This allows restaurants to get potential customers, however, at the same time, they lose them since people have different points of view and evaluation of the same restaurant. Therefore, restaurants should try to develop an effective way to motivate potential customers, while considering their diverse tastes. Furthermore, it is important to expose the restaurants' information to

customers consistently while maintaining the reliability of information. At the same time, the factors of traditional marketing should be managed together; understating the influencer ecosystem, SNS information management by constant monitoring of information from customers, and developing and creating restaurants' goods and service based on customers' needs.

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IDENTIFYING THE EFFECT OF EXPERIENCE IN CONTEXT OF FOODSERVICE CONSUMERS: FOCUSED ON STRATEGIC EXPERIENCE MODULES THROUGH GAMIFICATION

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INTRODUCTION

The domestic foodservice industry is rapidly growing since 1980s, and the quality of the service has been growing due to the new businesses and the competitors. In 2018, the proportion of food expenses in the consumption expenditure of urban workers increased by more than 10 times compared to the 1960s and the size of domestic restaurants is also growing steadily (National Statistical Office, 2018). However, Due to the rapid growth of the food service industry and the generalization of eating out, choices have been diversified and enriched, and the necessity of establishing diverse marketing strategies to satisfy various consumers is emphasized.

Consumers estimate the value of various factors that are provided by their experience, and then make decisions such as satisfaction or return visit along with considering the economic value such as money or time (Sulek & Hensley, 2004; Sun, 2008; Wall & Berry, 2007; Wu & Liang, 2009). In order to maximize the visitor's experience, the foodservice companies utilize ICT (Information Communication Technology) such as Internet of Things (IOT), which can have a positive effect on the visitor's experience value to provide the best service. Among these technologies, gaming has been recognized as a new paradigm in various service industries in recent years, which can enhance motivation and commitment through consumer experience.

Gamification is a combined word with the word 'game' attached to 'fication' which means 'change'. Gamification has been used as a new marketing strategy because the gamification

combine 'game elements' such as game fun, reward, challenge, competition, design characteristics, and 'non-game elements' such as education or management (Duggan & Shoup, 2013; Lee, 2011; Xu, Weber & Buhalis, 2016).

Although various approaches have been attempted to recognize the importance of experience and to enhance the value of experience, empirical studies using gamification are still inadequate (Kwon & Ryu, 2015; Seaborn & Fels, 2015). In particular, in the field of pedagogy, studies have been reported on empirical verification of the effects of educational programs on gaming through experiments (Ha & Kim, 2015; Gohle, 2013). There is only a conceptual approach to the effect of gaming in the field of hospitality, and empirical researches such as employees education and cognitive effects of consumers have not been studied yet in foodservice sector (Negruşa et al., 2010; Gohle, 2013). Additionally, it is very difficult to bring the results of the researches reported in the field of education and tourism, and apply it without academic verification in the food service sector. Therefore, the purpose of current study is to analyze the effects of perceived experiences of eating out consumers by studying the effect of game and evaluating consumers' experience based on strategic experiential module.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gamification

Gamification is a combination of gaming elements such as fun, reward, competition, challenge and visuality, and non-gaming features

such as education and management to enhance immersion, enjoyment and participation in specific services and products. It is used as a means to enhance the immersion, joy, and participation in the specific service or product (Duggan & Shoup, 2013; Lee, 2011; Seaborn & Fels, 2015). Seaborn & Fels (2015) defined 'gaming in theory and action' as a deliberate use of gaming elements in non-gaming environments or work for gaming experience. In the study, various factors such as patterns, objectives, rules, and methods that derived from the gamification. Bulencea & Egger (2015) has applied gamification to design a memorable experience for visitors in the field of tourism. According to previous study, current study consider that the combination of gaming factors and tourism experience can make the experience more memorable.

Strategic Experiential Modules

Schmitt (1999) defines experiential marketing as distinct from traditional marketing as a 21st century marketing strategy. It is not only selling products but also engaging products or brand images through services and events. Schmitt (1999) presented Strategic Experiential Modules (SEMs) as strategic consumption factors of experiential marketing. According to this study, customers' experience should be divided into sensual experience (Sense), emotional experience (Feel), cognitive experience (Think), behavioral experience (Act), and relational experience (Relate) in order to evaluate experiential marketing. In addition, he verified that the experience can make possible to establish differentiation and uniqueness with competitive brands, establish corporate image, and induce not only purchase but also repurchase through experiential marketing.

Gamification Performance

According to prior studies, the effect of gamification consist of four factors: engagement, awareness, loyalty, and motivation (Kim & Kim, 2015; Xu et al., 2016; Yuan & Jang, 2007). In this study, the performance of gamification have been evaluated using the four elements. Therefore, in this study, this study set to demonstrate the relationship between the five factors derived from the strategic module theory of experience and the four factors of gamification.

PROPOSED HYPOTHESIS

In previous research, gamification has been discussed in various similar concepts such as functional elements, game design elements, game mechanic elements, and game dynamics. However, major studies related to game suggest that the components and functions of game are the main features (Seo & Ban, 2015; Negruşa et al., 2015; Seaborn & Fels, 2015). Therefore, this study will measure the gamification by four factors: goal and principl, feedbac, levels & missio, and rewards. Specifically, the following four hypotheses will be tested to examine the influence of the four factors that can be perceived through the restaurant marketing provided by the restaurant service provider on the strategic experiential modules. The following hypothesis is following.

H1: Gamification attributes (objectives, rules, feedback, level and mission, rewards) will affect the experiential elements (sense, emotion, cognition, behavior, and relationship).

According to previous studies, the effects of gamification can consider four factors: engagement, awareness, loyalty, and motivation (Konecnik & Gartner, 2007; Kwon & Kim, 2015; Lee, 2011; Lucassen & Jansen, 2014; Oppermann, 2000; Seo & Ban, 2015; Xu et al., 2013; Yuan & Jang, 2007). Therefore, current study will set the major independent factors which are used as the outcome variables of gamification based on previous research. Therefore, this study set the following hypothesis to test the relationship between the five factors derived from the experience strategic module theory and the four factors that can be expected performance through game.

H2: The experiential factors (sensation, emotion, cognition, behavior, and relationship) will affect game effects (participation, awareness, motivation, loyalty).

The purpose of this study is to verify how the functions of various games provided in the field of eating out influence the experiential factors and effects perceived by customers. Therefore, there is an academic significance in verifying the differences in perceived experiential values and effects according to the experience of the gemification provided by the foodservice companies. Hense, the following hypothesis was set

H3: The game users and non-users provided by the food service companies will show a

significant difference between the experiential factors and the game effects.

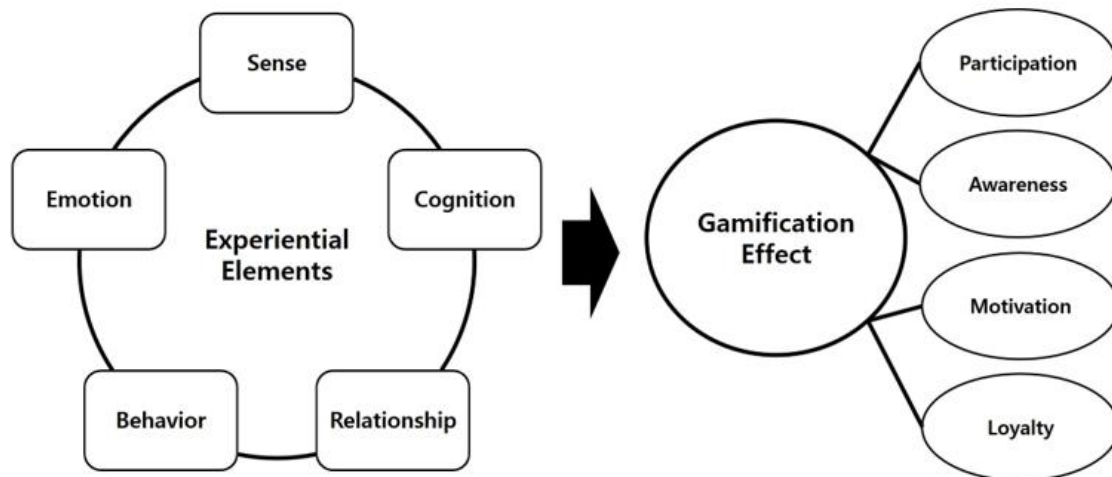


Figure 1. Research Design

PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

Through the literature review, this study will be developed the questionnaires to measure game effects, experiential factors based on strategic experience modules, and game effects. Around 400 participants who are familiar with the events through the games provided by the food service companies and have various similar events' experiences of the food service companies. 200 out of 400 participants randomly selected to estimate gamification from restaurant websites where they could experience the game, and they will be exposed to the game for about 3 days. Finally, questionnaires will distribute and collect to consumers who had experience of playing games and non - experienced consumers. Data will be collected through questionnaires were analyzed using statistical programs SPSS 23.0 and AMOS 23.0. Using the survey method, 50 preliminary surveys will be carried out and the reliability and validity of each item were verified by the data.

PROPOSED IMPLICATION

This study can be applied to various hospitality industries such as hotels and tourism through logical approach and verification of the influence relationships among proven effect of gamification, experiential factors, and outcome

effects such as loyalty. In addition, current study will contribute to how the experience of game affects the perceived valuation effect through experiment design. The results will provide how the marketing approach to the game is positively affecting actual eating out consumers and to establish a specific marketing strategy for foodservice industry.

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FACTORS AFFECTING CONSUMERS' SUSTAINABLE BEHAVIOUR FORMATION: A MULTI-STAGE MODEL

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INTRODUCTION

Consumption of products and services has increased to extraordinary levels. Some anecdotal evidence indicates that people are consuming around 30% more resources than the planet's capacity to regenerate (Kostadinova, 2016). This increased consumption may be attributed to population growth on the one hand and individuals' unsustainable behaviours, which create severe challenges for the environment, on the other hand. Therefore, sustainable consumer behaviour (SCB) has gained worldwide attention. SCB refers to patterns of behaviour that meet consumers' needs and concurrently minimize environmental impacts or even benefit the environment (Trudel, 2019). Such behaviours include, but are not limited to, green purchase behaviours, waste reduction, choosing sustainable restaurants, staying at green hotels, car sharing, energy and water conservation, and recycling. Academically, although considerable research efforts have been directed at understanding consumers' intentions toward green purchases, organic food consumption, and pro-environmental behaviours in general, little is known about a) how consumers evaluate their actual sustainable experiences and b) how first-time adoption of sustainable behaviours affects future behaviours (continuance or discontinuance). In other words, previous studies have paid little attention to the adoption and post-adoption stages of sustainable behaviour. Accordingly, one potential misunderstanding may be that once a consumer adopts a given sustainable behaviour, then the individual will continue to behave the same way over time. Such assumptions are questionable due to the gap between expectations and perceptions in a green context (Tseng & Hung, 2013).

Therefore, in order to clarify this aforementioned assumption about consumers' sustainable behaviours, which is particularly

meaningful to tourism, this study proposed a model that captures the factors that influence consumers' decision making at different stages of the sustainable experience, starting from developing sustainable intentions (intentions), to the actual experience (adoption), and then intentions to continue (continuance). This paper is unique in that the proposed model considers both short-term and long-term perspectives. Thus, this study could contribute to the literature because it focuses on what motivates consumers to continue sustainable behaviours. More specifically, this study aimed to synthesize the determinants of SCBs through **a)** mapping the antecedents of intentions toward and adoption of sustainable behaviours by integrating different theoretical perspectives, **b)** identifying factors that predispose dis/continuance of sustainable behaviours, and **c)** proposing a multi-stage model of sustainable consumer behaviour. To achieve the objectives of this conceptual paper, the authors critically reviewed the extant theoretical frameworks and empirical findings and proposed a new conceptual model. Finally, the authors introduced a set of propositions and put forward a constructive discussion of each link.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND RELATED LITERATURE

The existing literature shows that a variety of models and variables have been used to explain sustainable behaviour. This study considered the following four theories and models to be most relevant to account for sustainable behaviors in a tourism context: Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB: Ajzen, 1991), Norm-Activation Model (Schwartz, 1977), Value-belief-norm theory (Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano, & Kalof, 1999), and Habits (Verplanken & Aarts, 1999). Furthermore, two other frameworks that have pointed to facets of post-adoption behavior

and can be of value to SCB were considered namely; the expectation-disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1981), and the expectation-confirmation model (Bhattacharjee, 2001).

Overall, the theoretical underpinnings that motivate this study's new model are three-fold. First, most established theories, although useful in explaining the antecedents of behavioural intentions, neglect post-adoption issues (i.e., satisfaction or discontinuance). Accordingly, such theories implicitly assume that the decision criteria that lead people to *adopt* and *sustain* a behaviour are similar, which is doubtful (for a review see: Rothman, 2000). Second, not surprisingly, most models relevant to SCBs are static in nature; they predict behaviours at a specific point in time while neglecting the evolution of the underlying determinants. Third, considerable portions of behavioural variance still remain unexplained (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Ravis, Sheeran, & Armitage, 2009; Sandberg & Conner, 2008), which raises questions about the sufficiency of existing theories. As an attempt to address these shortcomings, this study proposed a *sustainable, dynamic, and comprehensive* model of consumer behaviour. These three keywords meaningfully reflect the prominent features of the proposed model. The term *sustainable* encapsulates two aspects of sustainable behaviours. On one hand, it refers to environmental consumer behaviours. On the other hand, the term *sustainable* reflects that 'continuity' or 'long-term' behaviours are a prominent guarantee that SCBs could mitigate environmental problems. The term *dynamic* reflects the model's attempt to capture how individuals behave across different stages of a sustainable experience. Finally, the term *comprehensive* points to the integration of different theories (i.e., TBP, VBN, habits) in order to map the antecedents of behavioural intentions, as well as adoption and continuance. Accordingly, this study proposed the Sustainable Intention-Adoption-Continuance (SIAC) model to broaden existing theories in a sustainable behaviour context.

CORE COMPONENTS OF THE SUSTAINABLE INTENTION-ADOPTION-CONTINUANCE MODEL

The suggested model outlines the pre-behaviour, behaviour, and post-behaviour stages

of sustainable consumer behaviours and combines i) the antecedents of consumer sustainable intentions, ii) the fundamental elements of continued behaviours, i.e., the relationship between intentions, adoption, and continuance, and iii) post-adoption evaluation as a principal component of the model that predisposes continuance both directly or through the process of habit formation. The *first stage* of the SIAC model concerned intentions development: a pre-behaviour stage in which individuals build prior intents to adopt or not adopt a given behaviour. This study basically proposed that individuals are most likely to have strong intentions toward a given sustainable behaviour if they hold *positive attitudes, favourable subjective norms, high perceived control, moral obligations, and engage in activism*. The *second stage* of the model focuses on the actual adoption of a given behaviour. Adoption refers to the first time an individual acts on his or her intentions and engages in a given sustainable behaviour. The study proposed that adoption is a function of *individual's intentions, perceived behavioural control and activism*. Adoption will in turn influence continuance, but this influence is not direct. The adoption-continuance relationship is instead mediated by post-adoption evaluation and habits. Thus, in the *third stage* of the model, continuance is a function of *positive post-adoption evaluation and habit formation*. Additionally, the greater the strength of a habit is, the less post-adoption evaluations explain continuance, which becomes habitual over time.

CONCLUSIONS

This study reviewed the previous literature and suggested a model that maps the determinants of SCBs across the different stages of a sustainable experience: pre-behaviour, behaviour, and post-behaviour. Principally, this paper suggested that to capture the complexity of SCBs, it is fundamental to consider the three core components of sustainable behaviour: intentions, adoption, and continuance. Therefore, sustained behaviours are seen as *subsequent stages of evolution from intentions development (pre-adoption), to intentions implementation (experience), and then intentions to continue sustainable behaviours (post-adoption)*. This definition provides a more processual angle

from which to examine SCBs. It could be argued existing models of consumer behaviour (e.g., TPB) can generally explain an individual's decisions. In other words, previous models could explain both an individual's intentions to adopt and continue to engage in behaviours, which questions the feasibility of our model. Nevertheless, such models do not distinguish between adoption and continuance. Instead, previous models implicitly assume that the decision criteria that lead people to *adopt* and *sustain* behaviours are similar. Such models, therefore, have limited capacity to explain the possible adoption-discontinuance anomaly.

The proposed model contributes to the theoretical consumer behaviour literature. On one hand, the model basically indicated that continuance is temporally distinctive from adoption and, hence, is triggered by different antecedents. This distinction allows to capture other important factors that can provide an explanation for the possible adoption-discontinuance anomaly where people who adopt a given behaviour then stop engaging in it (Chan, Cheung, Kwong, Limayem, & Zhu, 2003). This distinction has another important theoretical implication in that three different levels of commitment can be highlighted across sustainable experiences: *supportive* (individuals who have high intentions to adopt), *active* (individuals who engage in first-time adoption), and *lifestyle* (individuals who continue to behave sustainably overtime). This supports the multi-level behavioural intensity of sustainable behaviours (Paswan, Guzmán, & Lewin, 2017; Stern, 2000). Additionally, the idea that adoption of SCBs is causally influenced by an individual's activism is central to the theoretical model presented in this paper. Research supporting this proposition has demonstrated associations between engagement in environmentally supportive activities and consumption behaviours (Lee, 2014; Nassani, Ahmad Khader, Abd-el Moemen, & Ali, 2013) rather than causal relations. However, this study argued that this activism-adoption association is partly causal because the association appears primarily in the presence of high-frequency behaviours and is absent when behaviours are less frequent.

Further, this model could be broadly functional for practical policymaking and management. The proposed model can serve as a

diagnostic tool to understand how policymakers and managers can intervene to induce lasting behavioural change. This also implies that appropriate interventions can vary based on the behavioural stage. Knowing which factors influence each stage can help in designing more effective behavioural changes. To motivate intentions toward a given sustainable behaviour (e.g., choosing sustainable restaurants), practitioners need to understand individuals' behaviours, norms, perceptions of control, activism, and moral beliefs. However, to ensure continuation it is fundamental to consider post-adoption evaluations and habit formation. An important implication for the multi-stage model is that pre-adoption expectations determine post-adoption continuation. Simply put, if the consumer has too many expectations in the pre-adoption stage, then it might be difficult to meet those expectations, which would threaten continuation. The model is applicable across a wide range of sustainable behaviours in various business contexts including travel, lodging, food and other consumptive settings. In sum, the twelve propositions of the SIAC model could be valuable for policymakers and managers as well as researchers.

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EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF DECISION-MAKING STYLES ON HOTEL CHOICE PREFERENCES: A HYBRID-CHOICE MODEL

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INTRODUCTION

Investigating choice and decision-making have been of particular interest in tourism research. As a result, a large number of studies have been accumulated that suggest tourist decision-making to be a complex process involving several sub-decisions (Smallman & Moore, 2010). Empirical evidence seems to be conclusive in identifying components that are important in the tourist decision-making process. However, in the complex global tourism system, the assumption that individuals follow the same decision-making pattern may be questioned (McCabe, Li, & Chen, 2016).

The importance of past travel experience has been recognized in tourism research in different empirical settings. In the destination choice context, previous studies highlighted the positive influence of past-experience on destination choice outcome (Huang & Hsu, 2009). Further, Crouch, Huyber and Oppewal (2016) found that future vacation activity preferences heavily depend on individuals' past travel behavior. Also, when travelers evaluate choice attributes of a long-haul destination (Masiero & Qiu, 2018), as well as of a hotel (Masiero, Pan, & Heo, 2016; Román & Martín, 2016), recent travel experience is considered as a reference point. The above mentioned studies highlight the role of past experience as an explicit predictor of future behavior. While accounting for past experience is important in understanding decisions, it is not clear to what extent past behavior is a direct influence of future behavior or other factors intervene as well.

Past experience not only influences preferences and choice outcomes directly, but it also has an impact on how individuals make choices. Using the social and psychic system approach (Luhmann, 1995), Gnoth and Matteucci (2014) illustrate the tourist decision-making process as a system that should accomplish two functions: keep

existing, and keep adapting to exist. That is, resolutions to a specific problem are found by either repeating previously learnt behavior or explore an alternative way that was not used before. By repeating activities providing satisfactory outcomes in the past, the system becomes consolidated in achieving solutions to the problem. Indeed, habitual and learning processes seem to be highly influential in the travel decision-making process (Mckercher & Yankholmes, 2018).

Even though habit is the consequence of previous experience, Verplanken (2006) stressed that habit is rather a mental construct where individuals carry out a behavior unconsciously without thinking about the behavior performed. However, individuals are different in the way they make choices. Decision-making styles (DMS) were developed to explore differences among individuals in making choices. Different conceptualizations of DMS exist in the literature. Driver (1979) defined DMS as habitual patterns used in decision-making. Despite that fact that a specific behavior may be habitual (e.g., hotel booking), DMS can capture differences among individuals. DMS were increasingly adopted in the retail context (Alavi, Rezaei, Valaei, & Wan Ismail, 2016; Rezaei, 2015; Seo & Moon, 2016). However, to date, a systematic integration of DMS in investigating travelers' hotel preferences does not exist. To address the above-mentioned research gap, the overall aim of this study is to account for the influence of DMS with respect to hotel choice preferences. The specific objectives of this study are as follows: (1) identify hotel choice attributes and assess their influence, (2) explore DMS in the hotel choice context, (3) investigate drivers of DMS and (4) assess the importance of DMS in capturing taste heterogeneity.

METHOD

Data was collected with a questionnaire, which had three sections. The first part asked about respondents' sociodemographic characteristics and past travel behavior. The second section involved a stated choice experiment. The choice attributes presented to respondents were developed in a three-step procedure, including semi-structured interviews, pilot study and main study. After a thorough literature review and interviews with travelers and digital marketing experts, the choice attributes and their corresponding levels to be included in the choice experiment were defined. Next, preliminary information on the choice behavior in a pilot study was collected ($n=96$). The experiment was then finetuned using the information from the pilot study with an efficient design (Rose & Bliemer, 2009). In reducing the amount of choice tasks per respondent, 3 statistically independent blocks of 10 choice tasks were created, where individuals were randomly assigned to one of the three blocks.

Lastly, the third section included items related to DMS. Two related measurement scales exist in related literature, namely Consumer Styles Inventory (CSI) (Sproles & Kendall, 1986) and General Decision-Making Style (GDMS) instrument (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Even though both measures were validated in the retail context, their applicability in the tourism context may be in doubt. Thus, the combined measurement scale was first subjected to an academic panel ($n=10$) consisting of experienced researchers in hospitality and tourism marketing, as well as two pilot studies. Pilot study I ($n=268$) did not provide a satisfactory solution, therefore the items were rephrased and data collection was repeated ($n=250$). The second round of data collection deemed to be successful as seven distinctive underlying constructs were identified with Exploratory Factor Analysis. The measurement scale in the main survey was based on the factor solution of Pilot study II, consisting of twenty-nine items measured on a seven-point Likert-type scale. The English version of the questionnaire was back-to-back translated to simplified Chinese. The data collection was administered by a specialized market research company, and data were collected from 702 Mainland Chinese respondents.

In analyzing the data, discrete choice modeling was adopted and a series of models was

estimated. First, a multinomial logit model (MNL) (McFadden, 1974) was estimated, followed by the mixed multinomial logit model (MMNL) (McFadden & Train, 2000) capturing random taste heterogeneity. Finally, the hybrid-choice model (HCM) (Ben-Akiva et al., 2002) was estimated, where random taste heterogeneity was attributed to DMS. In the HBC model, we simultaneously estimated (1) joint influence of choice attributes and DMS, (2) drivers of DMS and (3) influence of DMS on indicators (i.e., measurement items), resulting a considerably large model of 212 estimated parameters. Unlike the MMNL model, where the taste parameters are assumed to follow a parametric distribution (e.g., Normal distribution), the HBC model assumes that the random taste variation can be attributed to DMS. In contrast to the MNL model, the likelihood function of MMNL and HBC models do not have a closed-form solution, thus simulation method was required.

FINDINGS

In identifying DMS, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with principal axis factoring and promax rotation was conducted, followed by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). In the EFA stage, items whose loading were less than 0.5 were excluded from the analysis. In the resulting factor structure, twenty items were retained corresponding to a five-factor solution, where all items loaded on their respective underlying constructs. The solution achieved in EFA explain 65% of the variance, and the underlying factors indicate internal consistency, as the Cronbach's alpha measures were above the widely known threshold (0.7) (Field, 2009). Next, the factor solution from EFA was subjected to CFA. The model fit indices (CFI: 0.951, RMSEA: 0.059, SRMR: 0.051) suggested that the estimated model fits the data well. Results from CFA suggest acceptable level of reliability, as Average Variance Extracted (AVE) exceeded the threshold of 0.5 and the composite reliability scores were above 0.7, thus convergent validity was established. Finally, discriminant validity was assessed by comparing AVE with the squared correlations among constructs. The correlation measures were considerably lower than constructs' AVE, which suggests discriminant validity. That it, the solution seems robust to be carried to the next phase of

analysis. The underlying constructs were named as brand preference, variety seeking, last-minute decision-making, effortful decision-making and effortless decision-making. Next, the choice models were estimated.

The MNL model suggested that all attributes except for discount significantly influenced hotel choice. The non-significant influence of discount may be explained by its presentation in the experiment. Because the price of each alternative included the level of discount, it is possible that individuals did not consider the discount attribute separately. In terms of sign and statistical significance, the parameter estimates of the MMNL model were in-line with the MNL model. The coefficients of the standard deviation indicated significant random taste heterogeneity for all attributes, except for availability.

From the parameter estimates of the measurement model component in HBC model, we observe that sociodemographic (e.g., gender, age, income) and travel characteristics (e.g., typical booking channel, loyalty membership, information source, travel frequency) significantly influence DMS. Given that each decision-making style was predicted by the same demographic and travel characteristics variables independently, we observe parameter estimates having a different magnitude. Turning to the parameter estimates of the choice model component in the HBC model, we see that all attributes except for discount significantly influence hotel choice. Also, we found evidence that random taste heterogeneity was attributed to DMS. That is, in contrast to the MMNL model, we were able to factor out a portion of random taste heterogeneity and ascribe it to underlying behavioral constructs, namely the five underlying DMS. Results indicate that differences in choice attribute preferences can be explained by DMS.

CONCLUSION

Recent discussion in tourism research suggest that the tourist decision-making process cannot be explained by a uniform process. This study sought to explore whether observed choice behavior and taste heterogeneity could be explained by DMS. The different degree of heterogeneity in the choice attributes that could be attributed to the DMS indicates that preferences are constructed depending

on the specific decision-making style. In that regard, this research identified decision-rules that are distinct from those offered by the literature in terms of attribute processing.

In tourism research, as well as the decision-making style literature, this is the first study that provides explicit evidence to (1) the varying degree of influence of individual specific characteristics (e.g., socio-demographics, past behavior) on DMS, (2) capturing random taste heterogeneity with DMS. Thus, this research may be considered as an important step in examining heterogeneity.

This study has important implication for practitioners, including hotel and digital marketing managers. We identified that the past behavior is a function of DMS that in turn captures random taste heterogeneity. Given the large amount of hotel offers presented on online channels, results of this study intend to offer assistance to managers, in more effectively targeting travelers that are sensitive to specific choice attributes explained by DMS.

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THE EXPECTATION AND SATISFACTION OF CHINESE OUTBOUND SENIOR TOURISTS TOWARD DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES

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INTRODUCTION

From a global perspective, China is one of the countries with the fastest population aging in the world (Luo, 2015). According to the international criterion, China has become an aging society since 2000 (Zuo, 2010). At the end of 2018, the population aged 60 and above in China was 249.49 million, accounting for 17.9% of total population; the population aged 65 and above was 166.58 million, accounting for 11.9% of total population (NBS, 2019). It is estimated that by 2020, the number of seniors aged 60 and over in China will reach 255 million, around 17.17% of the whole population, and total spending will be 7.01 trillion yuan (Zhang, 2018). Therefore, it can be stated that the population aging has become a social normal (Luo, 2015). The 21st century of China will be the century of seniors.

The population aging not only poses challenges to the adjustment of the industrial structure, but also brings opportunities. With the continuous increase of senior population and the release of spending power, China's senior tourism market will create greater development opportunities. Faced with such a good trend, however, China's senior industry is still so young that there is a big gap on senior tourism industry between China and foreign developed countries. For example, there are still few companies specializing in senior tourism in the market and most travel agencies are less involved in the senior tourism market, thus lacking normatively professional products, facilities and services suitable for the seniors (Wang, 2018; Shen, 2011; Che, 2016; Chen, 2013). In this context, the satisfaction of Chinese senior tourists is generally declining (Zhang, 2014; Shen, 2011), especially in some key destination countries and areas (Dai, 2019). In the modern market economy where customer satisfaction is the lifeline of the enterprises, how to understand their expectation and improve the satisfaction of senior tourists is

one of the problems that this paper needs to identify. Therefore, the objectives of this study include:

1. To identify the characteristics of Chinese outbound senior tourists;
2. To examine the expectation and satisfaction of Chinese senior tourists toward destination attributes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Senior Tourist

As Wang (2018) reported that China has been entering the era of mass tourism. Tourism is no longer a premium product for some individuals, but it has become a necessity for ordinary people. Previous studies indicated that seniors possess more discretionary income and more leisure time compared to younger people (Bai, Jang, Cai & O'leary, 2001; Borges Tiago, Couto, Tiago & Dias Faria, 2016), therefore, they travel more frequently and longer than non-seniors (Huang & Tsai, 2003), and mainly with the needs of learning, rest and relaxation, visiting friends and relatives (Guinn, 1980; Gitelson & Kerstetter, 1990) and self-realization, novelty exploration, socialization as well (Li, 2011). Overall, seniors have differences in travel needs, behaviors and preferences due to different travel motivations, attitudes, individual characteristics, tourism product attributes (Chen, 2013) and demographics as well (Javalgi, Thomas & Rao, 1992; Borell, Lilja, Carlsson-Alm, Törnquist & Ståhl, 1995; Mollenkopf et al., 1997).

However, as a fundamental key market for the world tourism industry, Chinese outbound senior tourists may have different and particular characteristics, expectation and satisfaction, which is not yet well understood by other countries (Lin, 2014). Therefore, an advanced understanding on it exerts a significant role in maintaining a competitive edge in today's increasingly challenging tourism market.

Outbound Tourism Market of China

It is estimated that in 2019, the number of Chinese traveling abroad will be around 166 million, an increase of 11% over the previous year (Dai, Ma & Tang, 2019). Faced with such a strong demand and development momentum, China's outbound tourism market has become a focus of global attention. Since 2012, China has been one of the world's leading consumers of outbound tourism. Especially in recent years, with the comprehensive promotion of the "Belt and Road" strategy, visa convenience, payment environment and continuous optimization of the Chinese environment, the number of outbound tourists has been increasing tremendously (China Tourism Academy, 2019). In 2017, China's outbound tourists exceeded 130 million and the expenditure reached 115.29 billion US dollars, which makes China maintain the status of world's largest source of outbound tourism (China Tourism Academy, 2018).

Definitions of "Senior"

In the context of population aging, corresponding to the dramatic growth of Chinese outbound tourism, more studies on Chinese outbound senior tourists have been increasingly conducted (Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline & Wang, 2011). Based on an overall review of the previous studies, it can be concluded that the definitions of the age cohort and the specific names to describe old people are still in disunity around the world (Patterson, 2006). For example, the names are used interchangeably by "baby boomers", "the elderly", "the mature market", "the gray market", "silver hair", "the retired", "old people" and "senior" as well (Gillon, 2004; Yang, 2014; Patterson, 2006). From the perspective of age categories, seniors are classified as 50 years old or above (Whitford, 1998; Zhang, 2014; Prayag, 2012; Patterson, 2006), 55 years old or above (Javalgi, Thomas & Rao, 1992; Che, 2016; Wang, Hu, Peng & Lou, 2016; Batra, 2009), 60 years old or above (Wang, 2018; Shen, 2011; Wang, Wu, Luo & Lu, 2017), and 65 years old or above (Yang, 2014; Javalgi et al., 1992; Moscardo & Green, 1990; Moisey & Bichis, 1999; Batra, 2009; Jang et al., 2009; Huang & Tsau, 2003; Wang, 2018; Shen, 2011). However, there are some international associations which tend to prematurely classify the age of the seniors into 50 (Wu, 1994; Bartos, 1983; Lewis, 1996; Oatloff, 1989; Silvers,

1997; Batra, 2009). Overall, the "senior" in the definition used by researchers appears to be getting increasingly younger (Patterson, 2006).

According to China's State Council, the statutory retirement age is 55 years old for female and 60 years old for male (Wang et al., 2017). However, some will seek early retirement to enjoy a leisure life without doubt (Huang & Tsai, 2002). The reality also shows that females in China are basically retired from 50 to 55 years old, males' retirement age is 55-60 years old (Shen, 2011), and the average retirement age is less than 55 years old (Zhang, 2017). Therefore, based on the retirement age and actual retired situation, it is more appropriate to define the Chinese resident at the age of 55-year-old and above as "senior". Wang et al. (2017) also suggested that the retirement age should be taken as the age-boundary in the tourism context to identify seniors as a market because once people retire, there will be significant difference in their available resource such as time and money which contribute primarily to travel behaviors. Therefore, it can be assumed that the shift of retirement leads great changes to people's travel activity. Thus, this research is reasonably in line with defining the "senior" in accordance to China's retirement age of 55 years old and above. In addition, the tourists aged 55 and above represented one of the fastest growing segments of the population (Shoemaker, 1989; Waldrop, 1989; Huang & Tsai, 2003). In America, this age group (55 above) accounted for 80% of all the vacation dollars spent in the whole country (Rosenfeld, 1986). While in China, approximately ten million Chinese seniors aged 55 to 65 travelled internationally in 2014 (China Tourism Academy, 2014).

Destination Attributes

Former studies (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Kozak, 2002; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Chi & Qu, 2008) indicated that the tourist satisfaction and future behaviors such as revisit and recommend to others are determined by how the tourists evaluate the destination attributes which exist in every destination (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

Base on senior market, previous study by Aboali, Omar & Mohamed (2015) examined the perception on the importance and performance with regard to Penang's tourism attributes. In this study,

the satisfaction level was evaluated by a total of 12 attributes including image of destination, variety of tourism attractions, cultural/historical uniqueness, value for money, safety and security, accessibility to the destination, friendliness of the people, availability of information, ease of communication, cleanliness of destination, accommodation services and local transport services. The results showed that “accessibility to the destination” and “local transport services” were highly important among these destination attributes while “image of destination”, “safety and security”, “friendliness of the people” and “accommodation services” were perceived important with satisfactory performance. However, what were considered as less important included “cultural/historical uniqueness”, “availability of information”, “ease of communication” and “cleanliness of destination”, all of which should not be overlooked by tourism marketers.

Esichaikul (2012) explored the travel requirement by analyzing its importance and satisfaction with a case study of European senior tourists in Thailand. To be specific, the requirements consisted of safety of the destination, location of accommodation, natural attractions, price of inclusive packages/hotels, variety of suitability of food and beverage, easy accessibility of destination, historical attractions, cultural attractions, local transportation, convenient immigration and customs procedure, availability of medical facilities, infrastructure, service quality of travel agents, service quality of tour leader and tour guide, hotel accessibility and disability features, special events and festivals and leisure activities. Research findings indicated that the safety of the destination, location of accommodation and natural attractions were three main requirements for European seniors while the leisure activities, special events and festivals, and, hotel accessibility and disability features were considered as less important among the destination attributes.

Based on an overall review of related literature and views from panel of experts, Zeng (2015) concluded that when selecting the evaluated attributes, the researchers both at home and abroad generally focus on the basic six travel attributes including catering, accommodation, transportation, tour/sightseeing, shopping and entertainment as well as the seventh attributes outbound provision. The results demonstrated that the overall satisfaction was

not high; outbound provision was well satisfied to meet senior tourists’ requirements; the richness and participation of entertainment were not well enough, which was the main attribute to improve tourist satisfaction; the shopping potential of seniors was not fully activated and they were more concerned about reasonable shopping time and product property; the tour guide services needed to be regulated and improved.

Lee (2016) identified that four destination attributes affecting senior tourists’ satisfaction and travel frequency included “diversity of natural and cultural resources”, “barrier-free access to tourism and recreation attractions”, “provision of senior-related facilities and services” and “quality of senior-only tour operations”. Results showed that “quality of senior-only tour operations” and “barrier-free access to tourism and recreation attractions” had significantly positive effect on overall satisfaction while “diversity of natural and cultural resources” was the important predictor of travel frequency.

Expectation and Satisfaction

Previous research pointed out that whether the people are satisfied with the tourism is the key to maintain the sustainable development of tourism industry (Dai, Li, He & Xia, 2014). However, in terms of China’s tourism industry, the tourist satisfaction has still been limited within service management and micro-management. In recent years, with the progress into mass tourism era, it has become increasingly crucial to satisfy the fast growing and changing needs of the masses.

Tourist satisfaction is derived from the theory of customer satisfaction. According to studies by Li (2003) and Wu, Ma, Zheng & Zhang (2011), tourist satisfaction is a kind of psychology which could be obtained after their needs are met. Whether tourists are satisfied is dependent on the discrepancy between tourist expectation and actual perception. If the actual perception is lower than expectation, the tourists will be dissatisfied. On the contrary, the tourists could feel satisfied (Wu, Ding, Zhang & Yang, 2006). In another word, the expectation plays a central role in conceptualizing customer satisfaction and service quality (Moutinho, 1987, Oliver, 1980, Pizam et al., 1978). Therefore, most studies on service expectations have entailed examination of either service quality or satisfaction

(Li et al., 2011).

Rich academic achievements on the satisfaction influencing factors and evaluation model have been conducted. American scholars Pizam et al. (1978) has first laid a foundation on the research of tourist satisfaction theory. Afterwards, many scholars expounded the tourist satisfaction from different perspectives in varied contexts (Bugorkova, 2018; Song, Li, van der Veen & Chen, 2011; Chen & Li, 2001; Patterson, 2006; Aboali et al., 2015; Zhang, 2007). In terms of St. Petersburg, it was revealed that Chinese tourists were satisfied with tourist attractions and its convenience but showed dissatisfaction with service and shopping (Bugorkova, 2018). In the study of Song et al. (2011), mainland Chinese tourists were highly satisfied with the hotel sector, and less satisfied with local tour operators in Hong Kong. Taiwanese scholars Chen & Li (2001) believed that personal attributes, tourism motivation, leisure preferences and other subjective factors, the traffic conditions, partners, length of stay in tourist destinations and other objective factors will influence recreational behavior and satisfaction. Dann (1977) pointed out, "cleanliness and safety" was perceived as the most important pull factor which measures the destination's ability to attract tourists. The former studies suggested that accessibility and local transportation (Patterson, 2006), friendliness of local people (Aboali et al., 2015) were significant services that need destination planners to take into consideration.

In addition, there are significant differences on tourist satisfaction at home and abroad, inside and outside the industry and city as well (Dai, Li, He & Xia, 2014). In China, study on tourist satisfaction has witnessed a process from qualitative to quantitative analysis since the starting from late 1980s. Wang, Ma, Hsu, Jao & Lin (2013) reported that seniors were more concerned about personal safety, both in route and at the destination. In order to meet Chinese tourists' demands in the coming years, Zhang (2007) examined their expectations and satisfactions, and found that Chinese tourists were expected to travel with standard service, looked for different experiences and satisfied with their experiences in Canada. All the Chinese tourists emphasized high importance on destination attractiveness and hospitality services while language service and dealing with complaints were

not better enough in performance. The seniors also attach importance to food hygiene and exclude tourism shopping (Chen, 2013).

METHOD

Sample and Data Collection

The target sample of this study were Chinese seniors aged 55 years old and above with outbound travel experience. Self-administrated questionnaires were randomly distributed by convenience survey to Chinese senior tourists who returned from outbound destinations at international airports of China. In light of the sample size, based on the online statistics of outbound travel reservations from Ctrip, the biggest OTA with 0.3 billion register membership and the most reservations from package tour and free independent travel, there were 24% post-1960s (aged 58 and above) traveling outbound in 2018. However, because of the difference and limitation in calculation standard and sampling scope, the exact number of seniors who travel outbound can't be identified. Therefore, the formula of Cochran (1963) was used in this research to estimate the minimum sample size which turned out to be 384. Finally, a total of 394 questionnaires were collected.

Survey Instrument

The questionnaire was developed to attain the characteristics of Chinese seniors and explore the expectation and satisfaction toward destination attributes. Therefore, the questionnaire mainly consisted of two sections. The first section was about profiles of respondents such as gender, education, work situation, income and marital status. The second section was related to the ratings on expectation and satisfaction of destination attributes. The 22 destination attributes used in this study were based on a comprehensive literature review and those emerged in previous related study and perceived as important by seniors were selected to analyze in this research (Aboali et al., 2015; Esichaikul, 2012; Zeng, 2015; Lee, 2016). Then a content validity was conducted through a panel consisted of an expert in hospitality and tourism, a postgraduate majoring in hospitality and tourism management and a senior with tourism experience. The questionnaire was developed first in English, then translated into Chinese. Afterwards, the

Chinese version was translated back to English with the principal of blind translation-back-translation method (Brislin, 1976) which can be adopted to assess the original and back-translated versions, thereby improving the quality of translation (Heung, Qu & Chu, 2001). Finally, the questionnaire was pre-tested and revised in order to make sure its effectiveness as perceived by the respondents. The expectation and satisfaction of 22 destination attributes were rated based on a 5-point Likert scale.

Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis was used to analyze demographics of respondents. The importance and performance analysis was employed to obtain the perception regarding expectation and satisfaction of outbound destination attributes which would be scattered in each quadrant in IPA grad.

FINDINGS

Demographic Characteristics

The results show that 51% of respondents

were male tourists and 49% were female. 38.1% of respondents were diploma holders. In terms of occupation, the majority of respondents were self-employed with 39.8%, followed by 34.8% who were company employees. Totally most of respondents were married (83.8%) and retired (94.4%). The largest income group was the respondents who earned 4001-6000RMB monthly (41.1%).

Gap Analysis of Destination Attributes

Table 1 depicts the mean scores of expectation and satisfaction of destination attributes. It can be concluded that Chinese senior tourists attached high importance to the “safety of destination” (4.38), “hygiene of food and beverage” (4.22), “cleanliness of destination” (4.21), “suitability of food and beverage for seniors” (4.14) and “availability of information” (4.1) while they were less concerned about “accessibility and disability facilities” (3.4) and “variety of products for shopping” (3.67). Additionally, Chinese seniors were highly satisfied with “variety of products for shopping”

Table 1. Gap Analysis on the Expectation and Satisfaction of Destination Attributes

No	Destination Attributes	Exp Mean	Sat Mean	Gap	t-value	Sig.
1	Location of accommodation	3.91	3.92	0.01	0.307	0.759
2	Accommodation services	4.05	4.04	-0.01	-0.076	0.940
3	Accessibility and disability facilities	3.4	3.56	0.16	3.534	0.000*
4	Availability of medical equipment and staff	3.81	3.87	0.06	0.412	0.681
5	Provision of senior-related facilities and services	3.83	3.78	-0.05	-0.965	0.335
6	Leisure activities that suit to seniors	3.96	3.8	-0.16	-3.673	0.000*
7	Safety of destination	4.38	4.11	-0.27	-6.519	0.000*
8	Cleanliness of destination	4.21	4.02	-0.19	-4.092	0.000*
9	Availability of information	4.1	3.91	-0.19	-2.082	0.038*
10	Ease of communication	4.04	3.79	-0.25	-5.308	0.000*
11	Value for money	4.03	3.82	-0.21	-4.859	0.000*
12	Local transportation	4.04	3.98	-0.06	-1.460	0.145
13	Variety of food and beverage	3.97	3.99	0.02	0.465	0.643
14	Suitability of food and beverage for seniors	4.14	3.82	-0.32	-7.194	0.000*
15	Hygiene of food and beverage	4.22	3.98	-0.24	-5.074	0.000*
16	Variety of tourist attractions	4.01	4	-0.01	-0.261	0.794
17	Variety of products for shopping	3.67	4.13	0.46	3.499	0.001*
18	Special events and festivals	3.93	3.93	0	0.059	0.953
19	Friendliness of the people	4.01	4.01	0	-0.165	0.869
20	Reason-ability of time arrangement	4.01	4.08	0.07	0.548	0.584
21	Convenience of currency exchange	3.91	3.91	0	-0.060	0.952
22	Procedure simplification of outbound document	4.03	3.95	-0.08	-1.976	0.049*
	Total	87.66	86.4	-1.26		
	Average Central line	3.98	3.93	-0.05		

Note: “*” indicates a significant level of 5%

(4.13), “safety of destination” (4.11), “reason-ability of time arrangement” (4.08), “accommodation services” (4.04) and “cleanliness of destination” (4.02) as well. The least satisfying attributes included “accessibility and disability facilities” (3.56) and “provision of senior-related facilities and services” (3.78).

Overall, the satisfaction perceived by Chinese seniors was lower (-1.26) than their expectation according to the mean gap in table 1. The evident difference was shown in “suitability of food and beverage for seniors” (-0.32), “safety of destination” (-0.27), “ease of communication” (-0.25), “hygiene of food and beverage” (-0.24) and “value for money” (-0.21), indicating that Chinese senior tourists had high expectation on these destination attributes but the destination failed to meet the level that Chinese seniors expected, which needs more focus from tourism marketers when developing strategies.

According to the t-test on expectation and satisfaction of Chinese outbound senior tourists, it reflected that there were significant differences in 11 of 22 attributes including “accessibility and disability facilities” ($p < 0.05$), “leisure activities that suit to seniors” ($p < 0.05$), “safety of destination” ($p < 0.05$), “cleanliness of destination” ($p < 0.05$), “availability of information” ($p < 0.05$), “ease of communication” ($p < 0.05$), “value for money” ($p < 0.05$), “suitability of food and beverage for seniors” ($p < 0.05$), “hygiene of food and beverage” ($p < 0.05$), “variety of products for shopping” ($p < 0.05$) and “procedure simplification of outbound document” ($p < 0.05$). Specifically, compared to expectation attributes, all the mean values of satisfaction attributes were significantly lower except two attributes of “accessibility and disability facilities” ($t = 3.534$) and “variety of products for shopping” ($t = 3.499$). This finding indicated that Chinese seniors were relative satisfied with “accessibility and disability facilities” and “variety of products for shopping” while the destinations failed to satisfy the expectation of Chinese senior tourists in other 9 attributes.

CONCLUSION and DISCUSSION

As an increasingly prominent market segment in the world tourism industry, Chinese outbound senior tourists may have particular and different

travel characteristics, which is not yet well understood by other countries (Lin, 2014). Therefore, this study investigated the travel characteristics including expectation and satisfaction of destination attributes to better understand the Chinese senior tourists, further maintaining a competitive edge in today's fast challenging tourism market.

The research found that the majority of Chinese tourists traveling to outbound were married, retired and approximately half each for males and females. Most of respondents were diploma holders and self-employed with an income of 4001-6000RMB monthly.

According to the result of gap analysis, Chinese senior tourists highly valued the “safety of destination”, “hygiene of food and beverage” and “cleanliness of destination”. This finding is partly supported by previous study of Patterson (2006), Wang et al. (2013) and Hsu (2001) in which the seniors were more concerned about personal safety, both in route and at the destination. Dann (1977) indicated that “cleanliness and safety” was perceived as the most important factor which can attract tourists to travel. As Abooli et al. (2015) suggested, this is where tourism marketers have to maintain the standard of quality to appeal to this lucrative market. The highly satisfying attributes included “safety of destination” and “accommodation services” as well. Previous study regarding senior tourists also proved that “safety and security” and “accommodation services” were rated as important factors with satisfactory performance (Abooli et al., 2015). While the least important destination attributes contained “accessibility and disability facilities”, “variety of products for shopping” and “availability of medical equipment and staff”. This is different from previous finding that accessibility was the significant service that needs destination planners to take into consideration (Patterson, 2006). While as Jang et al. (2009) mentioned, seniors now are different from those in the past, that they are healthier, travel more frequently and stay away longer at greater distance. This might result in a least importance in disability facilities. On the other hand, Chinese tourists enjoy shopping and spend a considerable budget on shopping (Lin, 2014). However, this study found that the “variety of products for shopping” was least important, which is supported by Chen (2013) who

reported that because travel agencies use shopping as one of the activities to force tourists to consume, this kind of forced behavior creates a rebellious feeling for tourists, thus, tourists are more reluctant to shop during the tourism. On the contrary, Zeng (2015) proved that Chinese senior tourists were more concerned about reasonable shopping time and product property.

The results of gap analysis and t-test on the expectation and satisfaction demonstrated that large and negative gaps were found in attributes of “suitability of food and beverage for seniors”, “safety of destination”, “ease of communication”, “hygiene of food and beverage”, “value for money”, “cleanliness of destination” and “availability of information” since the mean values of satisfaction were significantly lower than that of its expectation. That is to say, the Chinese seniors had high expectation with these destination attributes but the destination failed to fulfill their expectation. This is partly supported by Esichaikul (2012) who pointed out that “variety of suitability of food and beverage” was indicated as an important attribute for seniors while opposite with the study by Aboali et al. (2015) finding that the “availability of information”, “ease of communication” and “value for money” were considered as less important by senior tourists. Dann (1977) also indicated that “cleanliness and safety” was the most important factor to attract tourists to travel. Therefore, tourism destinations should pay high attention to improve the safety and cleanliness of destination, ease of communication, value for money, availability of information and, most importantly, provide the food and beverage suitable for seniors in order to narrow the gap between their expectation and satisfaction.

In conclusion, this study aimed to identify the characteristics of Chinese outbound senior tourists and, further, to assess their expectation and satisfaction toward destination attributes. The results showed that “safety of destination”, “hygiene of food and beverage”, “cleanliness of destination” were rated as the most important destination attributes that need to keep up the good work, and “variety of products for shopping”, “safety of destination”, “reason-ability of time arrangement”, “accommodation services” were rated high in satisfaction. While the big gaps between expectation and satisfaction were found on the attributes of “suitability of food and beverage for seniors”,

“safety of destination”, “ease of communication”, “hygiene of food and beverage” and “value for money”, which probably causes dissatisfaction by higher expectation but lower satisfaction, hereby requiring an urgent measure to handle it.

The senior tourism market is a broad research field, especially in the era of an increasingly aging population, the exploration of this field will inevitably become an important research topic. To enhance the level of service which is perceived of high importance by seniors could contribute to high satisfaction and a more favorable destination image (Aboali et al., 2015). The implications identified by this study can help tourism destinations rethink their strategies, improve senior tourists’ satisfaction and keep standing out from the highly competitive industry. Additionally, this study has several limitations that should be considered in the future research. First, the scope of this research was limited by only 4 areas to conduct the survey. However, the behavioral characteristics and habits of the seniors in different regions may also differ, so it is necessary to further conduct a comparative analysis on the differentiation of the senior groups in different regions to find out their commonality and uniqueness. Second, this study did not focus on specific destination, hereby not providing customized implications, which leads to broad results on the overall preference of the senior tourists. Therefore, the further study can target one destination to provide more specific and meaningful implications to it.

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ARE YOU AN AWKWARD TOURIST? HOW TO ENHANCE THE COHESION BETWEEN TOURISTS AND LOCAL RESIDENTS? EXPLORING FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF LEISURE LITERACY AND RECREATIONIST-ENVIRONMENT FIT: WITH THE MODERATING EFFECT OF SELF-IMAGE CONGRUITY CONSIDERED

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ABSTRACT

The study intends to explore the mechanism of the cohesion between tourists and local residents from the viewpoint of leisure literacy and recreationist-environment fit, as well as the moderating effects of tourists' self-image congruity in the said mechanism. The research focused on nature-oriented eco-tourism activities. The study proposes the following hypotheses: (1) leisure literacy has positive impact on cohesion; (2) leisure literacy has positive impact on recreationist-environment fit; (3) recreationist-environment fit has positive impact on cohesion; (4) self-image congruity functions as a moderator in the interactive relationship among leisure literacy, recreationist-environment fit and cohesion. Convenience

sampling is adopted and subjects selected by the study are the visitors of 5 eco-tourism destinations in Taiwan and Shandong. 2,160 questionnaires will be distributed at these sites. Population statistics of the questionnaires and their reliability will be analyzed by SPSS 22.0, which will be followed by the adoption of regression analyses to examine the hypotheses of the study. Furthermore, self-image congruity moderates the relationship between leisure literacy and recreationist-environment fit. The findings of the study will be beneficial for understanding the influential elements of the cohesion between tourists and local residents. Further discussion and suggestions both for tourism management and future research will be proposed in the end of the study.

HOTEL BRAND MANAGERS PERSPECTIVE ON INNOVATIVE STRATEGIES TO ATTRACT MILLENNIALS

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INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Today, most of the population is constantly looking for newer, faster, and more efficient ways to get things done, due to innovation. There are many different types of innovation. The reason for this need for innovation is due to the millennial generation. “Innovation favors the young” (Karabo, 2016). Millennials prefer an empirical, quick and personalized consumer experience. Millennials often view business travel as opportunities opposed to inconveniences. With Google and other user interfaces being at the consumers’ fingertips, there is a new awareness across the tech industry that millennials expect and accept as normal (Solomon, 2014). With that said, it is important that markets, industries and brands become aware of these characteristics to attract

Branding is a key component for hotels when it comes to targeting markets and customers. Millennials enjoy the opportunity to collaborate with brands, if they believe their say matters to the company in question. Companies will designate billions of dollars every year to brand their services and products to future consumers because they understand how important it is (Porterfield, 2017). Therefore, as millennials cause trends to change, various industries create more innovative strategies and adapt to these trends to have a better competitive advantage (Lee, 2013); Schawbel & Bisharat, 2015).

The purpose of this study is to explore the innovative strategies, focusing on sustainability, service and technology, hotel brands are creating to attract the millennials. This study specifically examines hotel brand managers’ perspective on innovative strategies to attract the millennial generation. This study will help close the knowledge

gap between millennial consumers and the hotel industry. Hotel professionals will gain a better understanding on which strategies work best and which to avoid when attempting to attract millennials to their specific hotel brand. Based on this study, it can be expected that more hotel brand managers will implement innovative strategies to attract the millennial generation.

Studies reveal millennials will make up about half the workforce in the next few years. Thus, this generation will also have the most spending power and plans to use their funds on traveling (The 'Purchasing Power' Of Multicultural Millennials, 2017). Currently, millennials are traveling for business more frequently than other generations. Therefore, since millennials will be traveling so much, it is crucial for hotel brand managers to implement new innovations to assure this growing generation chooses their hotel.

Over the next five years, spending on hotels and eateries are expected to be the quickest rising sectors of US retail because millennial consumers, unlike prior generations, prefer spending a greater amount of their income on technology and experiences, such as, traveling and dining out (“United States Retail Report”, 2017, p. 10). This should be done using new, creative and innovative strategies. Innovation in the hotel industry relies on delivering a benefit worth paying for.

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research approach was undertaken for this study. An inductive approach and semi-structured interviews were conducted to produce a thematic framework for this study. This study required in depth answers to questions regarding strategies that hotel brands are taking to

attract the millennial generation. Summative content analysis was used to analyze the data. Once the interviews were completed and transcribed, there were 29,189 words in total. Each interview varied in length from 349 words to 4,785 words. Keywords were selected and analyzed by looking at the word count and how frequently that word appeared in the data. From there, 11 different themes were selected from the most frequent words used. Then, the 11 different themes were grouped together in 3 broad themes.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Service Innovation

The four main examples of service innovations that industry professionals are looking to implement or have already implemented are: staff knowledge, price point, design and human touch.

Sustainable Innovation

Millennials and individuals that share this same mindset, want to make sure they are doing business with a company that cares about more than just making money. Based off the various interviews, many of these newer brands are implementing energy saving techniques to attract that millennial mindset.

Technological Innovation

The idea of “self-service is the best service” works very well for this millennial mindset. Since this mindset is considered impatient, the idea of self-service technology, mobile devices and kiosks make their hotel stay experience more efficient.

CONCLUSION

The millennial generation is quickly growing and dominating the workforce more and more every year, making this the generation with the most spending power, disposable income and travel plans.

With that said, according to the various qualitative interviews, the researcher could see that hotel brands need to target a mindset, lifestyle and expectations as opposed to a single demographic. Based on various research and interviews, hotel brands need to have innovative strategies to attract this millennial mindset. Using *innovative strategies to attract the millennial mindset* hotel brands can learn how to implement different types of innovation.

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CSR PRACTICES AFFECTING EMPLOYEE PERCEPTION ON BUILDING A SUSTAINABLE COMMUNITY AND THEIR ATTACHMENT TO THE FIRM: IN THE VIETNAMESE TOURISM CONTEXT

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INTRODUCTION

The hospitality and tourism industries in Vietnam have been booming, since a few decades ago and are now considered as one of the key growing engines for the national economy. Internationalization of management practices in Vietnam has been at a high pace as evidenced by the influx of globally leading brands and service providers in the hospitality and tourism sector. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) practices in the hospitality and tourism sector in Vietnam have been known to the public from a press release and the websites of international hotels, such as Intercontinental, Hilton, and Nikko to name a few. After the CSR concept was introduced in Vietnam by UN-related initiatives and/or world-class brands for the past decade, things have gradually changed towards adoption and adaptation of CSR into local small and medium size firms since promoting CSR among tourist enterprises has been seen to improve their competitiveness (Nguyen et al., 2018).

Previous research centered either in CSR and employee engagement topics alone, such as Rupp et al. (2018) or only in CSR and community topics, such as McLennan & Banks (2019), except a recent work by Appiah (2019) using the developed country context (US hotels) to explain community-based CSR and employee job satisfaction. There has been scarce research about the effects of CSR practices on community building and employee attachment with firms, specifically in World Heritage tourism sites. This study focused on employee perceived CSR practices of firms in the context of tourism firms located in Ha Long Bay area, Quang Ninh Province, Vietnam, designated as a World Natural

Heritage site by UNESCO in 1994 and subsequently in 2000. Vietnam's natural landscaping, favorable weather conditions create world's outstanding tourists' destinations. Hence, this area has drawn more than ten million tourists worldwide year-round. An overview of the country's research projects published in the local language (Tran et al., 2018) showed a research gap in studying how and why employees' perceptions of CSR practices of local tourism firms is associated with employee engagement. Human resources and community life play a vital role in the success of Vietnam's tourism. However, there has not been much research to evaluate the impact of employees' perceptions of CSR of firms on building sustainable communities and employee attachments. Therefore, this study is considered the first attempt to connect employee perceptions of firms' CSR practices, and employee and community using the primary data collected from one of the World Heritage sites in a developing country.

Given the high employee turnover rate is social and environmental challenges in the tourism sector in Vietnam. A developing country, the findings of this study may be useful for management of hospitality and tourism firms to improve firms' performances involved in economic and social benefits for residents and employees in the area. By implementing sustainable practices, Quang Ninh Province strives to achieve the national goal of becoming a tourism center by 2030. Given the importance and urgency, this study focuses on relationships between firms' CSR practices and employees' perceptions of firms' contributions to building a sustainable community as well as employee attachment to their firm in the Vietnamese

tourism context. Findings from this study will also provide business managers, government administrators, and policy-makers with some insights of future directions to promote CSR efforts in the hospitality and tourism firms in Vietnam.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Attachment Theory and Stakeholder Theory

Attachment theory and stakeholder theory are two branches of underpinning foundations in the literature for this study. Attachment theory is recognized as a lifespan developmental theory relevant for understanding how certain affectional experiences impact emotional and physical well-being, not only during childhood, but also throughout adulthood during their working profession as well (Sable, 2008). The organization may often serve as the attachment figure. For the relationship between employees and their organization to evoke attachment dynamics, the relationship must involve some types of affectional bond (e.g., through corporate citizenship) (e.g., Keller and Cacioppe, 2001). Attachment theory potentially explains employees' intrinsic and affective needs for a secure relationship with their workplace. Previous evidence indicates employees are more likely to engage in their work when they have developed a high level of organizational trust (e.g., Chughtai & Buckley, 2008). Work engagement and organizational trust can be achieved through the meaningfulness of work (Morrison et al., 2007). To create employee-perceived meaningfulness of work, organizations need to implement policies and operations adhered to social value and community sustainability, while maximizing profitability and firm value. Moreover, increased stakeholders' pressure has forced tourism companies to adopt sustainable practices (Font et al., 2012) for the creation of social value.

Today, more organizations in the hospitality and tourism industry tend to focus on adopting sustainable practices. This trend has increased (Kang et al., 2010). While there are various definitions of CSR coined, the most widely accepted perspective of CSR is the stakeholder theory (Moir, 2001). Stakeholders include shareholders, employees, consumers, and society as a whole. Stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) argues

organizations should act in the best interests of those affected by or can affect the organization and its outcomes (Moir, 2001). Today, corporations engage with communities more than before (Newell, 2005). Business organizations and communities are inseparable, but are interdependent (Davis & Frederick, 1985; Levy, 1999). Porter and Kramer (2006) argued every action in a corporation's value chain can create a positive or negative social consequence to the community; hence, using CSR to create shared value for stakeholders should be the strategy of enhancement of firms' competitiveness. Studies also found the role of organizations in building sustainable communities (Ismail, 2009; Kochhar, 2014). Ismail (2009) viewed the genuine purpose of CSR is to make positive impacts in community socially, environmentally, and economically, while doing business as usual.

CSR practices

CSR practices have developed in Asia in three phases. The first phase, community involvement, is considered the most established form of CSR, and the second and third phases of CSR emerging in Asia now are socially responsible products and processes, and socially responsible employee relations (Chapple & Moon, 2005). Various CSR practices implemented in Western countries have not been viewed at the same level of importance in developing countries (Jamali, 2007). However, with the changing times, developing countries noted an increased demand for corporate citizenship and transparency (Chaudhri & Wang, 2007). Firms in Asian countries take steps in CSR practices at corporate, regional, and national levels, rather than blindly follow the Western values and principles (Higgins & Debroux, 2009) and may rely more on cultural mechanisms, such as philosophy and guiding principles (Suzuki & Tanimoto, 2005). In Vietnam, the concept of CSR was first coined by the initiatives of UN Global Compact and UNIDO in collaboration with national-level industry associations, followed by Vietnamese subsidiaries and/or affiliates of multinational corporations a decade ago. The first-ever sustainability reports were published by a limited number of Vietnamese largest listed companies in 2012. In 2016, the Vietnam Chamber of Commerce and Industry, a national-level business association, launched the

Sustainability Report Prize to recognize the leading companies in Vietnam in reporting ethical performances. Hilton Hanoi Opera and JW Marriott Hanoi are among the leading actors who have contributed to building community by supporting non-governmental vocational schools for the disadvantaged youth in the community where the hotels are located.

In the report designed to stimulate the discussion about CSR of the corporate sector, the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD, 2001) defined CSR as “the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large.” (p. 3). This broad definition can be narrowed to “the environmental, social, and economic, and stakeholder dimensions,” which are generally associated with CSR practices. Contributing to this concept, Commission of Europe Communities (2001) defines CSR as “a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis” (European commission, 2002, p. 347). From the international best lessons learned and guidelines, CSR implementations are commonly inclined with organizational management, protection of environmental and consumer rights and in labor practices.

Organization management

Organization management, which refers to the system by which an organization makes and implements decisions pursuing its goals, represents the most crucial core issue that every organization should consider. It is an emerging trend in the recent CSR literature to examine the association between CSR and organization management (Murphy & Schlegelmilch, 2013). Inundated by business scandals in North America and Europe raise keen attention to organization management because the unethical or illegal activities with a business often occurred due to lack of oversight and good management protocols (Murphy & Schlegelmilch, 2013). It is believed employees want their firms transparent and directly accountable to stakeholders.

Labor relations

Labor issues include all forms of policy and practice in relationship to work on behalf of the organization, including labor wage. This goes beyond the scope of an organization and its relationship with employees. It includes recruitment and promotion of staff, transfer of employees, training and skills development, health and safety, practices that affect working conditions, trade union activities, among others. Various studies have investigated the importance of CSR to attract potential employees (Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Backhaus et al., 2002; Greening & Turban, 2000) and to retain employees’ work engagement and intentions to stay with their company (Park et al., 2018). Firms that have good employee relations are likely to have significantly lower turnover rates and a substantially more enthusiastic workforce (Cochran, 2007)-thus, achieving more sustainability in human resources.

Environmental protection

According to ISO 26000 guideline (2010), organizations are expected to ensure their activities comply with internationally-recognized principles and obligations concerning the protection of the environment. They should support a cautious approach towards environmental issues, popularize greater environment responsibility, encourage the development and expansion of technologies that favor the environment, accept the polluter-pays principles, and so on. More specifically, CSR practices in environmental protection are involved in organizations that use measures to prevent pollution, own daily waste management systems, utilize environmentally friendly or recycled materials, regularly organize activities to promote environment protection, and limit negative impacts on the environment on a daily basis activity. Investment in environmental protection facilities may be costly for firms at first. However, environmental CSR helps them improve business competitiveness (Chuang & Huang, 2018).

Consumer rights protection

Organizations should ensure all their activities uphold the internationally-recognized human rights and, based on the recommendations by the ISO 26000 (2010) on corporate social responsibility, provide consumers with accurate and clear

information about the products and services; collect products and compensate consumers, if there is a fault in the products; avoid using poison chemicals and materials not good for consumers' health and the environment; provide effective customer support and protect consumers' privacy and personal information.

Building a sustainable community

Where conflicts of interest exist between firms in the tourism sector and stakeholders in developing countries, corporate policies in CSR and plans of action should be designed reasonably to harmonize these conflicts. The Vietnamese economy is partially driven by the hospitality and tourism industry. This country has a comparative advantage in natural sights and inexpensive labor force. For instance, one of the major concerns is related to labor-related issues (i.e., job security, employee benefits, compensation, employee rights, fair treatment, among others). Thus, CSR is considered one of the imminent issues worth researching at regional and national levels in Vietnam. However, no significant efforts have been made to evaluate the impacts of CSR on building sustainable communities and employee attachment to their firm from employees' perspectives. Therefore, this study attempts to investigate how CSR practices in the workplace influence employees' perceptions of building sustainable communities and employees' attachment to their firm in the tourism context in Vietnam. To understand the direct impact of CSR practices of firms on building a sustainable community in the context of tourism firms through the eyes of their employees, the following hypotheses are posited:

H1: CSR practices in organizational management positively affect employees' perceptions of tourism firms in building sustainable community.

H2: CSR practices in labor relations positively affect employees' perceptions of tourism firms in building sustainable community.

H3: CSR practices in environment protection positively affect employees' perceptions of tourism firms in building sustainable community.

H4: CSR practices in consumer protection positively affect employees' perceptions of tourism firms in building sustainable community

Employee attachment

Numerous studies found a relationship between CSR and employees' attachment to the firm (Garavan & McGuire, 2010; Trevino & Nelson, 2016;). Some studies showed employees exposed to and experienced the CSR perception more than employees only introduced overall general CSR concepts will have a higher level of attachment towards the firm (Ferreira & Oliveira, 2014). Other research studies showed a positive relationship between CSR disclosure and employees' attachment, loyalty, behaviors, and career goals. When a company implicates CSR initiatives, employees feel prouder and more committed to the organization (Bhaduri & Selarka, 2016; Nejati et al., 2013). CSR performance can be an effective way for companies to maintain a positive relationship with their employees (Kim et al., 2010; Chaudhary 2017). Collier and Esteban (2007) specify employees' motivations and commitments will be affected by the extent to which they can align personal identity and image with that of the organization, by their perception of justice and fairness in general and in terms of how CSR performances are rewarded, and by their impressions concerning the attitude of top management of CSR issues and performance. Studies found close relationships between positive CSR actions of organizations and employee commitment (Ali et al., 2010; Turker, 2009). To investigate the impacts of CSR practices of firms on employee attachment to the firm in the context of tourism firms, the following hypotheses are also speculated:

H5: CSR practices in organizational management positively affect employee attachment to tourism firms.

H6: CSR practices in employee relations positively affect employee attachment to tourism firms.

H7: CSR practices in environment protection positively affect employee attachment to tourism firms.

H8: CSR practices in consumer protection positively affect employee attachment to tourism firms.

Firms' commitment to building a sustainable community and employee attachment

It is viewed that employees feeling attached to the firm will be committed and loyal to the firm. It is also believed that firms' efforts to develop CSR could have a positive effect on

employees' organizational commitment and their loyalty to the firm. A study with a gaming organization (Smith et al., 2014) found as employee attitudes toward CSR became positive, employees' commitment toward the company became stronger; and as employees became affective toward the company, their loyalty to organization was strengthened. Engaged employees are more likely proactively to suggest cost-saving ideas and business innovations, and generally are more willing to 'go the extra mile' where they believe their contribution will help the firm's triple-bottom line including environmental, social, and economic (Grayson, 2010). Organizations with a reputation for CSR can take advantage of their status and strengthen their appeal as an attractive employer by making their commitment part of their value proposition for potential candidates. It is believed when employees view their organization's commitment to socially

responsible behavior more favorably, they also tend to have more positive attitudes in other areas that correlate with better performance. They believe their organizations recognize and reward great customer service, act quickly to address and resolve customer concerns, and are led by people in senior management, who act in the best interest of customers. Perhaps, there is a correlation between a company's success in the marketplace and a positive perception of the employees to their organization. It is also a factor in attracting and retaining talent. In relating to community development, good employees' perceptions on a corporation could lead to a community that treats the corporation as an important economic asset in the community. Consequently, it is hypothesized:

H9: Employee perceived firm's commitment to community sustainability positively affects employee attachment to tourism firms.

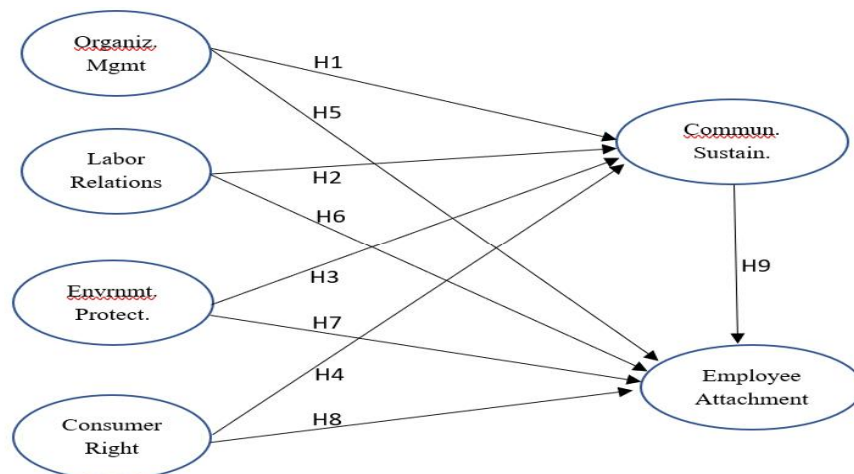


Figure 1 illustrates the study framework and hypotheses.

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected from local tourism firms' employees in the Ha Long Bay area, Quang Ninh Province, VietNam—a well-known tourism destination designated as one of the World Natural Heritage's sites by UNESCO. Tourism is considered the leading industry in the national and provincial economy, and the locomotive towards sustainable socio-economic development. First, a survey instrument was designed. Multiple measurement items for this study were adopted from previous studies to ensure validity and reliability for each

construct (Ferreira & Oliveira, 2014; ISO 26000, 2010; Danish & Usman, 2010; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; & Rana et al., 2014). Next, an online pilot study with 42 employees working in local tourism firms was conducted to obtain feedback to improve the clarity of the instruments. Then, the researchers contacted managers of 200 local tourism firms in advance to receive support in collecting data and offered to share the results of the study, so these firms can utilize the findings from this study to establish training plans and marketing strategies. Of the 200 company executives contacted, 119 had supporting responses.

RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS

A total of 488 usable responses were obtained for further analysis after data cleaning. More than half of the respondents (60%) were female, more than half of the respondents were between 26 and 35 years of age (50.4%). Less than 40% held an Associate degree, and a majority (77.3%) of the respondents have work experience less than five years in the tourism industry. Convergent and discriminant validities were checked and achieved, having standardized loading values larger than .70 ($p < .001$). All AVEs (average variance extracted) exceeded the cut-off value of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Eisingerich et al., 2011).

Using SEM, maximum likelihood estimation identified an acceptable model fit to the data (Gefen, Straub, & Boudreau, 2000). This study results support H1, H2, H3 and H4, confirming how employees perceive CSR in organizational

management, labor practices, environment and consumer rights protection at their workplace positively affects how they perceive their employers engaging with sustainable development for local communities. This means once workers trust their managers both internally (i.e., for the style of leading the company and caring for workers) and externally (i.e., executives' respect for environment, consumer rights and community sustainability), their positive perceptions could strengthen the bond between themselves with their employers. This explanation is supported by confirming H9; clearly, this study's results accept this hypothesis. Thus, our findings are in line with Turker (2009), Ali et al. (2010), Kim et al. (2010), Nejati et al. (2013), Bhaduri & Selarka (2016), and Chaudhary (2017). H5 was also supported, which means organizational management directly affected employee attachment to the firm (See Table 1).

Table 1. Path analyses testing hypotheses

Paths	Standardized coefficient (β)	t-value	Result
H1: OM \rightarrow CS	.29***	3.65	Supported
H2: LR \rightarrow CS	.23**	2.93	Supported
H3: EP \rightarrow CS	.19***	3.43	Supported
H4: CR \rightarrow CS	.27***	4.63	Supported
H5: OM \rightarrow EA	.23***	3.29	Supported
H6: LR \rightarrow EA	.07	1.09	Not supported
H7: EP \rightarrow EA	.05	1.10	Not supported
H8: CR \rightarrow EA	.02	.045	Not supported
H9: CS \rightarrow EA	.66***	8.395	Supported

$\chi^2(488)=1184.97$, $d/f=443$, $CMIN/DF=2.67$, $p<.000$, $SRMR=0.024$, $TLI=.94$, $CFI=.94$, $RMSEA=.059$; ** $p<.01$; *** $p<.001$

Although H6, H7, and H8 exhibited insignificant effects in the test, significant standardized indirect effects were detected. Therefore, a post-hoc analysis was conducted to assess possible mediation effects. First, the model fit indices indicated an acceptable model fit. The Chi-squared value of the study model ($\chi^2=1184.97$, $d/f=443$, $p<.001$) was compared with that for a constraint model to check the parsimony of the constraint model ($\chi^2=1277.84$, $d/f=444$, $p<.000$). The difference ($92.87 > \Delta\chi^2(1)=3.89$) for χ^2 indicates parsimony of the constraint model, worthy to compare two models to test mediation effects. The

standardized coefficients for all three path coefficients (LR, EP, CR to EA) were strongly significant ($\beta=.25$ ***, $\beta=.155$ ***, $\beta=.163$ ***, respectively), which explain community sustainability interfered with the relationships between them. Hence, community sustainability fully mediated the relationships between labor relations, environment protection, and consumer rights and employee attachment in the study model.

Results confirm H5 supported, while rejecting H6, H7, and H8. By supporting H5, this suggests that firms with plausible organizational management style could engage employees more. In the other

words, company managers are the source of inspiration for workers' feeling attached. If a worker is unhappy with their boss, he/she will become detached with the boss and, hence, may leave the firm. For this, the study results support Collier and Esteban (2007). However, the results do not accept H6, H7, and H8, indicating one possibility that employees are unclear of their bond with their company when relating to labor, environment, and consumer rights at their work place. In the context of the Vietnam tourism industry, it has been the case that employees of many small and medium size firms are not unionized or fully informed of the company's practices in employee relations environment protection, and consumer protection. They can evaluate the firm's practices in organizational management, which are more visible through daily observations, work activities, work compensations than other aspects of CSR practices.

CONCLUSIONS

Implications

Overall, this study examined the effects of corporate social responsibility (CSR) on employees' perceptions in building a sustainable community and employee attachment to tourism firms in the Ha Long Bay area, a UNESCO World Heritage Site, Vietnam. The findings from this study revealed tourism firms' practices in organizational management and employee perceived firm's commitment to community sustainability strongly and positively affected employees' emotional attachment with their firm. This study also found tourism company's socially responsible practices (organization management, favorable labor relations, environmental protection, and consumer rights) positively affected employees' perceptions on a company's contributions to building a sustainable community in Vietnam. A firm can benefit from these findings by understanding how CSR initiatives may enhance employees' job satisfaction and employee retention.

Organization management appeared to affect directly both employees' perceptions of the firm in building a sustainable community and employee attachment. It implies an organization's transparent, fair management brings multiple ripple positive effects. Human resources play a vital role in the success of the tourism industry. Management should

strive to implement socially responsible practices and manage the firm based on fairness, transparency, and ethical practices to retain quality talents beneficial for the firm. A well-managed firm with clear goals and pursuing those goals in the short and long term will gain employees' trust and build a strong connection with the public. The way the company shows accountability to its stakeholders, including its employees, and fulfills responsibilities in the rightful way of the law will certainly impact employees' intentions to stay and remain committed to the company. With trust and commitment, the employees exhibit good morale providing customers with better services and products, which will make the company more profitable and, in turn, be beneficial for employees' compensation.

This study also suggests employees expect companies involved in social initiatives to contribute to a sustainable community, which enables employees to feel more attached to the firm. Eventually, satisfied, long-term employees will be able to provide their customers with quality services, which, in turn, are beneficial for the company's profitability.

In Vietnam, the tourism industry is trans-positioning itself to become the leading service industry for the national economy. Statistics from the Vietnam National Administration of Tourism showed Vietnam received almost 13 million foreign visitors in 2017. However, there remain many weaknesses in service quality and human resource issues, such as high employee turnover, lack of training, and low payment. Given this situation, our study suggests Vietnam tourism firms must find appropriate solutions. The general trend in the world and the soon-to-be trend in Vietnam is firms fulfilling CSR practices will play a more critical role in the existence and development of these firms. Therefore, implementing CSR is no longer optional for firms, but is considered mandatory today.

Businesses, in general, in Vietnam pursuing the ultimate goal of maximizing profits should realize the importance of doing things correct and taking care of their employees for their own sustainability and profitability. This study shows it is time for tourism firms in Vietnam to switch focus and place CSR practices at the center of attention for their multiple benefits. We recommend tourism firms have tight control over steps to minimize toxic waste release to the environment, to guarantee

green, clean environmental standards guided by ISO 14000. Tourism firms could fulfill CSR guided by ISO26000. The firms should use modern equipment to process waste before releasing it into the environment, avoid harmful polluting leakage during production, transportation, or consumption processes. These are simple, efficient solutions contributing to the fulfillment of CSR practices. Firms are recommended to respect human rights by obeying the national constitution, national laws, international laws and regulations or even voluntary groups' initiatives. To manage efficiently and professionally, firms need to execute some specific measures as follows: (i) encourage equal opportunities for women and minority groups to hold important positions in the organization; (ii) create two-way communication procedures among related parties, determine the agreement and disagreement zone to negotiate to resolve potential conflicts; (iii) regularly check and assess management procedures of the organization, adjust procedures according to results of the internal communications. Regarding philanthropy in tourism, the firms can reinvent and invest in community projects, and create environments for community-based products to be launched in the markets. Besides, the firms should familiarize and disseminate knowledge on CSR to everyone from staff to managers to customers. This can be accomplished through seminars, media websites, television channels to advertise the firm and at the same time to create benefits for society.

The findings from this study also provide government administrators and lawmakers with some insights for future directions to promote tourism firm's CSR efforts. The Vietnamese government and local authorities can provide firms with incentives on CSR fulfillment through taxes, government subsidies, free ISO1400 and ISO26000 training workshops for business managers, national recognition of firms in public media who contributed to the common good of the community and the environment. At the same time, firms violating environmental protection, human rights, labor practices, consumer protection should be held accountable and severely punished by laws and regulations through a transparency legislative and executive system of checks and balances. Therefore, findings from this study using Ha Long Bay area as a case study is useful for management and

policy-makers at different levels. By implementing and supporting sustainable CSR practices, the firms and government can make it possible to achieve the national goal for Quang Ninh Province to become a world-class tourism center by 2030.

To the researchers' best knowledge, this study is the first attempt to investigate the impacts of CSR practices on building a sustainable community and employee attachment with firms in the tourism sector using a primary dataset collected from a World Heritage site. This paper contributes to filling the gap in the literature body of CSR in the hospitality and tourism field.

Limitations and suggestions for future studies

This study has limitations. Since the dataset is limited to a singular case of Ha Long Bay area, one of the World Heritage sites, this hinders the generalization of the findings to the national/international level, although the research issues are of national/international interest. Therefore, the authors suggest further research should expand the sample size across the country/region and deeper into the issues of labor, environmental, and consumer rights protection.

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FUNCTIONAL ROBOTS ADOPTION ON THE HOTEL SERVICE DELIVERY PROCESS AND EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION

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INTRODUCTION

The adoption of robots in the hotel industry is progressing rapidly. The functional robot is a robot designed technically or functionally that reflects the tasks they perform. A functional robot can perform better service with a lower level of technology required in comparison to humanoid robots or zoomorphic robots (Duffy, 2003). Anthropomorphic robots or humanoid robots are designed to resemble a human-like body and can mimic human-like forms (Duffy, 2003). Zoomorphic robots are designed as non-human living animals, and they could be programmed to perform human tasks (e.g., the dinosaur robots in Henn-na Hotel that provides check-in service) (Pfeifer et al., 2007). Most of the current adoption of robots in hotels are functional robots. According to Pinillos et al., (2016), there are two main requirements that a robot must meet to be brought to the market: it must offer an excellent service at an affordable price, and it must perform the tasks with a minimal, tolerable failure rate. Users have a lower social expectation and a higher tolerance toward service failure of functional robots (Tung & Au, 2018); this is because users expect human-like experience if a robot has anthropomorphic features and may have a higher expectation from highly anthropomorphic robots than those with lower anthropomorphism (Nowak & Biocca, 2003). From the current level of technology, a functional robot is a suitable choice for the hotel industry.

The adoption of functional robots is sure to change many aspects of the hotel operation, service delivery process, employee work experience, and customer consumption experience. The purpose of this paper is to

understand how the adoption of functional robots positively affect internal customers' work efficiency/barriers and reduce/increase workload, and hence, lead to employee satisfaction/dissatisfaction. Different from industrial robots whose performance metrics solely depend on efficiency, the success of functional robots depends on the satisfaction of the users (Bartneck et al., 2009a; 2009b). Therefore, it is important to understand the characteristics of functional robots on service delivery process that either induces positive or negative reactions from employees in hotels. Despite the growing managerial interest in the practical deployment of robots in the hotel industry, few studies to date have examined the impact of adoption of functional robots on hotel employees' experience. This study seeks to develop a conceptual model to answer the following research question: What is the impact of functional robots on service delivery and employee job satisfaction?

LITERATURE REVIEW

From the organization's perspective, services are processes that have to be designed and managed to create operational efficiency and the desired customer experience (Wirtz & Lovelock, 2016). Poorly designed methods are likely to annoy customers because they often result in slow, frustrating, and poor-quality service delivery. Similarly, poor processes make it difficult for service personnel to do their jobs well, thus resulting in low productivity, and increasing the risk of service failure. Due to the emphasis of "high-touch" paradigm in the hotel industry, service personnel is the main provider of service delivery. However, in the current competitive environment, technology

(i.e., robots) plays an important and a necessary role in hotel service delivery process. Parasuraman's (1996) service marketing triangle encouraged and direct research incorporating the growing part and the importance of technology in the delivery of services. Technology can be used by contact employees to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of service encounters—enabling customization, improving service recovery, and spontaneously delighting customers.

Functional robots can reduce the employee's workload directly and indirectly. Functional robots could reduce employee workload directly, as they can perform repetitive tasks and physically strenuous tasks for the hotel employees. Yotel New York adopted YOBOT to help guests store their luggage (Tung & Au, 2018). Functional robots could also reduce workload indirectly, as human-robot collaborate to increase efficiency. Botlr, a functional robot that is capable of delivering amenities (i.e., towels, toothbrush, coffee) to guests' rooms in select California hotels (Robinson, 2016). This reduces the work for housekeepers. Housekeepers just need to focus on cleaning guest rooms without having to deliver amenities to guests. The ability of human employee matching to work and collaborate effectively with robots will be a highlight feature on the next generation workforce in the hotel industry. The workload is considered one of the essential influential factors that influence job satisfaction (Houston

et al., 2006). Similarly, work efficiency leads to high productivity and high-quality perception of service delivery (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Together, we propose that both high work efficiency and low workload will enhance employee job satisfaction.

Robots can change employees' role to enabler, innovator, coordinator, and differentiator; these changes will undoubtedly impact overall job performance and the resulting employee work experience in hotels (Lariviere et al., 2017). The more an employee is "ready" to excel at one or more of his/her changing roles, then performs well and feels rewarded for doing so, the more positive employee experience is likely to be. The use of functional robot allows service employees to be more effective because employee and robot can collaborate to provide service that better fit with customers' needs and wants. Danaher and Mattsson (1994) found "nice treatment," and correct booking at check-in service encounter are essential. In this case, robots can handle check-in procedures while human service agent can spend more time engaging with guests. Tussyadiah and Park (2018) indicate that room service delivery is not essential to hotel experience when compared to check-in. Thus, hotels could substitute employees with functional robots to deliver room service since people may feel more at ease about using robots for room service delivery. The conceptual framework is depicted in Figure 1.

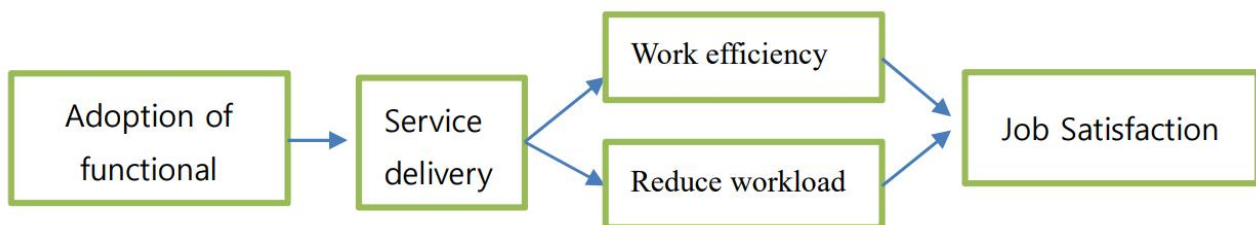


Figure 1. Conceptual framework

DISCUSSION

This study explains how the adoption of functional robots affect service delivery, hotel service agent's work efficiency, effectiveness, workload, and job satisfaction. After the adoption of the functional robot, service

delivery process could change directly and indirectly. Functional robots could either augment or substitute human service employees and can foster network connections (Bitner et al., 2000; Lariviere et al., 2017). In turn, employees are taking on the role of enabler, innovator, coordinator, and differentiator

(Lariviere et al., 2017). The positive changes in employees' work content and the different roles that the employees play will increase their job satisfaction; consequently, leads to external customer satisfaction and firms making profits. The relationships among employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction, and company performance are supported via the 'service-profit chain' (Heskett et al., 1994, 1997; Loveman, 1998). According to the empirical study done by Rucci et al. (1998), 5 unit increase in employee attitude drives 1.3 unit increase in customer impression and then induces a 0.5% increase in revenue growth.

The adoption of robots is not without any negative impacts especially, when it is still at its early stages of adoption and development in the hotel industry. From the hotel employees' perspective, front-line employees and housekeeping staff are most afraid that they will lose their job. From the firms' perspective, recent lay off of low-performing droids and some robots at the Henn-na Hotel in Japan, perhaps provide a realistic lens to hotel operators. Recently, Japan's Henn-na Hotel has laid off over half of its 243 low performing robots (Gale & Mochizuki, 2019); instead of supporting the efficiency of the hotel operation, these low performing robots created work rather than reduce work for the hotel employees. For example, the robot in each room, "Churi," failed to keep pace with Siri or Alexa; some guests quizzed her regarding the hours of operation of a nearby theme park, she was not able to respond (Gale & Mochizuki, 2019). Some guests were a heavy snorer; they weren't sure how to turn Churi (the robot assistant in guest rooms) off. The Henn-na Hotel owner, Mr. Hideo Sawada, said, he hasn't given up on the idea of a hotel without human staff, but the Henn-na Hotel has taught him that there are currently many jobs suited only for humans. "When you actually use robots you realize there are places where robots aren't needed, or just annoy people (Gale & Mochizuki, 2019, p. 6)". Hotels adopting robots need to acknowledge the high cost of robot investments and be committed to upgrading robots and frequent replacements.

IMPLICATIONS

Practical implications

Managers should ensure that functional robots can function and perform the tasks as requested or required to assist human service agents. Functional robots should not be adopted for just an eye-catching thing when robot technology is not in place to improve service delivery. This study shows the adoption of the functional robot has a significant impact on hotel operation and service delivery process; managers should conduct adequate research and development research before the actual launch and adoption of robots.

Limitations and future research

The current conceptual model is developed from the emerging literature review; it is without empirical testing. This study is conducted from a general point of view which does not target towards specific type or segment of the hotel. To limit the length of this paper, we focus only on how functional robots might positively impact internal customers of the hotel. Future research could investigate more in-depth regarding the adverse effects of robot adoption and provide appropriate solutions. Future research could also utilize this conceptual framework as a foundation for further empirical testing and to develop a more detailed framework for different segments of the hotel. This study only discusses one specific type of robot; future research could examine the impacts of adopting other types of robots in the hotel industry.

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DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF HOTEL KNOWLEDGE WORKERS' IDIOSYNCRATIC DEALS

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INTRODUCTION

Many employers have realized the importance of talent management, knowledge management, and human capital management because of the rapid development of the knowledge economy (CG Davidson et al., 2010). Idiosyncratic deals (or i-deals) were first proposed under the environment of the fast-growing knowledge economy by Rousseau in 2010. Compare to traditional standardized employment arrangements, i-deals are the personalized employment arrangements negotiated between individual employees and their employers that benefit both parties (Rousseau, 2005). Due to the scarcity of organizational resources, i-deals are more likely to be granted to the knowledge workers (Rousseau, 2006) who master and use symbols, concepts, knowledge, and information as their working tools (Drucker, 1959). Based on the definition of i-deals, researchers further studied its measures, antecedents, and outcomes. Generally, the content of i-deals involves flexibility and development (Rousseau & Kim, 2006). In recent studies, flexibility i-deals were differentiated to schedule flexibility i-deals and location flexibility i-deals and development i-deals were differentiated to task and work responsibilities i-deals and financial incentives i-deals (Rosen et al, 2008; Rosen et al, 2013). Hornung et al. (2014) suggested that development i-deals should be differentiated to task i-deals and career i-deals. Although the measures of i-deals vary considerably, most researchers agreed that i-deals are effective in motivating and retaining knowledge workers (Hornung et al., 2008; Hornung et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2013; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rosen et al., 2013; Sun & Kong, 2016).

According to Drucker (1959), knowledge

workers are mainly the managers and engineers of an organization. In the hospitality industry context, a recent study on knowledge workers selected departmental managers/supervisors or above as the target population (Wu & Chen, 2015), this may be because those employees are more likely to play the knowledge workers' roles in the hospitality industry. Therefore, the middle and senior managers are regarded as typical knowledge workers who obtain i-deals in the hospitality industry. As the supervisors' abilities and characters have been verified to be one of the most important influential factors of junior employees' turnover behavior in the Chinese hospitality industry (Very East, 2017), hotel employers are expected to pay much attention to motivating and retaining middle and senior hotel managers. I-deals provide a new perspective to talent management, knowledge management, and human capital management in the hospitality industry. The report "Tourism and Hospitality Workforce Development Strategy 2009" stressed the importance of work-life balance, job role and design, flexible work practices, and development activities on increasing employee retention in the tourism and hospitality industry (Service Skills Australia, 2009). Nevertheless, research on i-deals in the hospitality industry is still quite limited. Up to now, only one study looks at the influence of idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) on the reactions of senior managers, middle managers and other employees (Dhiman et al. 2016). Based on the social exchange theory, their study adopted a three-dimensional scale by Hornung et al. (2014) and found that task i-deals, career i-deals, and flexibility i-deals had positive effects on employee motivation, commitment, work engagement and organizational citizenship behaviors. A limitation of their study is that it only focused on two domains:

what (task i-deals, career i-deals) and when (schedule flexibility i-deals) without considering where (location flexibility i-deals) and why (financial incentives i-deals) (Rosen et al., 2008; Rosen et al., 2013). As i-deals are relatively new concepts to the hospitality industry, it is worthwhile to understand middle and senior hotel managers' perceptions on their own i-deals so as to interpret the applicability of i-deals among knowledge workers and develop a measurement scale of i-deals in the Chinese hospitality industry context that considers what, when, where, and why domains in the workplace.

METHOD

This study aims to understand the phenomenon that what kinds of i-deals are practiced among hotel knowledge workers by developing and validating a scale to measure i-deals in the Chinese hotel industry context. A mixed research method was adopted as approach to answer and achieve research question and objective respectively. This study followed a four-step procedure: 1) developing initial measurement items, 2) purifying measures, 3) collecting data, 4) evaluating the reliability and validity of the proposed measurement scale (Churchill, 1979; Netemeyer et al., 2003). The pragmatic qualitative research was conducted in developing initial measurement items and purifying measures as it is such an approach that attempts to discover, understand, and interpret a phenomenon, a process or the perspectives and worldviews of the individuals by researchers (Merriam, 1998; Neergaard et al. 2009). The quantitative research was conducted in collecting data and evaluating the reliability and validity of the proposed measurement scale. Because as a survey instrument that is grounded in the views of the participants, the developed scale still needs to be validated with a large sample representative of a population (Creswell et al., 2017).

The target population of this study is the knowledge worker in the Chinese hotel industry. As stated in Chapter One, senior and middle hotel managers are regarded as the most typical knowledge workers in the Chinese hotel industry. Data for the study were drawn from 4-star and 5-star hotels in Mainland China. Convenience sampling was utilized in the in-depth interview to select

participants fitting the criteria of senior and middle hotel managers. A total of 20 middle and senior managers from the Chinese 4-star and 5-star hotels were interviewed from August - October 2018 to collect information. Among the participants, there are 5 senior and middle managers from international and domestic hotels respectively. As accessing a large sample of managers from different star levels of hotels is difficult, the questionnaire survey data was collected with the help of a data collection company. In the main survey, 300 structured questionnaires were distributed to middle and senior managers that work more than 1 year in 4-star and 5-star hotels in Mainland China in February 2019. In the questionnaire, all the items of constructs are measured with a 7-point Likert-type scale on 1 equaled "strongly disagree" and 7 equaled "strongly agree". The collected data was analyzed to check the reliability and validity of the proposed measurement scale via SPSS and AMOS software packages.

FINDINGS

Developing Initial Measurement Items

The development of initial measurement items consists of two steps. The first step was to conclude relevant i-deals practice by reviewing literature. As research on i-deals in the hospitality industry context is still lacking, we conducted an extensive literature review of i-deals in the academia (Hornung et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Norris, 2015; Rousseau & Kim, 2006; Rosen et al., 2008; Rosen et al., 2013) and selected 19 items mainly based on the findings of studies by Hornung et al. (2014) and Rosen et al. (2013) (see Table 1), because the combination of the two scales covered the four comprehensive domains in the workplace: what (task and career i-deals), when (schedule flexibility i-deals), where (location flexibility i-deals), and why (financial incentives i-deals).

The second step was conducting in-depth interviews of senior and middle hotel managers. The interview participants consisted of 5 general managers (GM for short), 5 department directors, and 10 department managers from 9 international and 4 domestic high star hotels. Based on the participants' suggestions, the general manager, deputy general manager, and department director were regarded as the senior manager, while

department manager was regarded as the middle manager. All interviews were conducted with a semi-structured questionnaire in Chinese. The general managers and HR directors were asked to describe the personalized employment arrangements practiced in their hotels and to what extent the i-deals in the 19-item list (Table 1) were practiced in their hotels and to answer two additional questions - "What other kinds of effective personalized employment arrangements are practiced among the senior and middle managers in your hotel?" and "According to your own experience, what other kinds of effective personalized employment arrangements can you think of?". They were also asked to answer whether they have ever negotiated their own employment arrangements with their supervisors or employers and describe the personalized employment arrangements they have obtained in their hotels. Based on the in-depth interview, this study concluded four types of i-deals applied in the Chinese hospitality industry: (1) task i-deals (Item 1-4), (2) career i-deals (Item 5-13), (3) flexibility i-deals (Item 14-18), and (4) compensation & employee benefit package i-deals (Item 19-25) (see Table 2). Collectively, the initial scale items and updated item scale in the hospitality industry context are summarized in Table 2.

Purifying measures

Both industry and academic professionals were invited to assess to what extent the items of the measurement scale were representative of the targeted construct (Haynes et al., 1995). At first, the developed item list was sent to a total of 7 senior hotel managers separately. They were asked to answer to what extent the 25 i-deals were practiced in their hotels and assess the content validity of the items. If four or more managers agreed that a particular item represented the construct in question, the item was retained. They were also invited to edit and comment on the remaining items to enhance their clarity and readability in Chinese. An academic panel of 12 researchers who possessed relevant knowledge or work experience in Chinese hotels were invited to assess the degree of representation of each remaining item with a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly unrepresentative) to 7 (strongly representative) (Zaichowsky, 1985). The criterion

adopted to retain an item was its score was above 4. Based on the assessments and suggestions by the industry and academic experts, the content validity of the measurement scale is accepted. The granter of i-deals was changed from supervisor to superior/employer. In addition, a screening question was suggested to be added in the quantitative study - "Have you ever negotiated with your superior or employer for your employment arrangement (e.g., task, position, career plan, schedule, compensation)?"'. If a respondent's answer was no, the survey would be terminated.

Collecting Data

(Data collection is still processing and will be finished in early March 2019) This section will present the differences in demographic characteristics.

Evaluating the reliability and validity of the proposed measurement scale

(As data collection is still processing, results will be presented in the full paper) In the full paper, this section will present the results of exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. The expected result is a four dimensional scale of hotel managers' idiosyncratic deals is developed and validated.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study is the first exploratory study of i-deals in the Chinese hospitality industry context. The findings of this study verified that i-deals are applicable for senior and middle managers in the Chinese hospitality industry. Besides, this study proposed a four dimensional measurement scale in the Chinese hospitality industry context.

Compared to previous studies, this study not only proposes a comprehensive model of i-deals that involves what (task and career i-deals), when and where (flexibility i-deals), and why (compensation & employee benefit packages i-deals) domains, but also further develops career training, continuing education, and employee benefit i-deals that are practiced in the Chinese hospitality industry context. Career training and continuing education i-deals reflect individual and organizational needs on knowledge and higher diploma in the Chinese hospitality industry (Kong et al., 2011; Qiu Zhang

& Wu, 2004). Employee benefit i-deals reflect Chinese hotel employees' needs on a living standard, additional incentives, relaxation, rest, relief, and work-life balance (Chandra, 2012; Cooke, 2009; Dickson & Huyton, 2008). Therefore, the findings of this study enrich the content of i-deals and provide a theoretic basis and a comprehensive measurement tool to the future hospitality research on i-deals.

For the practical implication, several recommendations are provided as follows: Firstly, hotel employers are expected to appreciate knowledge workers' differences and personalized needs by granting them i-deals. Secondly, the practice of i-deals may vary according to different position levels. In terms of senior managers, the biggest challenge may be how to satisfy their needs on flexibility i-deals and stock-based incentives. As for middle managers, the biggest challenge may be how to satisfy their needs on task, career, and compensation & benefit packages i-deals. Thirdly, the findings show that the average education level of hotel managers does not match their individual needs on pursuing knowledge and higher diploma and organizational needs on employing highly educated managers in the Chinese hospitality industry. Nevertheless, it is becoming more and more difficult for most Chinese hotels to attract highly educated graduates from universities in recent years because of the lower wage and social status and more difficult career promotion of hotel employees (Qiu Zhang & Wu, 2004). Hence, career training and continuing education i-deals are highly recommended to be considered to grant the existing senior and middle managers in the Chinese hospitality industry. Fourthly, as it is relatively difficult to grant schedule and location flexibility i-deals to all the employees in the current hospitality industry to solve the work-life balance issue, hotel employers may consider monetary and non-monetary employee benefit i-deals. Monetary employee benefit has been verified to reflect and satisfy most Chinese employees' needs on a living standard and additional incentives (Chandra, 2012; Cooke, 2009). Non-monetary employee benefit programs have been verified to be effective in satisfying hotel employees' needs on more spaces for relaxation, rest, and relief (Dickson & Huyton, 2008). In addition, when hotel managers' needs on career i-deals are difficult to be satisfied,

compensation and benefit packages i-deals can be considered as a compensation.

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APPENDICES

Table 1. The List of I-Deals Items Generalized from the Literature

Dimension	Item
Task i-deals	1. Job tasks that fit personal strengths and talents (Hornung et al., 2014)
	2. Job tasks that fit personal interests (Hornung et al., 2014)
	3. Personally motivating job tasks (Hornung et al., 2014)
	4. More flexibility in how I complete my job (Rosen et al., 2013)
Career i-deals	5. Career options that suit my personal goals (Hornung et al., 2014)
	6. Personal career development opportunities (Hornung et al., 2014)
	7. Ways to secure my professional advancement (Hornung et al., 2014)
	8. A desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities after initial appointment (Rosen et al., 2013)
Schedule flexibility i-deals	9. A work schedule suited to me personally (Hornung et al., 2014)
	10. Extra flexibility in starting and ending my work day (Hornung et al., 2014)
	11. A work schedule customized to my personal needs (Hornung et al., 2014)
	12. Take time off to handle non-work-related issues outside of formal leave and sick time (Rosen et al., 2013)
Location flexibility i-deals	13. A unique arrangement to complete a portion of my work outside of the office because of my individual needs (Rosen et al., 2013)
	14. Do work from somewhere other than the main office because of my particular circumstances (Rosen et al., 2013)
Financial incentives i-deals	15. A compensation arrangement that is tailored to fit me (Rosen et al., 2013)
	16. Compensation arrangement that meets my individual needs (Rosen et al., 2013)
	17. Because of my unique skills and contributions, my supervisor has been willing to negotiate my compensation (Rosen et al., 2013)
	18. Beyond formal policies, my supervisor has raised my pay because of the exceptional contributions that I make to the organization (Rosen et al., 2013)
	19. A compensation plan that rewards my unique contributions after initial appointment (Rosen et al., 2013)

Table 2. The Items of I-Deals Generated from Literature and In-Depth Interview

Initial Scale Item	Updated Scale Item
1. Job tasks that fit personal strengths and talents	1. Job tasks that fit personal strengths and talents
2. Job tasks that fit personal interests	2. Job tasks that fit my personal interests
3. Personally motivating job tasks	3. Personally motivating job tasks
4. More flexibility in how I complete my job	4. More flexibility in how I complete my job
5. Career options that suit my personal goals	5. Career options that suit my personal goals
6. Personal career development opportunities	6. Personal career development opportunities
7. Ways to secure my professional advancement	7. Ways to secure my professional advancement
8. A desirable position that makes use of my unique abilities after initial appointment	8. A desirable position that makes use of individual unique abilities after initial appointment
9. A work schedule suited to me personally.	9. Time arrangement for career training that meets individual needs*
10. Extra flexibility in starting and ending my work day	10. Content arrangement for career training that meets individual needs*
11. A work schedule customized to my personal needs	11. Flexibility in how I arrange my continuing education*
12. Take time off to handle non-work-related issues. Outside of formal leave and sick time	12. Time support for personal continuing education*
13. A unique arrangement to complete a portion of my work outside of the office because of my individual needs	13. Financial support for personal continuing education*
14. Do work from somewhere other than the main office because of my particular circumstances	14. A work schedule suited to me personally
15. A compensation arrangement that is tailored to fit me.	15. Extra flexibility in starting and ending my work day
16. Compensation arrangement that meets my individual needs.	16. A work schedule customized to my personal needs
17. Because of my unique skills and contributions, my supervisor has been willing to negotiate my compensation.	17. Take working days off flexibly to handle non-work-related issues outside of formal leave and sick time
18. Beyond formal policies, my supervisor has raised my pay because of the exceptional contributions that I make to the organization.	18. Do a portion of work from somewhere other than the main workplace
19. A compensation plan that rewards my unique contributions after initial appointment.	19. A compensation arrangement that is tailored to fit me
	20. A compensation arrangement that meets my individual needs
	21. Because of my unique skills and contributions, my superior/employer has been willing to negotiate my compensation
	22. Beyond formal policies, my superior/employer has raised my pay because of the exceptional contributions that I make to the organization
	23. A compensation plan that rewards personal unique contributions after initial appointment.
	24. Monetary employee benefit that meets individual needs*
	25. Non-monetary employee benefit that meets individual needs*

Note: * represents items developed in this study.

BIG DATA ANALYSIS ON OVERTOURISM IN JEJU AND OKINAWA

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INTRODUCTION

Overtourism is one of the most noteworthy issues related to tourism in recent years. Due to excessive influx of tourists, various forms of overtourism have been reported in various regions around the world. Boracay in the Philippines has been closed to the island for six months due to the damage of surrounding environment due to the visit of tourists exceeding capacity. In the world-famous tourism destinations Barcelona, Venezia and Amsterdam, local residents protested against tourists and the "anti-tourism sentiment" is growing day by day. In Hong Kong, protests against tourists by local residents are also taking place. These examples show that Asia is not free from overtourism issues. Also the overtourism problem attracts attention in South Korea. The representative areas are Bukchon Hanok Village in Seoul, Gamcheon Culture Village in Busan, and Jeju Island. If overtourism is the only way to make extreme choices, not only tourists will be unable to visit, but also the tourism industry will be directly harmed, which can have a devastating impact on the entire tourism industry (Park, 2018).

Over tourism is a combination of 'over' and 'tourism', which means the inflow of tourists exceeding the capacity. It is not an academic term yet, but it is a diverse phenomenon that is caused by the inflow of tourists and it is used as a concept

including side effects (Park, 2018). The term overtourism is often used mainly in the media after Harold Goodwin (Professor of Manchester Metropolitan University) used it in his personal blog in 2012, and it was officially used at the UNWTO Ministerial Meeting in 2017 (Park, 2018). Overtourism is defined by academia and organizations. Harold Goodwin (2017) defined overtourism as a phenomenon in which tourists occupy cities and invade the lives of local residents. The Responsible Tourism Partnership defines over tourism as being perceived by locals or visitors as having too many visitors to a particular destination of destination and that the quality of life or quality of experience in the area is worse than acceptable (Park, 2018). Overtourism is based not on the number of tourists but on the ability to manage them. Recently, the negative effects of overtourism in various fields including academia are as follows. (Table1)

Seraphin et al. (2018) summarizes the main reasons for overtourism in Europe and UNWTO et al. (2018) pointed out the timing factors and influences of tourists and the tourism economy as the cause of over tourism. McKinsey & Company and the World Travel & Tourism Council have identified five challenges to overtourism and categorized them as environmental, economic, and socio-cultural.

Table1. Negative effects of Overtourism

Author & Institution	Negative effects of Overtourism
Seraphin et al. (2018)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Large-scale visitors to UNESCO designated World Heritage sites 2) Infringement of the quality of life of local residents by tourists 3) Threats to environmental sustainability of tourism destinations 4) Lack of economic contribution of tourists
UNWTO et al. (2018)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Tourist crowds become worse due to peak season 2) The influence of overly negative tourists 3) Excessive physical impact of the tourism economy
McKinsey & Company and World Travel & Tourism Council (2017)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Alienation of local residents 2) Deterioration of tourism quality 3) Infrastructure overload 4) Natural damage 5) Threats to culture and heritage

Source: Park (2018) by authors

Thus, overtourism is caused by various factors, and its characteristics are different according to the area where it occurs. Specifically, overtourism has different negative effects depending on the location of the tourist area, the characteristics of the area, the purpose of tourism and the tourism behavior (Park, 2018). Therefore, it is necessary to

deal with the overtourism phenomenon differently depending on the situation of each tourist destination because the form of overtourism varies according to the characteristics of the region, the purpose of visiting the tourists, and the tourism behavior as described above.(Table2)

Table2. Over tourism related issues and their accompanying phenomena

Issue	Phenomena
When there are many group tourists	1) Traffic jam caused by tour bus 2) Parking problem
When a residential area of a local resident becomes tourist attraction	1) Infringement of local residents' privacy 2) Lack of amenities
When tourists drive into commercial areas	Gentrification phenomenon caused by rent increase
Too many tourists come to the island	1) Damage to the natural environment 2) Lack of social infrastructure

Source: Park (2018) by authors

Based on these backgrounds, this study aims to identify what issues are related to over tourism in Jeju Island in Korea and Okinawa in Japan as a preliminary study for countermeasures against overtourism. Both Jeju Island and Okinawa are selected for analysis because they have many common features in terms of the location and the characteristics of tourist attractions, the motives of tourists to enter and the tourism behaviors. In addition, it has many common features as a tourist destination, but it belongs to different countries. Therefore, understanding what commonalities and differences are related to overtourism issues in a country can help systematical understanding of overtourism.

METHOD

As already stated, the analysis is based on Jeju Island in Korea and Okinawa in Japan. The analysis method is frequency analysis, topic modeling, and network analysis using the big data of the media. First of all, we use Naver, which is the most popular portal site in Korea, for Jeju Island, and search for 'Overtourism' by using Yahoo Japan which is the most used in Japan for Okinawa. And collectively, we collect data by searching using Google. After collecting the analysis data, we classify them into news, blogs, etc., and then identify the issues related to overtourism. Then, by analyzing the relative importance and

interrelationships of issues through frequency analysis, topic modeling, and network analysis, we will come up with common points and differences between overtourism issues in Jeju Island and Okinawa, and continue to discuss what countermeasures are needed.

In detail, we will manually clean texts for our analysis and the co-occurrence matrix of manually cleaned texts were produced in the program called KrKwic. And we will input the matrix to UCINET for the CONCOR analysis which is one of the network analysis.

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THE DIFFICULTIES OF UNLOCKING AND USING RECREATIONAL SCUBA DIVER DATABASES

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INTRODUCTION

The general lack of timely, readily available and meaningful data has created significant challenges for recreational scuba diving (RSD) researchers. In some cases, RSD terms and categories have been poorly defined resulting in some datasets not distinguishing between the various types of underwater recreational activities. Diver training agency's certification data commonly involves significant double counting, or the data may only pertain to a specific region and therefore may not always be valid in drawing broader conclusions. Additionally, the RSD 'drop-out rate', although acknowledged by the dive industry and RSD researchers, has not been accurately defined or identified. Significantly, some datasets have full or limited release restrictions while broad market research surveys, and the associated analysis conducted by stakeholders, may not withstand rigorous scrutiny required by academics. A combination of all these factors has contributed to the crucial challenges faced by RSD researchers. The objective of this paper is to highlight these challenges by making researchers aware of important aspects of RSD databases they may cite or use.

METHOD

Due to the lack of 'database validation' studies of the RSD sector, this paper utilises a qualitative, autoethnography method approach (Adams, Ellis, & Jones, 2017) since it mainly draws on the primary researcher's lifelong experiences, expertise and reflections in attempting to gain access to meaningful data as part of a PhD study. Additionally, the paper also uses 'insider'

experiences (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007) from the primary author's current role as chair of a dive tourism marketing NGO, business consultant and as a former senior executive of significant RSD training agencies.

FINDINGS

Initially, essential distinctions need to be made by researchers between commercial diving, military, scientific, research diving in the marine sciences and RSD activities undertaken in the diver's local area or during a vacation. While there are issues associated with obtaining data from all of these types of diving, tourism researchers, are more likely to be focused on RSD demographics, travel motivations, the factors contributing to competitiveness and potential future impacts on RSD stakeholders.

In the context of RSD research, timely, readily available and meaningful data is difficult to obtain from within the dive industry, although there seem to be explanations as to why this is the case. 'SCUBA' is an acronym for 'self-contained underwater breathing apparatus'. However, there are various forms of RSD activities using underwater breathing apparatus. These may include amongst others, the use of conventional scuba (i.e. scuba tank and regulator), SNUBA (i.e. air supplied via a hose from a scuba tank on a surface float) and recreational helmet diving. Some datasets do not distinguish between these various forms. Additionally, some datasets mix scuba divers, with the much larger sector of snorkelling. This can lead to overly positive interpretations of the RSD populations and introduce 'phantom demand' (McKercher, 2007).

There are also a significantly increasing number of tourists undertaking activities that do not

lead to a diver's 'certification card' (i.e. commonly referred to a 'C-card' or 'divers license'). These "non-certification" dive experiences are known by various names such as; "Discover Scuba Diving", 'try dives', 'resort courses' and 'introductory courses'. Most of these refer to individuals taken into a pool or shallow water to 'experience' scuba diving whilst under the direct control of a dive professional. On the other hand, at least one RSD training agency (e.g. CMAS) offers an expanded program and 'certification card' under a similar name. Therefore, researchers need to be aware of the dangers associated with combining data from different RSD training agencies using similar, or the same name, for unique programs.

The extensive range of programs offered by the world's RSD training agencies is evidence of the broad range of diver interests. These various interests are commonly aggregated together within annual and/or cumulative totals issued by the agencies. In some instances, the same diver may be counted multiple times as they complete several levels of training after initial certification. The inability to identify specific individuals and interest sectors within such databases further illustrates the issues and complexities facing researchers in establishing accurate insights to diver populations, spending patterns, motivations and tourism potentials in particular.

Several dive tourism researchers including Dimmock & Cummins (2013), have referenced certification figures released by PADI, which is often referred to as the world's largest training agency as a possible insight to RSD populations (PADI, 2016 & 2017). However, the potential exists for questionable conclusion to be drawn from such references since, regardless of their perceived overall size, the use of a single data source fails to address the 'comparative advantage' some smaller agencies may have within a particular sector. For example, there are at least 160 RSD training agencies active across the globe. Some of these may have larger market shares in particular nations, regions or within training categories than they do overall.

The US dive industry body Dive Equipment and Marketing Association (DEMA 2017), collects diver certification data from just three voluntary contributors (PADI, SSI and SDI/TDI) while there are at least 10 other US-based diver training

agencies that decline the opportunity to contribute data. This database is usually only available to DEMA members, and while it reveals some insight into RSD certifications and some diver demographics across the US, the data from just three contributors is by no means a full reflection of the entire US market. Therefore, the respective size of training agencies in the US, is often a result of antidotal information, as it is elsewhere in the world.

Additionally, some RSD datasets pertain to a single region and cannot always be applied to a broader understanding. The DEMA 2017 data only applies to the US, while some training agency press releases may pertain to a single member in a specific location (e.g. PADI, 2017). There are also significant implications identified by several researchers (e.g. Davidson, 2007) of 'diver drop-out rates' or periods of 'time-out', not acknowledged in RSD databases, although this phenomenon significantly impacts the accuracy of cumulative RSD certification data commonly referenced by researchers.

Unfortunately, dive industry databases have access restrictions, are only available to select stakeholder groups, or to those who have provided a strong case for access. This introduces a crucial challenge for RSD researchers. For example, some RSD industry stakeholders, either minimise the release of business activity levels or decline to release any data at all, fearing it may aid a competitor or make them appear to be smaller than they wish to be perceived. There is also potential for conflict to develop in business-to-business (B2B) relationships if data releases were used to identify potentials for others operating, or wishing to operate, in the same space with similar products and services.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The lack of detailed, timely, readily available and meaningful data across the dive industry has created critical challenges and issues for researchers. This paper highlights the need for RSD researchers to exercise caution and source data to accurately match the sector studied. Moreover, the paper illustrates the need for a common and clear definition of the RSD cohorts to be established. Alternatively, to eliminate the confusion surrounding existing definitions, and the need to

reference databases with their inherent challenges, a case study strategy may in part be justified. That is, a case study strategy has the potential for researchers to collect original data and develop clear definitions of who and what is exactly being studied.

To improve future databases, the paper issues a collective call for the dive industry stakeholders to work together to construct standardized definitions and forms of reporting to be in a position to provide more meaningful data that would contribute to a clearer understanding of their endeavours. Additionally, this may assist in encouraging cooperation and collaboration between RSD stakeholders, develop the potential to co-create experiences, create new opportunities and generally promote the development of the sector.

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CUSTOMER-VALUE CREATION IN SELF-SERVICE TECHNOLOGIES (SSTs) IN THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

Self-service technologies (SSTs) are “a technological interface that enables customers to produce a service independent of direct service employee involvement” (Meuter, 2000, p. 50). SSTs can be used in the areas of monetary transactions, automated check in, companies’ services over the internet, and so on. Recently, the use of self-service technologies (SSTs) has enabled retailers to use fewer human labors, to improve efficiency of work, to enhance service quality, and to attract new customers who prefer less in-person services (Lee & Lyu, 2016). In hospitality industry, the use of SSTs also can be found in following areas such as hotel check-in and airline check-in through kiosks or mobile applications, which help save operational time for both customers and employees. There is no doubt that the adoption of SSTs in the tourism industry could be an effective tool to deliver many benefits for both customers and firms. Nevertheless, tourism industry needs to focus on how to use SSTs in their services in order to create as well as to increase value for customers (Gertner, 2013). Without understanding the importance of customer-value creation, it would be difficult for hospitality firms to be successful in adoption of SSTs in the long term. Therefore, it is necessary to pay closer attention on the process of customer-value creation during the customer’s interaction with SSTs; otherwise, hospitality companies will lose competitive advantage in the adoption of SSTs in the operational process (Vakulenko et al., 2018).

Regarding SSTs, many scholars have focused on identifying factors that affect customers’ intentions to use SSTs and its importance for customers and firms to adopt SSTs in the tourism

industry. Nevertheless, there is a little attention to provide a clear picture of how SSTs can be related to creating value for customers in the hospitality industry, and how it can lead to customer satisfaction by interacting through SSTs in operational process. Therefore, the main purpose of this research paper is to create a conceptual model to explore possible factors in service design of self-service technologies (SSTs) that will affect as well as create customer value in the service process. The conceptual framework will provide the holistic overview of this research paper for future scholars to empirically test relationship among those components in the model in the future. Also, it will be useful for managers in the tourism industry to better understand the adoption of SSTs in tourism products and services to create customer value for their long-term successes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Customer value in general can be described as customers’ perceptions of benefits about purchased products and is created by providers’ offerings that deliver experiences that can meet customers’ expectations and needs (Lee et al., 2015). In the tourism industry, customer value is related to tourists’ perceptions about service quality and valuable experiences (Rihova et al., 2015). Since the core element of tourism experiences are interactions between customers and service providers, the quality of interactions plays an important role in forming customer value. Firms need to understand about customers’ behaviors and how customers amalgamate resources, procedures, and results in interactions to create customer value (Jaakkola & Alexander, 2014).

On the other hand, factors which motivate customers to use SSTs are also important in term of creating positive experience for customers in the process of interacting with SSTs. According to Oh et al (2013), it was founded that there are three motivational factors that customers may consider before they use self-service technologies (SSTs) for their travel experiences such as ease of use, privacy, and autonomy. Ease of use is the extent which users can use technology to be free of effort and is one of the main reasons why customers choose to use SSTs for their experiences instead of human interactions (Elliott et al., 2012). Privacy also influences customers to use SSTs for their travel experiences since customers are concerned about data security issues during the service interaction with employees (e.g. hotel check-in procedures). Autonomy is an important motivational factor for customers to use SSTs in their travel experiences because SSTs allows customers independently to use a service without direct interaction with employees. In short, ease of use, privacy, and autonomy are positively associated with customers' perceived usefulness, and the researchers have proved that these three factors are important motivational factors for customers to use SSTs.

A SST process is a service process. When designing such service process, the framework of Fitzsimons et al study can be used in consideration in order to create customer satisfaction. Fitzsimons et al. claim that there are eight service design elements which need to be considered in developing a service process (Fitzsimmons et al., 2006, p. 69-70). Nevertheless, when applying this model in the development of a SST process, some elements must be excluding from this model due to the restrictions on application, i.e. those elements can only be applied to holistic service process. Therefore, this study only adopts following elements such as delivery system, facility design, location, quality, service encounter, and demand and capacity management. These service design elements will be used as a domain in this research paper to examine what factors affect customer-value creation during the use of SSTs by focusing on perspectives of the tourism industry.

Service quality can refer to meet or exceed customers' expectations toward organizations. Service quality of SSTs can influence customer

satisfaction (Yan et al., 2013). Service providers can utilize SSTs to enhance customer satisfaction with the help of advanced technologies (Boon-itt, 2015). SSTs enable customers to proceed the service transactions more quickly and allow customers to choose the way of accessing services when they use services (Shahid Iqbal et al., 2018). During the interaction with SSTs, customers can invoke any feelings towards SSTs either negative or positive feelings (Liljander et al., 2006). If travelers are satisfied with the service quality of SSTs in hotels or airlines, customer satisfaction towards SSTs will be invoked. In the tourism industry, most of SSTs ask customers to perform services by themselves. In the context of SSTs, customers are required to actively participate in service encounter in which value can be created from using technology (Robertson et al., 2016). High customer participation in service delivery can lead to customer positive feelings (Dong et al., 2008). If customers are engaged in the service delivery with the self-control, they may perceive that they share responsibilities with service providers. Some scholars found that customers who are highly involved in creating services can contribute to their own satisfaction and service quality they are given (Jo Bitner et al., 1997). Customers also can be productive at implementing services by themselves during the interaction with SSTs because ease of usefulness of SSTs is an important trait of productivity (Kim et al., 2014). Anitsal et al (2005) found that customers with better productivity and more engagement can enhance their own perceptions of the process in service delivery with positive attributes in self-service environment. Therefore, customers' active participation in the use of SSTs can affect customers' perceptions towards firms' services.

Facility design can affect customer experience and satisfaction in the tourism industry because design elements are easily noticeable by customers. Physical facilities, technology, equipment, people, and processes are considered as important design elements in the service organizations (Goldstein et al., 2002). As many airlines and hotels have adopted SSTs as an element of their customer services such as mobile or online check-in (Liljander et al., 2006), design of mobile or online check-in would be related to customer experiences. The layout or design of SSTs are visible to customers, and these elements

can create aesthetic values and customers' quality perceptions about SSTs service system (Lin & Hsieh, 2011). For example, customers are influenced by color, photographs or graphic style of online website (Zeithaml et al., 2002). These visible components of SSTs design may affect customers' perceptions and satisfaction based on the quality of design.

Location of equipment in facilities is important for effective customer experiences in the service industry. Service organizations install equipment in their facilities in terms of customers' preferences and convenience. It is critical for service firms to consider from the customers' perspectives to enhance efficiency of customer services. Customers may evaluate service experiences based on effort they put on using SST, and physical location of SSTs can influence customers to perceive ease of use in self-service (Collier & Sherrell, 2010). In the context of SSTs, convenient location of SSTs is one of the important benefits that attract customers (Curran & Meuter, 2005). Since travelers prefer convenience, location of SSTs would be an important indicator for them to create perceptions about service firms. Convenience in services plays an important role, and it is related to customers' purchase intentions and evaluations to firms (Seiders et al., 2007).

SSTs can be delivered via machines, online, telephone, or mobile services that help firms provide various service offers to customers (Scherer et al., 2015). Many tourism firms have adopted multiple self-service technologies to enhance their responsiveness to customers that can support the human touch. Since SSTs can be implemented in different channels, it is important to examine how delivery system of SSTs can influence customer satisfaction in the tourism industry. As SSTs became familiar with customers, service delivery through SSTs provides many benefits for customers such as being a value co-creator in services (Lin & Hsieh, 2011). By directly interacting with physical SST machines such as kiosks, it may empower

customers' behaviors in processing the service. Enabling customers to be a part of a real time service interactions through technology can provide customers to meet their needs by themselves (Cabiddu et al., 2013). It may enhance customers' positive feelings towards SSTs experiences since they are collaboratively involved with the technology during service interaction.

Figure 1 is the conceptual framework of this research paper that depicts the correlations between service design elements in SSTs interaction and customer satisfaction as a result of service experience based on literature review. The first section of the conceptual framework, pre-experience of SSTs is included with factors that can provide benefits for customers such as ease of use, privacy, and autonomy. Oh et al (2013) found that these factors can motivate customers to use SSTs. It was incorporated within the conceptual framework to help understand the link between SSTs benefits and customers' intention to use SSTs. This research paper specifically focuses on identifying the customers' interactions with SSTs and post experience, which can result in customer satisfaction.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this research paper developed a conceptual model that explains how the process of customer value creation through adopting service design factors of SSTs can invoke customer satisfaction in the tourism industry. This research investigated on specific service design factors that can be related to customer value in the use of SSTs, and it is important to be addressed in the tourism industry since tourism industry is an experience-based industry. This research can be expanded with a specific industry of tourism in the future. Also, future research should be able to combine with other factors that can be related to the process of customer value creation in SSTs to further identify the relationship between customer value in SSTs and customer satisfaction or loyalty.

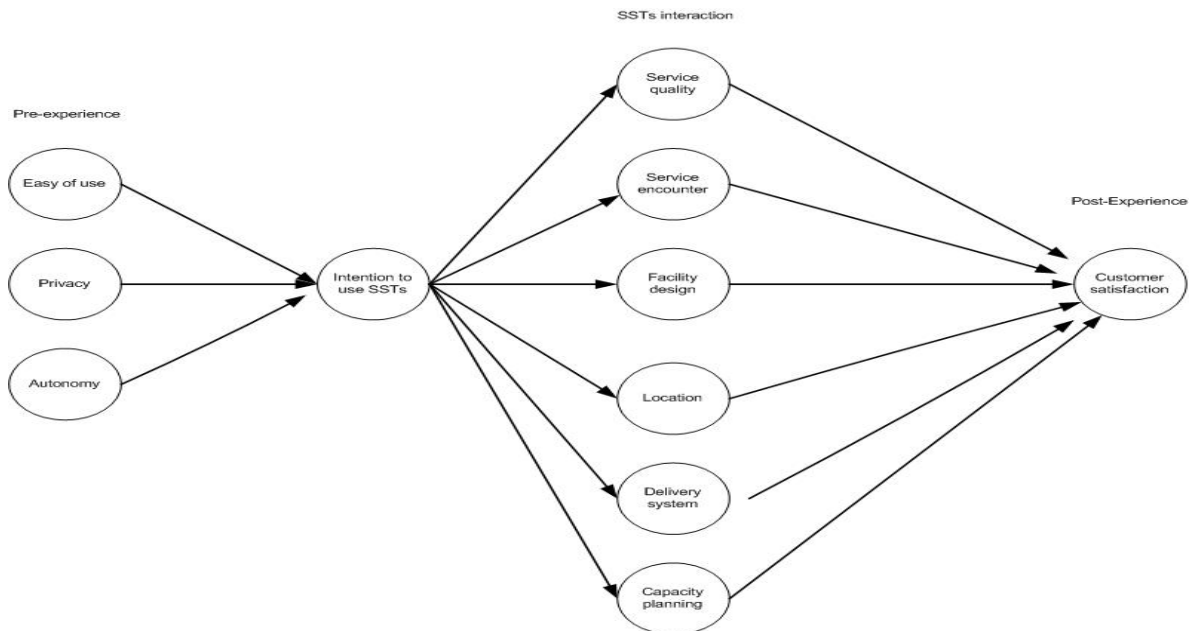


Figure 1. A conceptual framework of customer-value creation in self-service technologies (SST) in the hospitality industry

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DOES A TRAVELER GET RESILIENCE AND EMOTIONAL SOLIDARITY IN CONTEXT OF HERITAGE TOURISM? EXPLOARATION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF SELF–CONGRUITY, FUNCTION CONGRUITY, AND NOSTALGIA: WITH THE MODERATING EFFECT OF PRODUCT INVOLVEMENT

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ABSTRACT

In cultural tourism, heritage tourism has become a popular form of tourism. Visitors leave for heritage tourism to pursue a spiritual return to the past. Nostalgia represents people's longing of past life and their desire to re-experience the past events. Visitors hope to obtain the emotion of nostalgia by visiting heritage places, so as to recollect past life. Most research so far regard nostalgia as one of the motivations for visitors to go for heritage tourism. Currently, few studies related to heritage tourism have explored whether or not self-congruity and functional-congruity could arouse tourists' nostalgia emotion towards heritage tourist destination. Besides, the moderating role product involvement plays in self-congruity and functional-congruity's enhancement of nostalgia emotion needs to be clarified further. The study intends to explore whether or not tourists' nostalgia emotion engendered while visiting heritage tourist destination could boost both physical and mental resilience, as well as emotional solidarity with destination residents. Previous research shows a lack

of exploration on the relationships among tourists' self-congruity, functional-congruity, nostalgia emotion, resilience and emotional solidarity in context of heritage tourism. Starting from Stimulus-Organism-Response Framework Theory and Broaden & Build Theory, the study investigates the causal relation of the mentioned variables and, simultaneously, examines the moderating effect of product involvement regarding heritage tourists' self-congruity, functional-congruity and their nostalgia emotion towards heritage tourist destination. The study focuses on historical district to understand tourists' self-congruity, functional-congruity, product involvement, nostalgia emotion, resilience and emotional solidarity. Since there are numerous old streets in Taiwan, the study will distribute questionnaires to those with unique styles, namely Daxi Old Street, Lugang Old Street and Anping Old Street, each is historically representative of Northern, Central and Southern Taiwan. Hopefully, the results of the research could provide reference for relevant government agencies and visitor centers.

YOU'VE GOT TO SEE THIS! – EXPLORING PERSUASION STRATEGIES OF SOJOURNERS USER-GENERATED IMAGES

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INTRODUCTION

Approximately 3.5 million user-generated images (UGI) were shared every minute in 2016, and the number is predicted to rise given the popularity of visual platforms and the prevalence of camera-equipped mobile devices (Deloitte, 2016). Described as non-verbal customer-driven information, UGI are found to act as substitutes for words in online exchanges (Blazevic et al., 2013; Fox et al., 2018), and have a significant impact on tourism — where images of friends on online networking sites have become inspirations for travel (Skyscanner, 2011). Despite tourism being described as “uniquely visual” (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997, p.540), only a handful of studies identify UGI as visual articulations of travel experiences (Ring, Tkaczynski, & Dolnicar, 2016). Further, studies that explore the topic of UGI in tourism neglect the experiences of the growing number of sojourners, focusing primarily on tourist produced visual images (e.g. Stephenkova & Zhan, 2013; Wang, Kirillova, & Lehto, 2017).

Sojourners are characterised as individuals who have “long-term destination experience”, such as international students and migrant workers, who straddle between countries, typically for a period of six months to five years (Choi & Fu, 2018, p.47). The role of the sojourner is fluid; shifting between tourist and resident; host and guest; as well as consumers and producers of tourism development and experiences (Choi & Fu, 2018; Griffin, 2015; King & Dwyer, 2015). Given their multi-locality, sojourners are crucial links that bridge destinations to personal networks of overseas friends and relatives, making sojourners critical influencers in triggering VFR (visiting friends and relatives) tourism — where VFR tourism is found to

contribute significantly to tourism economies (Dwyer et al., 2014). Notably, scholars highlight the dearth of research that explores the role of online communication in VFR tourism, despite VFR tourism being socially driven (Backer & King, 2015).

The objective of this research is to address the lack of studies that investigate the interwoven relationship between sojourners, online communication technology and VFR tourism, where it explores the role of sojourners as key influencers, capable of spreading artfully created UGI, and triggering VFR tourism. In particular, the study identifies visual persuasion strategies employed by sojourners in conveying destination experiences.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Visual images, tourism and the growth of user-generated images

Visual images are used in tourism to communicate values, characteristics, attributes and ideas of a destination, and are employed by DMOs to attract consumers (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). According to scholars, consumers prefer visual images to other forms of non-vivid content (Roggeveen et al., 2015), and rely on images in their decision making (Townsend & Kahn, 2013). The fundamental link between images, tourism and the decision-making process of consumers has fuelled research on different forms of media such as postcards, advertising images and film (e.g. Campelo, Aitken, & Gnoth, 2011; Markwick, 2001). However, only an emerging number of studies investigate aspects of new media, specifically UGI in tourism, and recognise the growing role of consumers as visual influencers (Lu & Stephenkova, 2015). Further, studies continue to

focus on text data, under-utilising UGI as rich insights to tourism experiences and consumer behaviours (Balomenou & Garrod, 2019).

VFR tourism and the role of sojourners as key influencers

Jackson (1990) first highlighted the significance of VFR tourism, and the link between migration and global tourism. Research that followed strengthened the legitimacy of VFR as a key tourism segment, able to make significant economic contributions to countries and regions; particularly, densely inhabited conurbations with high migrant populations (Provenzano & Baggio, 2017; Seaton, 1997). Migrants such as sojourners, act as destination experts or key information sources for overseas friends and relatives, and have been found to influence VFR tourism, as well as the activities that VFR travellers partake in (Bischoff & Koenig-Lewis, 2007; Liu & Ryan, 2011). The centrality of personal relationships in VFR tourism has resulted in the rising number of studies that explore social aspects linked to VFR tourism (Yousuf & Backer, 2015). However, despite the growing popularity of online communications in keeping ties intact, the implications of online interactions on VFR tourism remain overlooked (Backer & King, 2015). Even less is known about the role of UGI in stimulating VFR tourism, and the means in which sojourners employ UGI to articulate experiences.

METHOD

Convenience sampling was employed to recruit sojourners from the international community in Wellington, New Zealand (NZ), using online networking sites, noticeboards in tertiary institutions, as well as specialty restaurants and shops frequented by the international community. Participants were selected based on the following criteria: hold a temporary NZ resident visa (i.e. skilled migrant/work/student visa), reside in the Greater Wellington Region and use online media to connect with overseas friends and relatives. Participating sojourners were tasked to submit images of Wellington that they have created and shared online or create new images, within the following themes: food/dining, scenery/nature, events and urban city. A total of 33 sojourners

participated in the study, and 396 images were submitted. A visual rhetorical analysis was conducted to examine the images and identify persuasion strategies of sojourners (Foss, 1994).

FINDINGS

Preliminary results illuminate persuasion strategies employed by sojourners in communicating destination experiences and appealing to their audience. Examples include:

- *Intensification*: Intensification was operationalised through colour contrasts, and the emphasis or focus on objects, such as clouds and sunrises/sunsets. This strategy was used particularly in the representation of food, scenery and nature, where the images sought to arouse the senses through vivid colour and detail (Lofgren, 1999).
- *Introduction of characters*: Characters such as the self, significant others (i.e. children, partners and friends) and members of the host community were found in the UGI. The characters pictured become credible endorsers who demonstrate a variety of possible experiences offered by the destination (Iqani & Schroeder, 2016).
- *Mirroring a sense of home*: Images reflected elements of sojourners' own home cultures. This strategy was evident in themes such as food and events. Research highlights that among the appeal of VFR tourism is the ability to feel at home while away (Shani, 2013).

IMPLICATIONS

The preliminary findings illustrate the competence of sojourners as image-makers and “cultural brokers” (Griffin, 2016, p.57). In addition, the heterogeneity of the images shared by sojourners provide key insights for ideation of marketing strategies for a diverse global tourism audience. The study showcases the viability for scholars and DMOs to utilise UGI as data to explore experiences and post-consumption behaviours of sojourners. Further, the research extends current research on VFR tourism.

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“DO YOU STILL WANT TO GO?” EFFECTS OF SCANDAL TO SOCIAL MEDIA INFLUENCER MARKETED-DESTINATION

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INTRODUCTION

The rise of social media, such as Facebook, Instagram and Twitter, along with the facilitated ease of producing user-generated content (UGC) on platforms such as TripAdvisor, has significantly impacted the tourism and hospitality industry (Litvin, Goldsmith & Pan, 2008; Hays, Page & Buhalis, 2013). Social media, amplifying the power of word-of-mouth (WOM), have resulted in the rise of UGC creators, prominent users who amassed their own clout of followers as opinion leaders of the new digital millennium. These UGC creators are known as social media influencers (SMIs).

SMIs are leveraged by brands to share related information, influencing their followers' consumption and decision making through their recommendations (Snijders & Helm, 2014). It can be inferred that SMIs have similar function and responsibilities as celebrity endorsers in influencing consumers' attitude and behavioral intention in this current digital and social age (Uzunoglu & Kip, 2014). In addition to brands, Destination Management/Marketing Organizations (DMOs) are also actively integrating the use of SMIs in their marketing strategy, especially targeting consumers aged 18-35 (Salem & Twining-Ward, 2018).

Most literature have explored on the effectiveness of SMIs positively affecting consumers' attitude toward a brand, product and even destination, which in turn impacts the consumers' purchase and travel intention (Halvorsen, Hoffmann, Coste-Manière, & Stankeviciute, 2013; Ong & Ito, 2019). However, what would happen should an endorser of a destination, even more so a SMI, is involved with a scandal? Therefore, with recent studies showing the expectations of SMI on marketing effectiveness, and in this case destination marketing, it is imperative to understand how the effects of a SMI

scandal would impact the consumers' destination image, which consequently affects the consumers' intent to travel to the SMI-marketed destination.

In order to examine how a SMI scandal has impacted the marketing effectiveness of SMI marketing campaign, and more importantly, the consumers' destination image of the marketed destination, this study has the following objectives:

- (1) To evaluate the effect of SMI scandal on SMI marketing effectiveness, particularly on consumers' attitude and behavioral changes after interacting with a SMI marketing campaign.
- (2) To contribute to the progress of SMI marketing in the tourism and hospitality industry.

THE INCIDENT

In April 2018, a negative incident that affected the SMI's reputation had befallen on Christabel Chua (@bellywellyjelly), one of Singapore's top social media influencer who starred the promotion of a SMI marketing campaign for Hokkaido Tourism Organization launched in late 2015 (The Smart Local, 2015). Sex videos of the aforementioned SMI with her ex-boyfriend were leaked and circulated on the Internet without her consent. Although there were other female influencers involved, Chua was the most affected influencer due to her popularity as a SMI in Singapore. The Singapore government stepped in swiftly to stop the dissemination of the videos, with the police declaring that sharing and possession of a stranger's sex videos is a criminal offense. While the incident was not actively reported in mass media, online communities in Singapore had knowledge of the incident (Ong & Ito, 2019). Most of the public stood on the fence with the knowledge of the incident, there were also divided opinions on the sex scandal – with one side supporting Chua; and the other side who harassed her, her family and even her clients with offensive

messages (Harper's Bazaar Singapore, 2018). It was only in July 2018 that Chua finally opened up on the negative incident via an open letter published in Harper's Bazaar Singapore, turning her scandal into a rallying point against cyberbullying (Harper's Bazaar Singapore, 2018). Thus, with the background of the incident and the reaction in Singapore, an important question here is whether having the knowledge of the SMI involved in a scandal would affect the consumers' reaction to the destination the SMI had endorsed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Social Media Influencers in marketing.

Freberg, Graham, McGaughey, and Freberg's (2011) research defined SMIs as "a new type of independent third-party endorser who shapes audience attitudes through blogs, tweets, and the use of other social media" (p.90). While SMIs are acknowledged as "Opinion Leaders" introduced in the Two-Step Flow Theory by Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) with the ability to increase the influence of the information they receive and transmit to other stakeholders, there are key differences of SMIs from traditional opinion leaders (Magno & Cassia, 2018; Uzunoğlu & Kip, 2014). SMIs take the perspective of a consumer, sharing information of product and services, as well as his/her own experience through a dynamic interaction with the followers, and consequently influence the followers to a certain action – from brand loyalty, engagement and even purchase (Uzunoğlu & Kip, 2014). As such, it should be considered that SMI has an effect on brand building (Booth & Matic, 2011), invaluable in value-co-creation of brand personality and identity with consumers and various stakeholders (Nyangwe & Buhalis, 2018). The study on value-co-creation is extended in the tourism field by Ge and Gretzel (2018) in the context of Sina-Weibo and DMOs in China where social media users engage with DMO information which in turn "increasing the informational value for other consumers and the promotional value for the DMO and the network of firm it represents" (p. 2085). However, the study on impacts of SMI, especially on followers, is insufficient and underexplored in the tourism field (Ge & Gretzel, 2018; Magno & Cassia, 2018).

Endorser marketing

Using celebrities as endorsers is a common advertising strategy adopted all over the world. The use of celebrity endorsers can be found in a plethora of marketing for brands and services (Yang, 2018). In the tourism and hospitality field, the use of celebrity endorsers have a significant impact on the consumers' attitudes and visit intention to the marketed destination (van der Veen & Song, 2014). The media shift to social has created a platform for SMIs to flourish as endorsers and engage with consumers or followers more effectively and more timely. With SMIs becoming endorsers for various products and services in the social media landscape, it is important to enrich endorser marketing literature from the perspective of SMIs.

Within existing marketing literature that have highlighted both benefits and risks of endorser marketing (Yang, 2018), research on negative endorser publicity have mostly been experimental (Choi, Kim, & Kim, 2017; Money, Shimp, & Sakano, 2006; Till & Shimp 1998). Studies on actual incidents that were able to capture the consumers' reaction and consequent attitude to the endorsers and behavioral intentions to the brands endorsed by affected endorsers are limited (Fong & Wyer, 2012). While extant researches on negative endorser publicity focused on how it negatively affects brand image and products they endorsed (Choi et al., 2017; Fong & Wyer, 2012; Money et al., 2006; Till & Shimp, 1998), there are still gaps in the field that focus on the effects of negative endorser publicity on consumers' reaction to destination image and their later behavioral intentions.

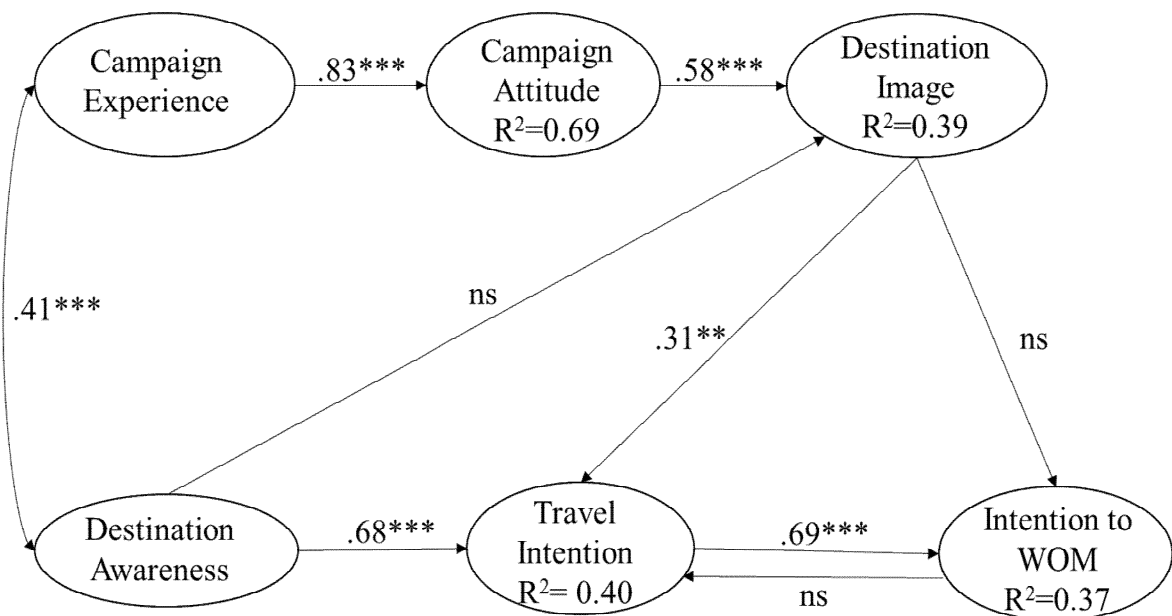
Effectiveness study of SMI marketing.

Measurement of the effectiveness of a persuasive advertisement, such as social media pages and content-rich SMI marketing campaign, are often measured based on attitudinal changes and behavioral changes (Mitchell & Olsen, 1981; Shimp, 1981; van der Veen & Song, 2014). Most prevailing effectiveness studies on advertisement utilized the attitude-toward-the-ad (A_{AD}) model which originated from Mitchell and Olsen (1981) and Shimp (1981). The model was built upon the basis whereby an attitude toward the advertisement is formed after the consumer was being exposed to a persuasive advertisement, which thereby exerts an influence on effects of persuasive advertisement

such as attitude change and formation toward a brand or destination, and behavioral changes (Leung, Bai & Stahura 2015; Mitchell & Olsen, 1981; Shimp, 1981; Lutz, Mackenzie & Belch, 1983).

There are limited literature on the effectiveness of social media marketing in the fields of tourism and hospitality, needless to say SMI marketing for DMOs. Leung et al. (2015) research on the marketing effectiveness of hotel’s social media pages effectively integrated the A_{AD} model and attitude-toward-the-website (A_{WS}) model by Bruner and Kumar (2000) to study how such new marketing would exert an influence on consumers’ attitude change and formation toward the hotel brand and consequent intention to book the hotel and do e-WOM on the hotel (Leung et al., 2015).

Similarly, Ong and Ito (2019) built upon previous studies such as Leung et al. (2015) to propose a model of SMI marketing effectiveness. Results of the previous study highlighted that a positive SMI marketing campaign experience positively affects the consumers’ attitude toward the advertisement, which in turn positively affects the destination image of the campaign, and consequently affecting the consumers’ intention of travelling to the promoted destination (Figure 1). Moreover, the results from Ong and Ito (2019) study echo existing research on the impact of SMIs in tourism, especially in affecting attitude change amongst consumers toward the destination and travel-related decision making process (Ge & Gretzel, 2018; Magno & Cassia, 2018; Leung et al., 2015; van der Veen & Song, 2014).



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$

Figure 1. Structural Model of SMI Marketing Effectiveness with SEM Results
(Adapted from Ong & Ito, 2019, p.139)

With a grounding framework based on the A_{AD} and A_{WS} models provided by extant literature, there is a need to further current research on how effectiveness of such persuasive advertisements could be affected by negative information of brands and endorsers, or in this case, scandals of SMIs.

Although the positive effects of celebrity endorser marketing and SMI marketing in destination marketing were examined, the research

gap on the negative effects of endorser scandal on destination marketing deserves exploration. Especially when the use of celebrity and SMI as endorsers for destination marketing by DMOs are becoming more popular as a medium to vie for consumers’ attention with other travel information platforms (Yang, 2018). However, when consumers have knowledge of the SMI endorser being involved in a negative incident, the reputation of the endorsed

brand can be damaged (Choi et al., 2017; Till & Shimp 1998). On the other hand, the possibility of sympathy and empathy toward the endorser could play a part which may in turn amplify campaign awareness and eventually affects the consumers' attitude change and behavioral intention (Choi et al., 2017; Money et al., 2006).

Hypothesized model

Thus, with previous studies that provided insights on the possibility of either positive or negative outcomes due to the impact of endorser scandal on consumers' attitude toward the campaign, brand and products that the affected endorser endorsed (Choi et al., 2017; Fong & Wyer, 2012; Money et al., 2006; Till & Shimp 1998). The following hypotheses focus on the impact of Chua's scandal on consumers' attitudinal variables and impact of behavioral intentions to a destination marketing campaign that she starred in.

Hypothesis 1a: SMI scandal positively affects the attitude toward the campaign.

Hypothesis 1b: SMI scandal positively affects the destination image.

Hypothesis 1c: SMI scandal positively affects the intention to travel to the destination marketed in the campaign.

Hypothesis 1d: SMI scandal positively affects the intention to do WOM on the campaign.

The hypotheses aim to extend on Ong and Ito's (2019) model of SMI marketing effectiveness, which have the objectives to evaluate the effect of SMI scandal on consumers' attitude and behavioral changes after interacting with a SMI marketing campaign, and thus subsequently affects the effectiveness of the campaign. With that, Figure 2 illustrates the hypothesized model of SMI marketing effectiveness with the effects of SMI scandal.

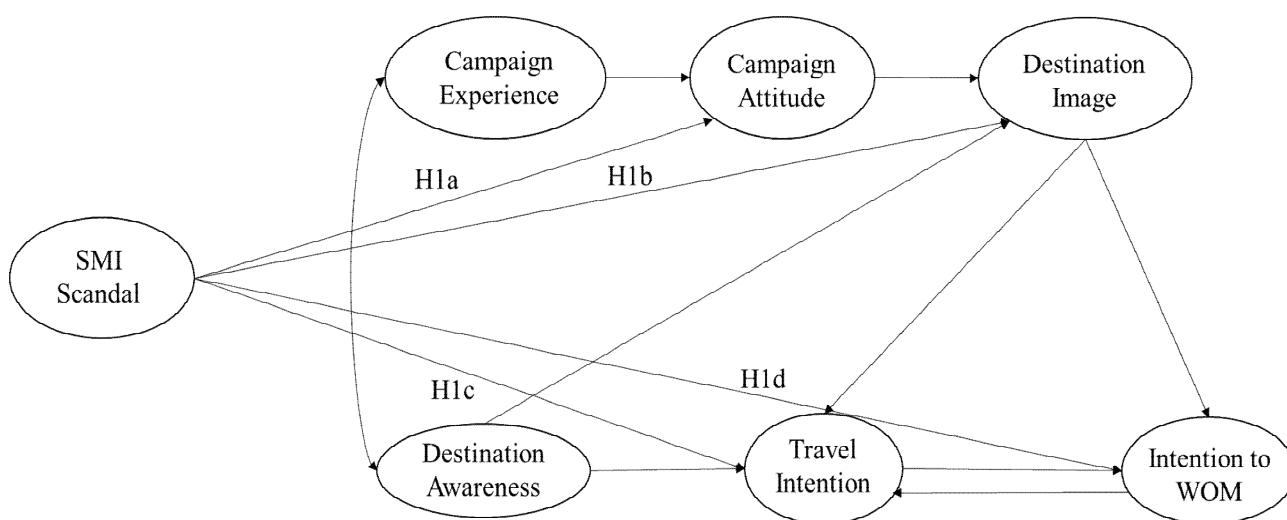


Figure 2. Hypothesized Model of SMI Marketing Effectiveness with Effects of SMI Scandal (Adapted from Ong & Ito, 2019, p.139)

METHOD

Data for the study were drawn from an online survey conducted in April 2018, one week after news on a negative incident regarding Chua circulated online. Convenient sampling was used based on the author's social network on social media. Although convenient sampling was used, the survey participants selected were representative of the primary target audience for SMI marketing, that is Singaporean consumers aged 18-35, immersed

in social media for at least one hour every day (Salem & Twining-Ward, 2018). Furthermore, with Chua being popular within the population of 18-35 and coming from the same generation, the choice of the sample would be considered appropriate for the survey and the incident. The first 70 sample participants were invited to take the survey via the link in an invitation email. The convenient sample was then snowballed to a total of 200 participants with valid responses. All respondents were checked whether they had interacted with the marketing

campaign. Those who did not experience the campaign before were asked to experience the campaign before they could continue with measurement items in the survey.

The questionnaire consists of items on consumers' perception of the marketing campaign, especially on destination image and behavioral intentions when they have knowledge of the SMI in the campaign was befallen with a negative incident. Measurement items pertained to the following constructs:

1. Experience of the SMI campaign
2. Attitude toward the SMI campaign
3. Image of the destination marketed in the SMI campaign
4. Awareness of destination marketed in the SMI

campaign

5. Intention to travel to the destination marketed in SMI campaign
6. Intention to do WOM on the SMI campaign
7. SMI scandal

More importantly, for the construct *SMI scandal*, which is the conditional variable of the hypothesized model shown in Figure 2, the measurement items are as follows in Table 1. These measurement items were created by the author as there are limited literature on actual endorser scandal for destination marketing. The measurement items are posited on the hypotheses which aims to understand effects of the SMI scandal on other attitudinal and behavioral constructs.

Table 1. Measurement items for the construct Effect of SMI Scandal

Construct	Measurement Items
SMI Scandal	<i>SMI1</i> : Knowing that the SMI was involved in the accident, how likely do your image of the destination that she endorsed change after the incident?
	<i>SMI2</i> : Knowing that the SMI was involved in the accident, how likely will you still travel to the destination that she endorsed after the incident?
	<i>SMI3</i> : Knowing that the SMI was involved in the accident, how likely will you still buy the products/brands that she endorses after the incident?
	<i>SMI4</i> : Knowing that the SMI was involved in the accident, how likely will you still look up to her as an information source after the incident?
	<i>SMI5</i> : Knowing that the SMI was involved in the accident, how likely will you recommend the Hokkaido campaign with her in it after the incident?

Respondents were asked to value all measurement items based on 5-point semantic differential scales ranged from *not at all* (1) to *very much* (5). The last segment of the survey focused on demographic profile of the respondents.

Measurement validity and reliability of constructs was first evaluated by SPSS 24.0, undergoing maximum likelihood factor analysis with promax rotation on all items. Two items from the constructs SMI scandal (*SMI3* and *SMI4*) and one item from travel intention were removed due to low factor loading of less than .5. The remaining items were then tested for internal consistency by Cronbach's α . The results proved to have good internal consistency (.81–.95) for all measures with the exception of destination awareness (.52).

FINDINGS

Descriptive statistics

Table 2 shows the demographic results of the participants in the survey. While only one-third of the respondents are followers of the SMI, all of the respondents have knowledge of the incident that has occurred to Chua. Additionally, despite a higher percentage of Chinese respondents taking part in the survey than the national racial proportion of 70%, this could be inferred due to the incident happened to SMIs of this particular racial group that resulted in having more Chinese respondents having the knowledge and be involved in the incident (Fong & Wyer, 2012).

Table 2. Respondents’ Demographic Results (n = 200)

	Frequency	%		Frequency	%
<i>Age</i>			<i>Race</i>		
15 - 19	7	3.5%	Chinese	188	94.0%
20 - 24	60	30.0%	Malay	6	3.0%
25 - 29	104	52.0%	Indian	4	2.0%
30 - 34	20	10.0%	Eurasian/Others	2	1.0
35 - 39	8	4.0%			
50 and above	1	0.5%	<i>Gender</i>		
			Male	60	30.0%
			Female	140	70.0%

Overall model fit

The conceptual model was validated via structural equation modelling (SEM) using AMOS 22.0. Figure 3 shows illustrates the results of SEM for SMI marketing effectiveness with effects of SMI scandal. Model fit of the structural model was evaluated based on the comparative fit index (CFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The

recommended threshold of acceptability for NNFI and CFI is 0.95, while SRMR of less than .08 and RMSEA close to .06 indicates well-fitting models (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008; Hu & Bentler, 1999). As a result, goodness-to-fit model indices of the hypothesized model reported a $\chi^2(196) = 339.79$, $\chi^2/df = 1.73$, $p < .001$, CFI = .957, NNFI = .949, SRMR = .115, RMSEA = .061. Thus, the data has a relatively consistent fit with the conceptual model.

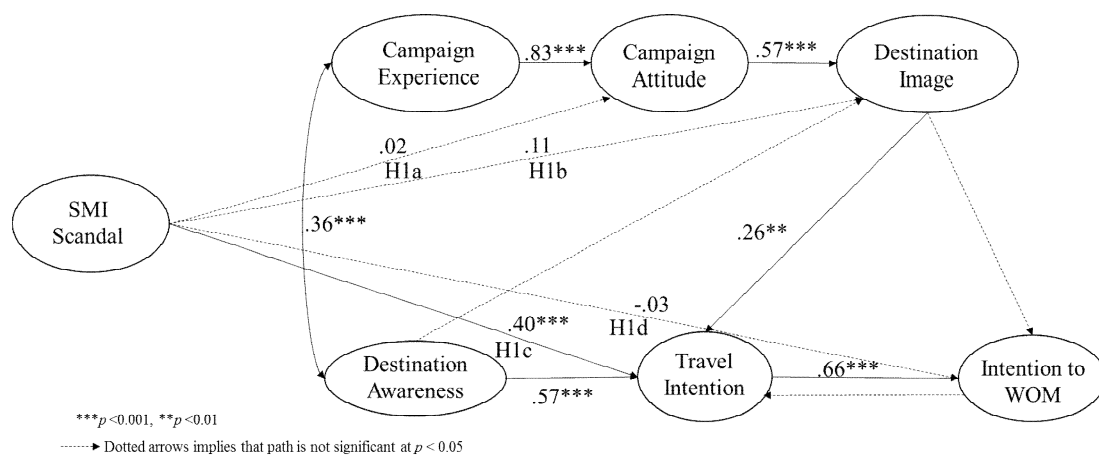


Figure 3. SEM Model of SMI Marketing Effectiveness with Effects of SMI Scandal

The significant pathway identified in testing the model is shown in Figure 3. Out of 4 hypotheses, only Hypothesis 1c received support. That is, despite knowing the SMI being involved in a negative incident that affected his or her reputation, there is a statistically significant and positive effect on consumers’ travel intention toward the destination marketed by the SMI. This could be due to the recent knowledge of the SMI being involved in a negative

incident may have increased awareness of her past endorsement campaigns, which would likely to have contributed positively to the travel intention of the destination in the campaign. However, there is a possibility that understanding the SMI being a victim of the negative incident, the effect of the SMI scandal on past and undergoing endorsements were perceived less negatively.

In contrast, Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1d are not

supported. The rejection of Hypotheses 1a and 1b illustrated that despite consumers having knowledge that the SMI endorsing the campaign in involved in the scandal, it did not result in having a significant effect on campaign attitude, nor a significant effect on image formed toward the destination marketed by Chua. Moreover, with a statistically insignificant impact of SMI scandal on the intention to WOM as shown by the rejection of Hypothesis 1d, it could perhaps be inferred that Singaporean consumers do not wish to be involved in the scandal due to the police warning, or rub salt on the wounds of the affected endorser. These results have provided discussion points that deserve to be further investigated.

DISCUSSION

The current study is one of the few research on the implications of an actual endorser scandal on consumers' reaction to the endorser and their consequent evaluation of the campaign and destination marketed by the affected SMI. The fit of the theoretical model has provided some confidence in the assumptions on which the model is based. The hypothesized model was inspired by the attitude-toward-ad model surrounding on how effectiveness of a persuasive advertisements such as a SMI marketing campaign are often measured based on attitude (Leung et al., 2015; Mitchell & Olsen, 1981; Ong & Ito, 2019; Shimp, 1981; van der Veen & Song, 2014).

Effects of sympathy and attributions of blame

The effects of sympathy, and related emotions such as empathy, on advertising has not been thoroughly explored, despite there being existing studies on how these emotions play a part in the effectiveness of TV commercials (Money et al., 2006). However, with social media and various online streaming platforms which facilitated a new world of celebrity and SMI worship, sympathy for an affected endorser is a likely emotional response (McCutcheon, Lange & Houran, 2002). Particularly in the current social media landscape where endorsers now have a loyal following on social media fostered through emotional bonds and virtual interactions (Abidin, 2016), scandals or negative information of endorsers are common and often sympathized (Money et al., 2006).

The confirmation of Hypothesis 1c is supported by the results from Fong and Wyer (2012) case study on Edison Chen and Gillian Chung scandal in 2008. Findings from Fong and Wyer (2012) showed that the party which was perceived with less blameworthiness (Edison $M = 4.68$, $p < .001$; Gillian $M = 3.99$, $p < .001$) consequently have the respondents feel more sympathy for the party (Edison $M = 3.42$, $p < .001$; Gillian $M = 4.22$, $p < .001$) (Fong & Wyer, 2012). This evidence lends support to Hypothesis 1c which predicted that SMI scandal has positively affected the consumers travel intention to the destination endorsed by the affected SMI. It is safe to assume that while the SMI was involved in the scandal, the amount of blame attributed to her was not as much as compared to what the public had attributed to her ex-boyfriend who took the videos without her knowledge. Thus, it is reasonable to infer that respondents of the survey may have think of Chua as the victim in the scandal which resulted in the audience to feel more sympathy for her. This sympathy was then translated into support for the SMI and her campaigns and endorsements which is then evaluated more positively and subsequently, a more effective endorsement through a significantly positive effect from the scandal on travel intention which reflects the findings from Money et al. (2006). That is, the SMI's involvement in the scandal would have increased her awareness during the period of time when the survey was taking place, which then has most likely brought back higher recall rate to her past campaigns. In addition, sympathy for the SMI due to her circumstances in the scandal had led to the respondents evaluating her endorsement in the destination marketing campaign more positively which resulted in a higher travel intention to the destination she marketed.

Effects of (national) cultural difference on the perceptions of scandals.

The effects of sympathy is also relevant to the influence of cultural difference on the perception of scandals and negative endorser publicity. This is evident in both Choi et al. (2017) and Fong and Wyer's (2012) studies where the magnitude of the impact of endorser scandal depends on the social or cultural group to which the consumers belong. Both studies pointed out that Eastern Confucian Conservatism cultures in East Asia tend to have

more negative perception and evaluation to the scandals which would result in a more negative impact to both the endorser and the brands, products that the affected endorser marketed (Choi et al., 2017; Fong & Wyer, 2012). Particularly, findings from Choi et al. (2017) on interaction effects of negative information on the endorser's gender are significant on the endorsers' perceived attractiveness ($F(1, 505) = 15.64, p < .001$ for premarital sex information; $F(1, 505) = 18.45, p < .001$ for premarital cohabitation information), perceived trustworthiness ($F(1, 505) = 7.25, p < .01$ for premarital cohabitation information), and attitude-toward-the-ad ($F(1, 505) = 6.19, p < .05$ for premarital sex information; $F(1, 505) = 13.44, p < .001$ for premarital cohabitation information), highlighting that East Asian female endorsers were impacted and evaluated more negatively as compared to male endorsers due to the double standards of Confucianism conservatism ideals that women are supposed to uphold sexual morality (Choi et al., 2017).

Singapore is classified as a collectivist country (individualism index = 20) with a high power distance index of 74 based on Hofstede's (1980) scale (Pornpitakpan, 2004). This could mean that Singaporeans are more likely to share their opinions directly to the provider, but engage in WOM within close groups (Goodrich & de Mooji, 2013). However, an interesting inverse effect in Choi et al. (2017) study illustrated that negative information of female endorsers has a significant positive interaction effect on purchase intention ($F(1, 263) = 4.22, p < .05$ for premarital cohabitation) for America respondents who are individualists (individualism index = 91) (Choi et al., 2017; Hofstede, 1980; Pornpitakpan, 2004). This interaction effect is congruent with the findings of the current study where negative information of the SMI has a significant positive effect on the intention to travel. Considering findings from extant researches on influences of cultural differences, where do Singaporean consumers, aged 18-35, of the social media generation stand? With a high population of Chinese in both the survey population and the general population of the country, do consumers of SMI marketing now still carry strong Confucian conservatism ideals toward scandals of endorsers?

It is reasonable to deduce from the findings

of the current study that Singaporean consumers, who are audience of SMI marketing, perceive sexual information of SMI less negatively. This could be inferred due to globalization of cultures and social media that provided various outlets for younger Singaporeans to have their private opinion as well as increasing influence of individualism within a collectivist culture. To confirm such deduction, future research should consider to investigate the individualism-collectivism spectrum of differing age group within a country which would be helpful for marketers in their choice of advertising as well as crisis management for brands and DMOs on negative endorser incident that this research has undertaken to study.

CONCLUSION

Implications

This research aims at exploring the consumers' attitude change and behavioral intention after interacting with a persuasive destination marketing advertisement while knowing that the social media influencer was befallen with a negative incident or scandal which affected his/her reputation. Drawing classic concept of attitude-toward-the-ad model, this research extended Ong and Ito's (2019) model with a conditional variable of SMI scandal to explore any possible negative effects of SMI scandal on a SMI-marketed destination. Additionally, this study has provided a kick-start to the theoretical understanding of how negative endorser publicity, or in this case a SMI scandal, have affected the consumers' attitude change to the destination image and their subsequent behavioral intentions. More importantly, this study has provided a starting point for more research on both the possibilities of positive and negative effects of SMI marketing in tourism.

In practical terms, the study has highlighted that despite the negative (SMI) endorser publicity which was assumed to have negatively impacted the destination image of the marketed destination, there is no negative impact befallen on the destination. Instead, negative endorser publicity had channeled greater awareness and easier recall to past campaigns (Money et al., 2006). Furthermore, this study could be evident in showing that DMOs do not require much effort in rebuilding destination

image after a negative endorser publicity that could be associated to the destination marketing. To deepen our knowledge on this field, future research could further examine the strength of association of the endorser to the destination which could have more devastating effects if an endorser that is strongly associated to the destination is embroiled in a scandal (Till & Shimp, 1998).

Limitations

The study has shed light that while the SMI scandal has an insignificant effect on attitude change towards the endorsed destination image, it positively affects consumers' travel intention to the destination. Despite the noteworthy results that the study has provided, one limitation is highlighted in the current study, which is the inability to measure *a priori* liking for the SMI involved after the scandal had happened. While consumers' *a priori* liking for the SMI involved may likely influence their sympathy for the SMI, recent events of the scandal may have a stronger effect on consumer behavior. This is similar to the case of Fong & Wyer (2012) as both studies focused on the post-scandal changes in attitude toward the endorser, the product endorsed and behavioral intentions of consumers.

The use of a convenient sample from the author's personal network deserves mentioning. The use of such sampling may have resulted in information source similarity which may have affected the representativeness and generalization of the study. However, it could be justified as being representative of the main audience of SMI marketing in Singapore. Wider audience such as people aged 40 and above may not have understanding of the scandal and are less identified to the SMI involved. Furthermore, these population may not have been attracted to the campaign which was circulated on social media.

Also, with destination management/marketing involving multiple stakeholders, or even the socio-cultural group which consumers of SMI marketing belong to, hidden variables not focused in the study may have resulted in current results of the study (van der Veen & Song, 2014). Therefore, caution should be taken on generalizing findings generated by SMI scandal on its effects to consumers' attitude change and behavioral intentions. Nevertheless, future research should develop current study with other psychological and

behavioral variables to understand effects of SMI scandal on consumers' decision making process on SMI destination marketing, which would provide insight for DMOs when facing endorser crises.

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HOW VALID ARE THE DUAL-ROUTE THEORIES? A TRANSFORMED INFORMATION ADOPTION MODEL

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world among many other industries. Among the most well known emerging markets, Chinese outbound tourism remains one of the strongest in the foreseeable future. In 2016, overseas travel spending by Chinese tourists reached USD 261.1 billion, ranking first worldwide (Nielsen, 2017). It is no surprise then that global tourism and hospitality industry practitioners are eager to maintain and expand their Chinese markets. However, besides those residing in China, it is worth noting that overseas Chinese population can also be valuable target audience for outbound tourism. According to the Hurun Chinese Luxury Consumer Survey (2018), about 37% of high net worth group respondents in China are currently considering immigration. As of 2011, there were over 40.3 million Chinese residing in 148 countries (Poston & Wong, 2016), composing a sizable spending power that cannot be neglected.

As one of the most popular immigration destinations for Chinese high net worth individuals, the case of Canada deserves more discussions. In 2016, population who responded Chinese languages as their mother tongues in Canada has reached 1.3 million (Statistics Canada, 2018), with Mandarin and Cantonese being the third and fourth most spoken languages ranked after English and French (Office of the Commissioner of Official Languages, 2018). In major metropolises such as Toronto and Vancouver, residents of Chinese origin make up 12% and 20.6% of the cities' populations (Statistics Canada, 2017b). While comparable Chinese presence can be found in the United States (Pew Research Center, 2017), the ethnocultural diversity in Canada might facilitate foreign-born residents to retain their source culture to a greater extent. Thus, a question remains as whether people of Chinese

descent in Canada can be approached in the same manner as Chinese nationals.

To answer the above question, it is important to understand how consumer's attitude change can be measured in general. As people's travel patterns have gradually shifted from group travel to individual travel (Chung, Han & Koo, 2015), online reviews are becoming an increasingly important information source for consumers to make purchase decision (K. Zhang, Zhao, Cheung & Lee, 2014). Studies on the influence of online reviews have been actively conducted by researchers and practitioners. Among these studies, "dual-process theories appear to be valid perspectives in explaining the impacts of online reviews at the individual level" (K. Zhang et al., 2014, p. 78). As a general framework to capture consumer's attitude change, Petty & Cacioppo (1986) developed a theory called the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), which suggests a dual-route approach to persuasion: argument quality and source credibility. Building upon the ELM, J. Zhang, Ito, Wu & Li (2017a) proposed a modified information adoption model that posits technical adequacy as a predictor of the two routes. However, while both argument quality and source credibility were proven to be effective in persuading information adoption from psychometric perspectives (Tseng & Wang, 2016), research on the influence of socio-cultural factors in the dual-route process remains scant and entails further discussion.

Cross-cultural differences have been proven to affect consumer behaviours (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). In order to assess the effect of cultural orientation on persuasion, Aaker & Maheswaran (1997) applied the cultural dimension of individualism-collectivism developed by Hofstede (2011) to observe differences across cultures in the dual-route process model. Based on their findings from experiments conducted in Hong

Kong, heuristic processing (peripheral route) may be preferred while systematic processing (central route) may be more limited in collectivist cultures (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997). Despite that Hofstede's work on cultural dimensions has been regarded as a paradigm in the field of cross cultural studies, it remains highly controversial among academics (Wu, 2006; Jones, 2007). One of the most popular criticisms of Hofstede's model is that his study assumes the domestic population as a homogeneous whole regardless of the fact that many countries consist of different ethnic groups (Jones, 2007). Furthermore, the advent of internet has introduced new ways of living, perspectives and values, which may have influenced cultures as well (Valaei, Rezaei, Ismail & Oh, 2016). Thus, there is a need to search for new measurements to address such limitations.

Within dual-route process models such as the ELM, the peripheral route occurs as a result of simple cues rather than from critical analysis (Tseng & Wang, 2016). In the field of consumer research, such symbolic cues are often referred as stereotypic images of users of a product, which involves a matching process known as self-congruity (Sirgy & Su, 2000). While early research contends that peripheral route may be preferred over central route by collectivist cultures (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997), recent studies suggest that self-congruity generated through the peripheral route is more prevalent in individualist cultures (Litvin & Goh, 2003; Kim & Malek, 2016). Discrepancies among previous studies warrant further research into understanding the role of self-congruity in the persuasion process, especially in cases where individuals are simultaneously influenced by more than one type of cultures.

According to G. Hofstede, G. J. Hofstede & Minkov (2010), patterns of thinking are acquired in early childhood while layers of culture acquired later in life tend to be more changeable. Nevertheless, it is intriguing to know whether people that immigrated to another country will take on a different adoption route in comparison to their home-country counterparts. Concerned with the moderating effects of self-congruity and acculturation on the adoption of online travel information, the present study is designed to

investigate the following research questions.

RQ1: Do overseas Chinese people have a different adoption pattern compared to their home-country counterparts?

RQ2: Is the dual-route persuasion model still valid in today's context?

The purpose of the present study is two-fold. Drawing upon the information adoption model modified by J. Zhang et al. (2017a), the present study first aims to revisit the validity of the model with data collected from Chinese community in Canada, after which the moderating effects of self-congruity and length of stay were examined.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Information adoption models.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) developed by Petty & Cacioppo (1986) depicts individual attitude change through a central route and a peripheral route to persuasion. The central route occurs when individuals thoughtfully scrutinize the argument presented, whereas simple cues such as source credibility have an important effect on the peripheral route (Tseng & Wang, 2016). While the ELM deals with the persuasion and evaluation process that an individual undergoes, additional instrument is needed to measure people's intentions of adopting online information. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was initially introduced to provide an explanation of the determinants of computer acceptance in the early days of the computer age (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989). Sussman & Siegal (2003) integrated the TAM with the ELM to build a theoretical model that highlights the role of perceived information usefulness as a mediator of the information adoption process. Whereas the ELM has been frequently employed in the research domain of travel information adoption (J. Zhang, Ito, Wu, & Li, 2017b), the effects of self-congruity and acculturation on the adoption process among immigrants and sojourners have not been widely studied. Thus, the present study aims to make a contribution to the body of knowledge by investigating the adoption pattern for Chinese people in Canada with the research model presented in Figure 1.

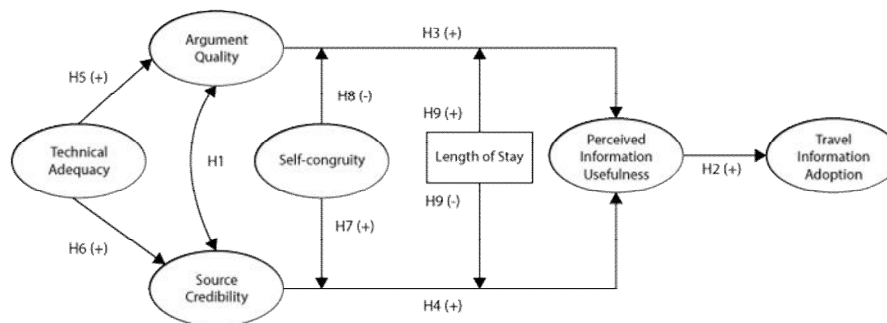


Figure 1. Research Model

Argument quality and source credibility.

According to the idea of the ELM, individuals' preferences for either of the adoption routes are based on their state of "elaboration likelihood". People tend to engage in thoughtful processing of a message in high elaboration likelihood states, whereas those lacking the ability to scrutinize the message are likely to be motivated by peripheral cues such as attractiveness and credibility of the message source (Cyr, Head, Lim & Stibe, 2018). However, such dichotomy might have been overstated. In Sussman & Siegal's (2003) integrated model, source credibility was found significantly correlated with information usefulness, albeit its function as peripheral cue seemed to be weak. Such findings could suggest that source credibility plays a more complex role than being a mere heuristic cue, which may be used as an additional argument for people following the central route to persuasion (Sussman & Siegal, 2003). Despite that the original ELM postulates a trade-off between the central and peripheral routes, researchers have demonstrated interdependent relationship between them, suggesting that the two routes could co-occur in the process of information adoption (SanJosé-Cabezudo, Gutiérrez-Arranz & Gutiérrez-Cillán, 2009; Kang, Tang & Lee, 2013; K. Zhang et al., 2014; J. Zhang et al., 2017b). In light of these findings, the present study aims to re-examine whether and to what extent argument quality and source credibility correlate in the process of travel information adoption with the following hypothesis:

H1. The argument quality of online travel reviews positively correlates with the source credibility of such reviews.

Perceived usefulness.

Drawing upon Sussman & Siegal's (2003) integrated model, Tseng & Wang (2016) found that both argument quality and source credibility were

effective in persuading information adoption on travel websites via perceived usefulness, which suggests that perceived usefulness may be a key determinant in motivating online information acceptance. With data collected from a sample of Chinese consumers, J. Zhang et al. (2017a) infer that source credibility has a much higher impact on perceived information usefulness than argument quality does for Chinese people. In the present study, perceived usefulness can be defined as the degree to which individual believes that an online review would enhance his or her travel planning (Ayeh, 2015). To investigate whether a useful review would lead to its adoption for travel planning, the present study proposes the following.

H2. The perceived usefulness of online travel reviews has a positive effect on individual information adoption.

H3. The argument quality of online travel reviews has a positive effect on the perceived usefulness of such reviews.

H4. The source credibility of online travel reviews has a positive effect on the perceived usefulness of such reviews.

Technical adequacy.

Based on extant literature, argument quality and source credibility of travel information are predicted by technical adequacy, the appropriate technologies adopted by web retailer in order to motivate consumer's participation (J. Zhang et al., 2017a). Technical features of a website are also believed to affect consumer's perceived usefulness of the site and trust in the retailer (Liao, Palvia & Lin, 2006), which are measured by perceived interactivity, perceived personalization and perceived sociability (H. Zhang, Lu, Gupta & Zhao, 2014). In accordance with the integrated model proposed by J. Zhang et al (2017a), the present study defines technical adequacy as the technical features

of travel websites and explores its role in fostering individual's travel information adoption.

H5. The technical adequacy of a travel website positively affects the argument quality of travel reviews on that website.

H6. The technical adequacy of a travel website positively affects the source credibility of travel reviews on that website.

Self-congruity.

Self-congruity plays an important role in purchase motivation and loyalty intention (Kang, Hong & Lee, 2009). On the other hand, functional congruity is the result of thorough evaluation of a product, which focuses on the utilitarian attributes rather than simple image cues (Kang, Tang & Lee, 2013). In a comparative study of self-congruity among Western and Asian tourists to South Korea, Kim & Malek (2016) found that Western tourists rated self-congruity much higher than did their Asian counterparts, suggesting that consistency plays a key role in creating tourists' intention to visit in individualistic cultures. Litvin & Goh's (2003) research also reveals that the correlation between satisfaction and self-congruity is significantly higher for "individualist" than for "collectivist". Empirical evidence as such shows that self-congruity is less salient in Asian cultures than in Western societies. Past research concludes that even though persuasion through the peripheral route of self-congruity is short-lived, consumers' ability to process subsequent messages may be improved, which may eventually enable them to pursue functional congruity (Kang, Tang & Lee, 2013). Based on the findings from existing literature, the present study posits the following.

H7. People of Chinese descent in Canada rate high on self-congruity with online reviews, which enhances the positive effect of source credibility on perceived information usefulness on travel websites.

H8. People of Chinese descent in Canada rate high on self-congruity with online reviews, which dampens the positive effect of argument quality on perceived information usefulness on travel websites.

Length of stay.

Interpretation of any advertising message is considered to be associated with the values of a culture (De Mooij, 2017). In the dual-route model of persuasion, cross-cultural variation has also been

observed in previous studies (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997). However, it is not known how exactly an individual with multiple cultural backgrounds will choose between the two routes to persuasion. Thus, the present study seeks to examine the role of acculturation in the dual-route process. Acculturation refers to the process of adopting ideals and values of the host culture, while retaining those from the person's culture of origin (Schwartz, Montgomery & Briones, 2006). There are two commonly used indicators of acculturation: nativity (foreign-born versus born in the receiving society) and number of years spent in the receiving culture (Schwartz et al., 2006). The length of stay is an important predictor of how immigrants acculturate and how well they adapt to the new society (Corak, 2011; Berry, 2016).

Many existing studies focus only on communities where the receiving culture predominates, overlooking cases where the culture of origin remains strong in the host society. In an endeavor to investigate whether the same adoption patterns would emerge in ethnic enclaves where the culture of origin predominates, researchers have found that although both nativity and length of stay are related to adoption of host culture in ethnic enclaves, the variability explained by them only appears to be moderate (Schwartz, Pantin, Sullivan, Prado & Szapocznik, 2006). This poses an intriguing assumption that predictors of acculturation, such as nativity and length of stay, are likely to vary based on the host cultural context. Thus, it is worth knowing whether and to what extent the acculturation process for Chinese people in Canada will lead them to a different route of persuasion compared with people in their home country. Drawing upon previous studies, the present study seeks to ascertain the moderating effect of length of stay on the adoption of online travel reviews with the following hypothesis.

H9. The longer Chinese people have lived in Canada, the more likely it will enhance the positive effect of argument quality on perceived information usefulness on travel websites.

METHOD

Measurement.

An online survey was conducted in Canada from mid-March to mid-April 2019. Participant's

length of stay in the country was provided along with other basic demographic information, while the remaining six variables were measured using a multi-item approach modified from previous studies. Perceived usefulness was measured using items adapted from Sussman & Siegal (2003) and Tseng & Wang (2016). Items for argument quality, source credibility, and travel information adoption were adapted from Tseng & Wang (2016) and J. Zhang et al. (2017a). Items for technical adequacy derived from the study by H. Zhang et al. (2014). Lastly, items for participant's self-congruity were also developed from previous studies (Sirgy et al., 1997; Wang, Hsu, Huang & Chen, 2015). All items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neutral, and 7 = strongly agree.

Date collection.

Convenient samples were drawn from the author's personal network in Canada. Participants who had not referenced any online travel reviews during the past 12 months were excluded to ensure that only data from recent users would be collected. Overall, 106 valid responses were obtained, of which 57.5% were female. With an average age of 30.76 and an average length of stay of 10 years,

77.4% of the participants had completed a bachelor's or higher degree. Demographic details of participants are listed in Table 1. It was unexpected that 13.2% of the participants chose not to reveal their lengths of stay in Canada. Questions as such might have raised a threat of disclosure to some participants, who might be concerned that the information will become known to a third party (Tourangeau & Yan, 2007). Additional efforts are necessary to reconsider survey questions as such in future study.

Moreover, instead of focusing on one specific platform, the present study seeks to obtain an overall picture of how online travel information is adopted in general. In addition, concerned with the possible opportunity for cross-cultural comparison in future study, it is difficult to agree on a single platform that is predominant in every country. Thus, a list of the top 10 most visited travel websites in Canada was provided in the survey based on traffic rank (Alexa, 2019). Participants were then asked to choose the one that they most visited in the past 12 months and answer subsequent questions based on their experience with the chosen websites. Table 2 shows the most visited travel websites in the past 12 months by the participants.

Table 1. Demographics of Respondents (N = 106)

Characteristics		Frequency	%
Gender	Male	44	41.5
	Female	61	57.5
	Other	1	0.9
Age	18-19	6	5.7
	20-29	62	58.5
	30-39	9	8.5
	40-49	13	12.3
	50-59	12	11.3
	60 and above	3	2.8
	Unrevealed	1	0.9
	Education	High school	15
	College	9	8.5
	Bachelor's degree	69	65.1
	Master's degree/PhD	13	12.3
Length of stay in Canada	0-4 years	25	23.6
	5-9 years	24	22.6
	10-14 years	18	17.0
	15-19 years	10	9.4
	20 years and above	15	14.2
	Unrevealed	14	13.2

Table 2. Most Visited Travel Websites in the past 12 Months

Travel Websites	Frequency	%
TripAdvisor	39	36.8
Booking.com	26	24.5
Expedia	26	24.5
Flight Network	3	2.8
Ctrip	2	1.9
Hotels.com	2	1.9
Kayak	2	1.9
Priceline	2	1.9
Other	4	3.8
Total	106	100

FINDINGS

Data Analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to assess convergent validity of the measurement model. As shown in Table 3, all factor loadings were statistically significant. The composite reliability (CR) and the Cronbach's α value for each construct, with the exception of self-congruity, were higher than .70. The average

variance extracted (AVE) for each construct was greater than the cut-off value of .50, confirming a good convergent validity. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed using AMOS 25.0. As a result, the model fit indices reported $\chi^2(38) = 44.079$, $\chi^2/df = 1.160$, $p = .230$, CFI = .989, GFI = .935, NNFI = .984, RMSEA = .039, which demonstrated an acceptable model fit (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008).

Table 3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

Items	Loading	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Technical Adequacy		.783	.804	.678
It is conducive to interact with other users through this website.	.686			
It is easy to interact with other users through this website.	.941			
Argument Quality		.821	.818	.601
The online reviews on this website are accurate.	.839			
The online reviews on this website are comprehensive.	.739			
The online reviews on this website are up-to-date.	.743			
Source Credibility		.807	.815	.687
Users providing reviews on this website are knowledgeable in travel.	.819			
Users providing reviews on this website are reliable.	.839			
Self-Congruity		.696	.712	.557
I am similar to the typical audience of the users providing reviews.	.637			
I am similar to the typical audience of the online reviews.	.842			
Perceived Information Usefulness		.846	.849	.738
The online reviews on this website are informative.	.833			
The online reviews on this website are helpful.	.884			
Travel Information Adoption		.779	.784	.644
The online reviews on this website motivate me to take action.	.823			
I am likely to agree with the online reviews on this website.	.782			

Note. All standard loadings were significant at $p < .001$.

Main effects.

As shown in Figure 2, significant correlation was found between argument quality (AQ) and source credibility (SC), supporting H1. Perceived information usefulness (PIU) ($\beta = .92, p < .001$) was found to strongly influence travel information adoption (TIA), validating H2. Significant positive effect of argument quality ($\beta = .61, p < .01$) on

perceived information usefulness was observed, supporting H3. However, no significant effect of source credibility was found on perceived information usefulness, thus H4 is rejected. H5 and H6 were verified through the significantly positive effects of technical adequacy (TA) on both argument quality ($\beta = .26, p < .05$) and source credibility ($\beta = .56, p < .001$).

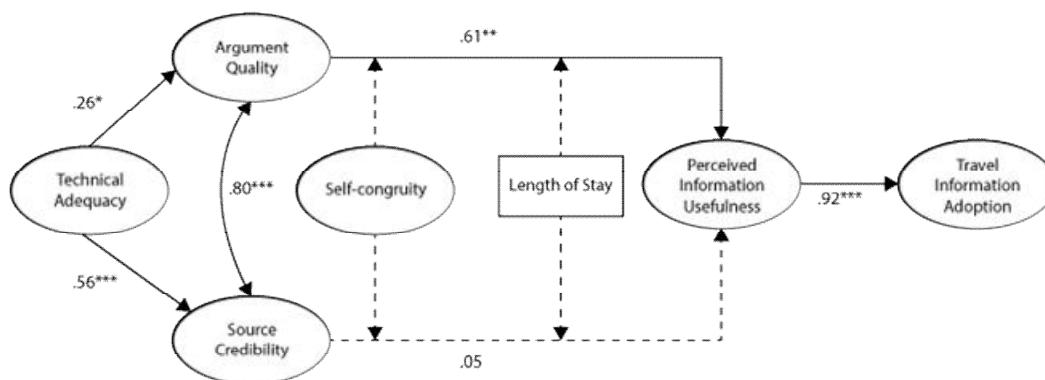


Figure 2. Results of Structural Equation Model

Note. The dotted lines indicate non-significant relationships. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Moderating effects.

Since no significant effect of source credibility was observed on perceived usefulness, only the moderating effects of self-congruity and length of stay for argument quality were tested. Based on the method employed in previous research (J, Zhang et al., 2017b), the present study examined moderating effects by uncovering the interactions between selected constructs. Following Dawson’s (2014) procedure for handling multiple moderators, a regression analysis was conducted in SPSS 25.0 with the dependent variable perceived information

usefulness (PIU), three standardized independent variables (AQ = argument quality, SCON = self-congruity, LOS = length of stay), three pairs of two-way interaction terms (AQ×SCON, AQ×LOS, SCON×LOS), and a three-way interaction term (AQ×SCON×LOS). Based on the results of the three-way interaction analysis as shown in Table 4, neither self-congruity nor length of stay were found to exert any significant moderating effect in the process. Thus, H7, H8 and H9 were rejected.

Table 4. Results of Three-way Interaction Analysis

Interactions	Estimate	t-value
Argument quality (AQ) → Perceived information usefulness (PIU)	.376	3.493***
Argument quality (AQ) × Self-congruity (SCON) → Perceived information usefulness (PIU)	-.002	-.015
Argument quality (AQ) × Length of stay (LOS) → Perceived information usefulness (PIU)	.108	.783
Self-congruity (SCON) × Length of stay (LOS) → Perceived information usefulness (PIU)	-.013	-.094
AQ × SCON × LOS → Perceived information usefulness (PIU)	-.122	-1.024

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

DISCUSSION

Drawing upon the integrated information adoption model from earlier studies (Sussman & Siegal, 2003; J. Zhang et al., 2017a), the present

study revisited its validity with a sample of Chinese immigrants and sojourners in Canada and expected a different adoption pattern in comparison to consumers in China. As hypothesized, argument quality and source credibility had shown significant

relationship in this model, which is consistent with the findings of J. Zhang et al. (2017b). Technical adequacy was proven to be a predictor of both argument quality and source credibility, albeit the positive effect on argument quality seemed to be modest. While J. Zhang et al. (2017a) imply that consumers in China are more likely to be driven by source credibility in determining travel information usefulness, the results of the present study seem to suggest otherwise: Chinese people in Canada rely solely on argument quality to evaluate travel information usefulness. However, such divergence was not explained by socio-cultural influences in this study as both self-congruity and length of stay had failed to be significant in the three-way interaction analysis.

Absence of cultural influence.

In a case study of model-consumer racial congruency with Asian American samples, Morimoto (2012) shows that no significant effect of acculturation was found on overall model credibility, trustworthiness, or expertise, which is in line with the results of the present study that self-congruity and acculturation are not key determinants in the adoption process. Earlier studies tend to ascribe the different cognitive process of information adoption to cultural differences measured by Hofstede's (2011) dimensions, of which the concept of individualism-collectivism is widely employed (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Pornpitakpan & Francis, 2000). However, cultural values are never static, necessitating periodical updates of many cultural theories (Wu, 2006). A study by Lau (1992) on individualistic and collectivistic aspects of Chinese people implies that people in Mainland China are not less individualistic than Americans. Moreover, Hofstede's model assumes that the domestic population of a country is a homogeneous whole regardless of the fact that it may consist of different ethnic groups (Jones, 2007), creating an inevitable drawback while assessing people with complex cultural identities. Thus, it could be possible that the divergent information adoption patterns between Chinese people in Canada and their home-country counterparts are not due to socio-cultural influences. However, this entails further validation and verification in future research.

Combined effects of two routes.

In addition to the non-significant outcomes of the two proposed moderators, the current model analysis also suggested that the processing of source credibility would not lead people to evaluate information usefulness, which seems to indicate that no adoption behaviour would emerge from the peripheral route. Compared to previous studies where both routes were found to have positive influence on perceived information usefulness (Tseng & Wang, 2016; J. Zhang et al., 2017a, 2017b), the non-significant effect of source credibility in this study seemed to be unprecedented. However, that does not necessarily mean that source credibility has no impact at all on information adoption. Previous studies have shown evidence that peripheral cues such as source expertise can influence the interpretation of arguments (Reimer, Mata & Stoecklin, 2004), which indicates that source credibility could be used as an additional reference for people following the central route to persuasion (Sussman & Siegal, 2003). On the other hand, argument quality was also said to have effects on the evaluation of peripheral cues (Reimer, Mata & Stoecklin, 2004). Hence, the central and peripheral routes could co-occur rather than being a trade-off relationship as proposed by the original ELM. However, while interdependent relationship between the two routes is evident (SanJosé-Cabezudo et al., 2009; Kang, Tang & Lee, 2013; K. Zhang et al., 2014; J. Zhang et al., 2017b), the non-significant effect of source credibility in the present model implies that the dual-route persuasion model might have to be restructured for this specific sample.

A single-route approach.

Given that the central route (systematic processing) and the peripheral route (heuristic processing) can co-occur, a question arises as whether the two routes can be combined into one while depicting an individual's persuasion process. In fact, a single-route re-conceptualization had been proposed by Kruglanski & Thompson (1999), who treated the distinction between the two routes as informational relevance to a conclusion rather than being principally different. In other words, both argument quality and source credibility could serve as forms of evidence that function equivalently in persuasion process. Kruglanski & Thompson

highlighted that fact that past persuasion experiments tend to include brief heuristic information that is followed by much lengthier and more complex message argument. The researchers contended that if heuristic information was made relatively lengthy and complex, it would require similar level of cognitive capacity to that of message argument information (Kruglanski & Thompson, 1999).

Although it requires further study to validate such assumption in the domain of travel information adoption, it opens up the possibility to view argument quality and source credibility on the same plane. In the above model analysis, technical adequacy was found to be a predictor of both

argument quality and source credibility. However, the positive effect of it on argument quality ($\beta = .26, p < .05$) was moderate in comparison to source credibility ($\beta = .56, p < .001$), which could be an indicator that most participants start with paying close attention to the credibility of online travel information. In spite of that, such evaluation of source credibility does not seem to result in information adoption. On the other hand, significant positive effect of argument quality ($\beta = .61, p < .01$) on perceived information usefulness was observed. After reviewing the path analysis results and referring back to extant literature, the present study proposed a new model as shown in Figure 3.

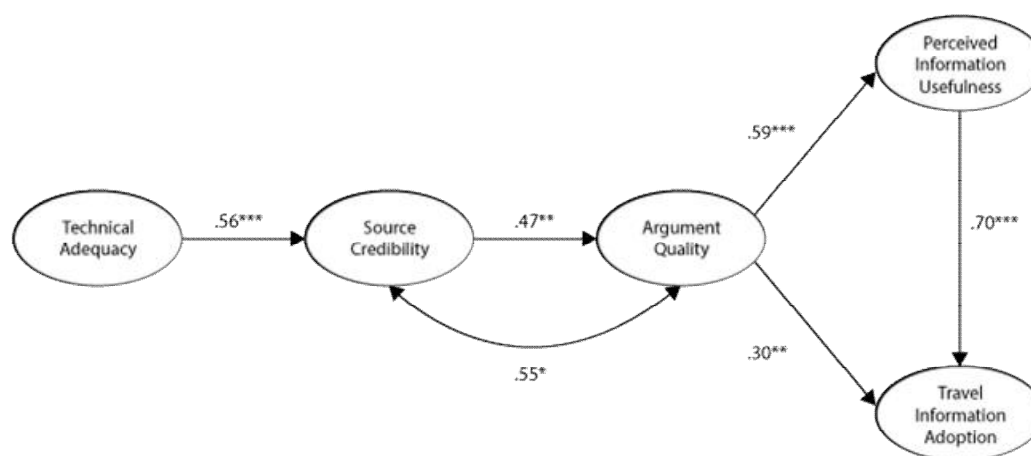


Figure 3. Restructured Model

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

As presented in the restructured model, a causal relationship was proposed between source credibility and argument quality. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was once again performed using AMOS 25.0. The model fit indices reported $\chi^2(38) = 36.715$, $\chi^2/df = .966$, $p = .529$, CFI = 1.000, GFI = .945, NNFI = 1.003, RMSEA = .000, indicating a remarkably high model fit (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). The significantly positive effect of perceived information usefulness (PIU) ($\beta = .70, p < .001$) on travel information adoption (TIA) remained strong in the new model. Significantly positive effect of technical adequacy (TA) ($\beta = .56, p < .001$) on source credibility (SC) was observed. Source credibility ($\beta = .47, p < .01$) was proven to have significant effect on argument quality (AQ), lending support to the view that there are combined

effects from the two routes in the persuasion process. Moreover, argument quality was found to have significantly positive effects on both perceived information usefulness ($\beta = .59, p < .001$) and travel information adoption ($\beta = .30, p < .01$) respectively. While previous study found that argument quality was not associated with information adoption (Sussman & Siegal, 2003), the new model presented here suggests that there is direct effect from argument quality on travel information adoption, albeit argument quality is more likely to be associated with perceived information usefulness.

Based on the above results, the present study would argue that the evaluations of source credibility and argument quality of travel information could both have become necessary steps to take before reaching an adoption decision. In

other words, consumers might use source credibility as a filter to screen out irrelevant information, after which they would be able to scrutinize only credible information, reducing the time and effort they would have to spend otherwise on every single piece of information. Another possible scenario could be that consumers have turned to be highly skeptical about online information in an era where “fake news” and targeting advertising became prevalent. People might no longer trust any information based on intuition but rather through critical analysis of the message and intention behind.

IMPLICATIONS

The present study has raised important theoretical question as whether the dual-route persuasion model is still valid in today’s context. It contributes to the field of attitude and persuasion research by proposing a transformed “dual-route” model in which the “central” route derives from the “peripheral” route instead of being a trade-off. While early study (Kruglanski & Thompson, 1999) has questioned the principal distinction between the two routes by making them equally complex, the present study is one of the first to prove their causal relationship empirically by only drawing upon model and measurements from extant literature. Inconsistent results with previous studies could infer that a change in individuals’ cognitive processes toward online travel information is taking place behind the scenes.

By revealing the causal effect between the two routes in travel information adoption process, this study broadens the understandings of how consumers should be approached nowadays in the increasingly contested tourism industry. New challenges arise especially for travel industry practitioners targeting online users. First, practitioners would have to maintain good social relationship with online users so that their messages would not be screened out due to lack of trust and credibility. Second, any targeted messages should appear to be accurate and create functional reference for consumer’s decision-making process.

Special focus was given to the Chinese population due to their proven increases in outbound travel spending and the potential purchasing power of overseas Chinese community. Although the influences of socio-cultural factors remain unclear

in this study, it provides valuable insight into the online information adoption behaviour of Chinese immigrants and sojourners in Canada, one of the largest visible minority groups in Canada (Statistics Canada, 2017a). The empirical evidence in this study implied that Chinese consumers in Canada tend to take a rather complicated approach to evaluate online travel reviews: a combination of both systematic and heuristic processing of the persuasive arguments. Industry practitioners who target this specific group of consumers may find this study beneficial in terms of adjusting their marketing strategies.

Limitations.

Several limitations of the present study deserve mentioning. First, the generalizability of the current findings may be limited due to an exclusive and relatively small sample size. The present study selected Chinese immigrants and sojourners in Canada as sample in hope of explaining their adoption patterns with self-congruity and length of stay being the moderators. Thus, it is unclear whether the single-route model derived from this study can be applied to a larger group of consumers or to people with other backgrounds.

Second, with 77.4% of the participants holding a bachelor’s or higher degree, the sample population in this study could be deemed as more educated than the general public. Highly educated people might tend to take the central route as they have the intellectual abilities to scrutinize the quality of persuasive arguments. As a result, source credibility might have become unimportant for them to reach a decision.

Lastly, the present study focuses only on the context of travel websites, whereas information adoption patterns on other channels are yet to be explored. Results from the current study show no significant effect of source credibility on information usefulness. However, previous study has shown significant differences in general attitude toward online reviews across channels. Email, SMS and online comment boards are considered to have low credibility compared to blogs and SNS (Gvili & Levy, 2016). Hence, it might be the nature of online travel reviews that has dampened the effect of source credibility in this study. In order to validate the single-route persuasion model developed from this study, future research should include data from

a variety of platforms.

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UNDERSTANDING HOW CONSUMERS VIEW GREEN RESTAURANT: THE INFLUENCE OF THE COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE, BEHAVIORAL (C–A–B) MODEL AND MARKETING MIX

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INTRODUCTION

Recently, the green studies have incorporated attitudes beliefs as an instrument in a marketing decision and emphasized that the individual's attitudes significantly affect the intention of support type. Gradually, the main effect of consumer consensus based on the role of the marketing strategy for sustainability (Lee, 2008). The results of exploring incremental consumer and the public attitudes are seemingly concerned with greening strategies towards marketing mix (Chahal, Dangwal, & Raina, 2014). The most important aspect is to lead an marketing mix approach that managers perceive it as a chance to lead the tendency towards strategic consumerism.

To deconstruct the consumer tendency of sustainability, perceptual attitudes of cognitive, affective, and behavioral (C-A-B) components have exhibited a mental process that influences consumer determinations, the C-A-B component verifies individuals' marketing decisions and personal benefits (Kwon & Vogt's, 2010). Moreover, Chahal et al. (2014) suggests various greening indications that significantly affect sustainability and, subsequently, a series of approaches to construct the marketing mix. As noted above, this study employs a sustainable attitude in a mental model and displays the imperative aspects in marketing mix to recognize consumer willingness.

Various green marketing studies on sustainability related to social, ethical, and environmental issues have addressed the drivers, management, marketing, and consumers of

sustainability, thus enabling the greening assessment in unified concepts (Leonidou & Katsikeas, 2013). However, related strategic sustainability is insufficient in the outcomes of marketing strategy studies. As highlighted by Cronin et al. (2011) in the disciplines of marketing phenomena, to date, there is no examination from a green consumer of the sustainability perspective. In addition, relatively few studies adopt a marketing mix paradigm to observe greening simultaneously.

Accordingly, we apply the perceptual attitude components in the C-A-B model and discuss how the C-A-B component influences the marketing mix approach that contains superior green quality and marketing mix programs. Theoretically, in this study, we contend that an attitude theory (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), and marketing paradigm (van Waterschoot & Van den Bulte, 1992) demonstrate the tendency of strategic consumerism and, in turn, precisely identify consumer intention (Kwon & Vogt, 2010). Furthermore, the public's concern and social influence on the perception of a mental process depict a green literacy of social responsibility (Leonidou et al., 2013) and the effects of interactive elements with marketing mix programs (Vitell, 2015). Therefore, the aim of this study was examine the Influence of the social responsibility, perceived quality and marketing mix on green restaurant consumer willingness.

METHOD

The study was conducted an online survey

from June 1 to August 31, 2017. This study sent an online questionnaire and pre-requested the respondents who were potential consumers of green restaurant. This study collected questionnaires online from 1053 individuals and selected 977 valid samples, excluding respondents who refused to answer, did not approve of green action, provided missing or incomplete answers, or comprised invalid samples. The analysis used actual samples, producing an actual response ratio of 92.7 percent

The study's respondents were green online consumers in Taiwan. This study adopted a 7-point Likert point scale for the questionnaire.

This study extracted six factors using the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of Harman's factor test for all 33 items. The first factor explained 40.942 percent of the variance (less than 50 percent). Additionally, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed for all items in the study. The factor loadings were not significant for all items. Moreover, the model fit of the single-factor test was worse ($\chi^2=975.996$, $df=98$, $\chi^2/df=9.959$, $GFI=0.872$, $AGFI=0.823$, $NFI=0.896$, $CFI=0.906$, $IFI=0.906$ and $RMSEA=0.096$) than the fit of the

proposed model ($\chi^2=695.253$, $df=92$, $\chi^2/df=7.557$, $GFI=0.912$, $AGFI=0.871$, $NFI=0.926$, $CFI=0.935$, $IFI=0.935$ and $RMSEA=0.082$).

FINDINGS

This study's validity measurement refers to the theoretical foundation of the existing literature and used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) provided evidence of its robustness and the correlation of the hypothesized model for each construct. All AVE values exceed 0.50. The squared multiple correlations (SMC) is between 0.625 and 0.976 and that the Cronbach's α coefficients exceed 0.711. The overall fit statistics ($\chi^2=695.253$, $df=92$, $\chi^2/df=7.557$, $GFI=0.912$, $AGFI=0.871$, $NFI=0.926$, $CFI=0.935$, $IFI=0.935$ and $RMSEA=0.082$) indicate a suitable level of fit. Beside this study also used regression analysis to verify the mediating effect of the marketing mix on the relationships between the C-A-B component (or perceived quality) and consumer willingness, the regression analysis result see figure 1.

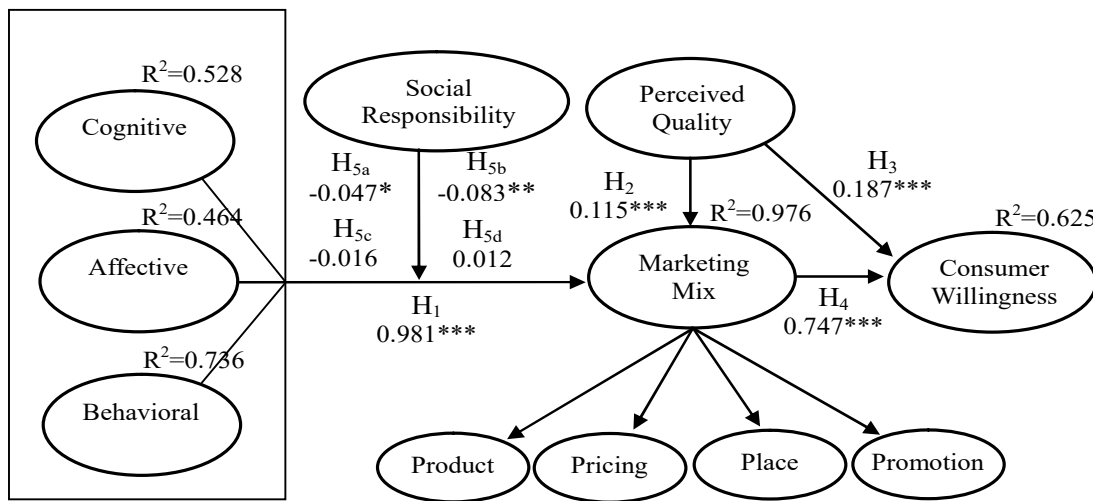


Figure 1. Model of moderation relationships

CONCLUSION

The present study is concerned about gathering the green consumer consensus with the marketing strategy and employing both a C-A-B component and marketing mix approach toward strategic green marketing; we verify the sustainable attitudes model that confirms consumer willingness.

The results of this study confirmed that the C-A-B component has a significant and positive impact on marketing approaches (Kwon and Vogt, 2010). This study further tests the mediation effect of the marketing mix between perceived quality and consumer willingness. In proving the mediation effect, we checked that perceived quality and the marketing mix have a significant and positive

influence on consumer willingness; this result is consistent with the research of Leonidou et al. (2013). Additionally, the C-A-B component and the marketing mix have a significant and positive influence on consumer willingness; this result is in accordance with Kwon and Vogt (2010). Both results of the cues indicate that consumer decision-making process in strategic consumerism relates to the marketing program's segments. Moreover, the factor loading of the marketing mix in four programs is highest, in sequential order, for promotion, pricing, the place, and the product. The consumer support types of marketing mix are an imperative approach to influence green consumer tendencies. The findings provide hotel managers a framework for effective green marketing approaches by examining the effect of consumers' attitudes and the resulting consumer willingness as being "green." In studying consumer responses to green marketing efforts, the research present the framework that the indirect effect of a C-A-B component on consumer willingness was significant and positive through the mediator variable of marketing mix by structural equation modeling analysis. Additionally, the moderating effect of perceived quality on the marketing mix and consumer willingness was significant and positive. Moreover, social responsibility has the moderating effect on a C-A-B component to influence both product and pricing. The limitation of this study is the use of cross-sectional empirical data to measure the consumerism tendency and willingness to support type. The consumer willingness intersections suggest that further research is needed for clarification.

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PERCEPTUAL AND MEASURING OF NATURAL CAPITAL, RISK AND IMAGE TO BEHAVIOUR INTENTION: FROM FOREIGN TOURIST PERSPECTIVE

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INTRODUCTION

Following fast-changing weather patterns and rising environmental awareness, tourists evaluate destinations' image regarding sustainability issues (Boley, McGehee, & Hammett, 2017; Weaver, 2014), and natural capital as representations of a measurement of sustainability and tourism risk impacts (Liu & Huang, 2017). This study tries to examine how different aspects of natural capital, such as ecological, sociocultural, and economic benefits, affect foreign tourists' place attachment and destination image and enhance their behavioural intention. Furthermore, this study assesses how tourism risk impacts the relationships among natural capital and destination image.

METHOD

Profile of the respondents

The proposed hypotheses were examined with a convenience sample of foreign tourists from 35 different countries (e.g., China, Malaysia, America, Singapore, Korea, Myanmar, Japan, Brazil, Russia, Macao, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Vietnam, Germany, Canada, Australia, Italy, South Africa, France, Palau, Mongolia, etc.) who had travelled around Taiwan and expressed their experience with cultural,

ecological, and socio-cultural tourism risk, as well as their image of the Taiwanese destination.

Variables

First, *Natural capital* items on the individual surveys were worded to reflect tourists' ecological, socio-cultural and economic constructs and were adapted from Liu and Huang (2017). Second, *Behavioural intention*. Four item scales were developed to measure behavioural intentions based on Oliver (1980). Third, *Destination image* measures foreign tourists' perceptions, attitudes and travel desire for destination quality through a four-item scale adapted from Echtner and Ritchie (1993). Fourth, *Tourism risk* scale is adapted from Tsaor, Tzeng, and Wang (1997). Fifth, *Place attachment* with a five-item scale adapted from Oliver (1980).

FINDINGS

Figure 1 presents a good structural model fit to the data ($\chi^2_{(313)}=890.664$, $p < .001$; CFI = .942, GFI = .901, AGFI = .881, IFI = .942, RMSEA = .054) for foreign tourists' perceptions of tourism risk, natural capital and destination image. The results support all hypothesis.

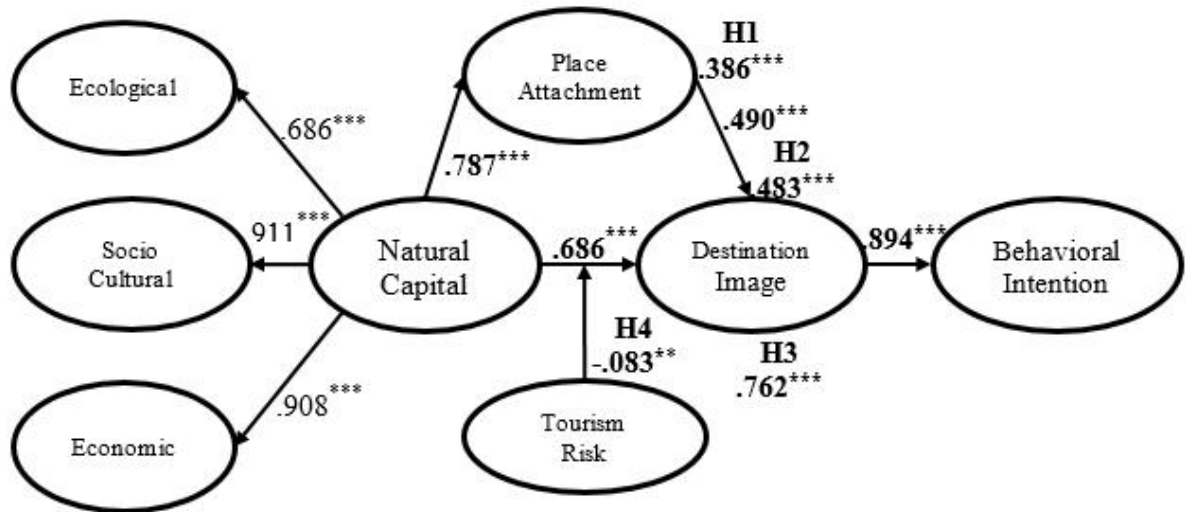


Figure 1. Results of proposed hypothesis

The interaction plot was drawn in Figure 2, and the graphic shows that when foreign tourists had lower (rather than higher) levels of tourism risk

perception, their natural capital feelings were more positively associated with destination image.

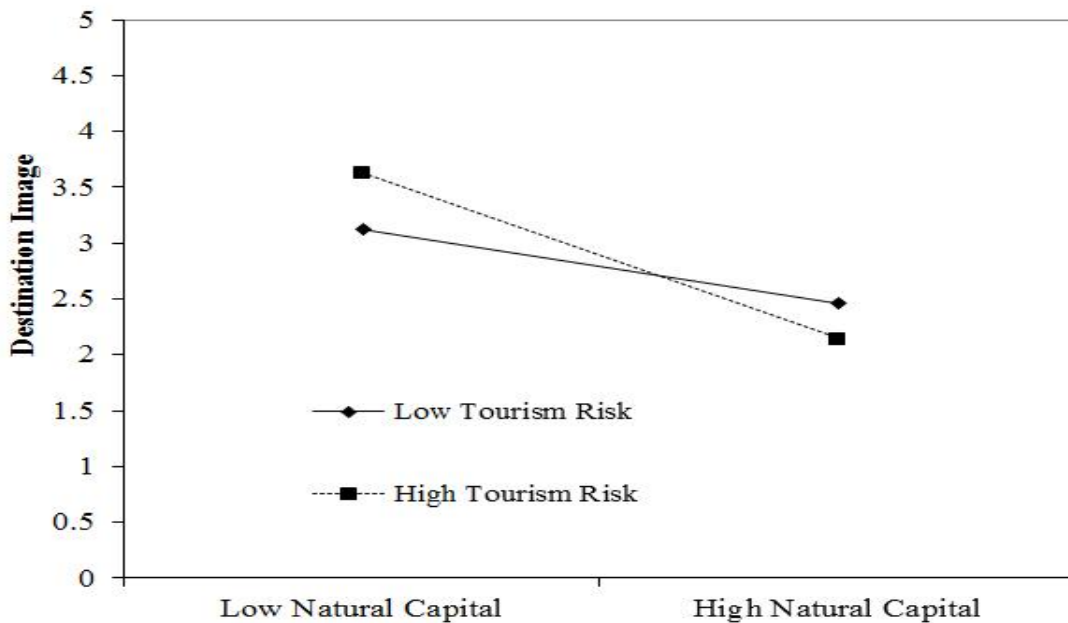


Figure 2. Interaction of Tourism Risk and Natural Capital on Destination Image

For the robustness of the findings, first-order factor analyses of natural capital were used to re-examine the hypotheses, as shown in Figure 3. This first-order factor model achieved acceptable fit ($\chi^2_{(312)}=1509.822, p < .001$; CFI = .879, GFI = .822, AGFI = .853, IFI = .880, RMSEA = .078). The factor loadings for all measurement items maintained significance at $p < .001$, and the values

were larger than .50. Thus, this analysis shows overall fit, and the path loadings support the first-order factors as a higher-order latent construct consisting of well-developed dimensions for further statistical analysis (Dong et al., 2014, p.1064). Therefore, this study retained the first-order factors hypothesized model for robustness tests because it is parsimonious.

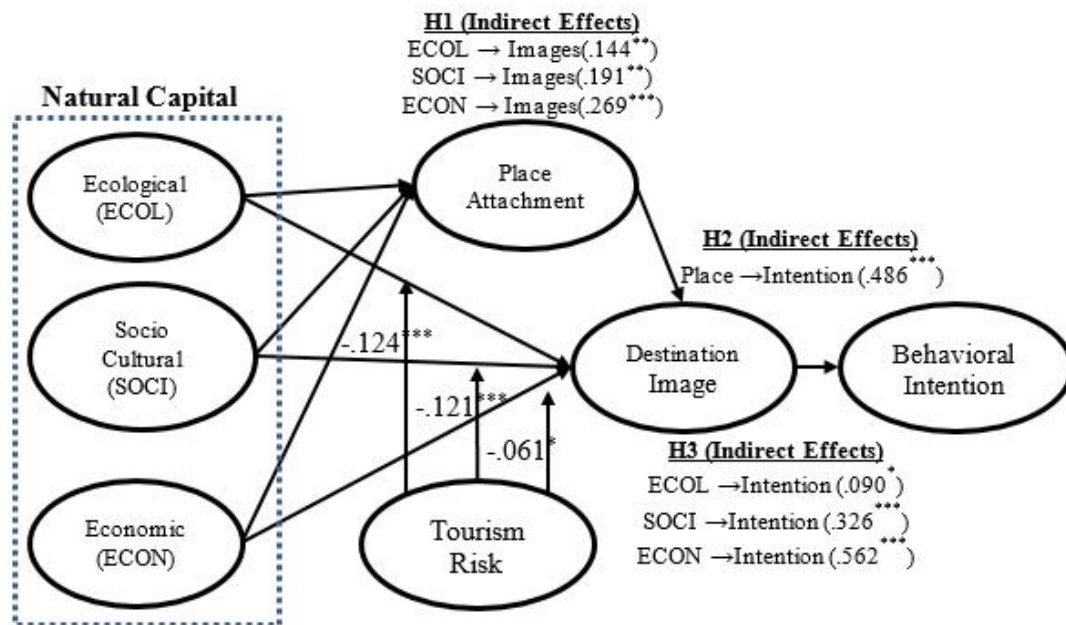


Figure 3. Alternative Research framework

IMPLICATIONS and CONCLUSION

By conceptualizing natural capital with different aspects, taking an affective view, and extending the tourism literature, this study supports previous indications that “natural capital affects tourists’ behaviours, attitudes and intentions; further, the role of the emotional attributes and values evaluation effects on natural capital is a lot more complicated...than it appears to be” (Liu & Huang, 2017). Importantly, our findings suggest that destination image, place attachment and risk assessment are key mechanisms that help to explain such complexity. The current study provides integrated and unexamined viewpoints of the potential benefits of tourism development, which describes different ways to build on the positive forces associated with tourists’ objective evaluations and pleasant feelings of destination image, while minimizing the effects of tourism risk assessment. At the same time, the present study hopes that its results will set the stage for future research that will enhance the understanding of the complex processes underlying natural capital, tourism risk,

destination image, and the developmental desire in tourist’s behaviour.

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THE GLOBALIZATIONS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN TAIWAN – CORE COMPETENCY OF TOURISM RESPONSIBILITY

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ABSTRACT

To minimize the adverse impacts of tourism activities to maximize the benefits of travel. Tourism, by its nature, emphasizes the value of one over the value of others. This research focuses on how tourists understand “responsible tourism”. Responsible tourism is referred to travelers are responsible to reduce negative impacts caused by their travel behaviors.

The tourism industry makes a significant contribution to the overall level of economic activity, and in 2017, it accounted for 10% of global GDP, which was a major impact on global economics. Tourism brought the growth of economies, and also brought negative impacts. Therefore, the idea that tourism had “more responsibility” appeared. Scholars had proposed that tourism upheld the principle of sustainability for the purpose of sustainable development. “Responsible tourism” had become popular, and “responsible” been favored industry term in the tourism market. However, would we be responsible for tourism only when choosing responsible tourism? What was “tourism responsibility” for

tourists? And which kind of responsible competency would tourists have?

Therefore, this study integrated qualitative and quantitative approaches to deeply explore the tourism responsibility and develop a reliable and valid measurable scale in two years project. In first year, this study will conduct in-depth interviews with eight experts or scholars from related areas and through content analysis to identify the core competency of tourism responsibility. In second year, this study will follow the procedure of scale development to establish the instrument which was measured experts or scholars from related areas. First, to generate the initial items based on qualitative results. Second, an exploratory factor analysis will be performed by investigating 400 tourists. Besides, the tourist’s core competency of tourism responsibility scale will be examined by internal consistency, construct validity, and nomological validity to prove reliability and validity. The findings will provide a foundation of theory development, and the references for government operator practice in Taiwan. Managerial implications and recommendations for future research are discussed.

THE EFFECT OF TRAINING MOTIVATION AND SELF-EFFICACY ON EMPLOYABILITY FOR VOCATIONAL TRAINING

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the impact of training motivation and self-efficacy of individuals during vocational training on their employability. This study took trainees from a vocational training center in the region as the object of investigation. A total of 350 questionnaires were distributed and 288 valid questionnaires were obtained, with a valid return rate of 82.2%. The results showed that the majority of the subjects were women and married people over 51 years of age. The education level of most subjects was high school, vocational high school, or junior college, and the main training category was Chinese cooking for the unemployed. The results indicated that training motivation and self-efficacy significantly affected employability, while self-efficacy was the mediating factor between training motivation and employability.

Keywords: Training motivation; Self-efficacy; Employability; Vocational training

INTRODUCTION

The overall success of an institution in achieving its strategic objectives relies heavily on the performance level of its employees. Employee performance is a function of ability and motivation, in which ability is comprised of the skills, training and resources required for performing a task, and motivation is an inner force that drives individuals to act towards something. Newstrom (1992) pointed out that 40% of the knowledge and skills learned in training can be used in work immediately after training, 25% can continue to be used for six months, and only 15% can still be used after

one year. Baldwin & Ford (1988) found that less than 10% of students are able to have real learning results after training. In addition, Curry, Knuppel & Knuppel (1994) found that only 10-13% of students are able to transfer their learning results to work.

Regarding SRL (Self-regulated learning) skills, it is important to be cognizant of the factors that foster the use and the development of these skills to improve students' learning results (Winne and Azevedo, 2014). Pintrich and De Groot (1990) showed that students' *self-efficacy* is positively related to these *self-regulation* processes. Self-efficacy and self-regulation can be considered as reciprocal causal factors. As students' self-efficacy and self-regulation processes have been found to be good predictors of performance (Pintrich and De Groot, 1990), it is important when fostering students' SRL skills to also take into account the development of students' self-efficacy. One study found that students in a new program showed increased self-efficacy in the use of self-regulated learning skills, with improved performance in domain specific competences (Meeuwen et al., 2018), which increased their employability.

Catering vocational training is a learning channel provided by the Taiwan government. It can mainly provide the unemployed or those who want to change jobs with a new opportunity to learn. Each student comes from a different background. Some have remained unemployed after graduation, some have already retired, some have been forced to leave their jobs because of a change in company policy, and others want to learn about the catering field and get a license to start their business. Unfortunately, a small number of people also choose to participate in training in order to

receive various subsidies. This will not only waste social resources but also make it impossible for those who are really in need to get government assistance in a timely manner. Therefore, everyone's motivation to start is different, and the learning attitudes produced in class will vary. We can imagine that the final training results will naturally be different. Therefore, this study attempted to gain a deeper understanding of the current situation of each participant's training motivation, self-efficacy, and employability, as well as whether the training motivation of the participants had any impact on their self-efficacy and employability. The results obtained could help promote the

discussion on the effectiveness of vocational training.

METHOD

Based on the model of training motivation, self-efficacy, and employability, this study explored whether there was a significant correlation and difference among the training motivation, self-efficacy and employability of students in catering vocational training institutions. This study presented the research framework shown below and proposed four hypotheses (see Figure 1).

H1: Training motivation has a positive effect on self-efficacy.

H2: Self-efficacy has a positive impact on employability.

H3: Training motivation has a positive impact on employability.

H4: Self-efficacy is the intermediary between training motivation and employability.

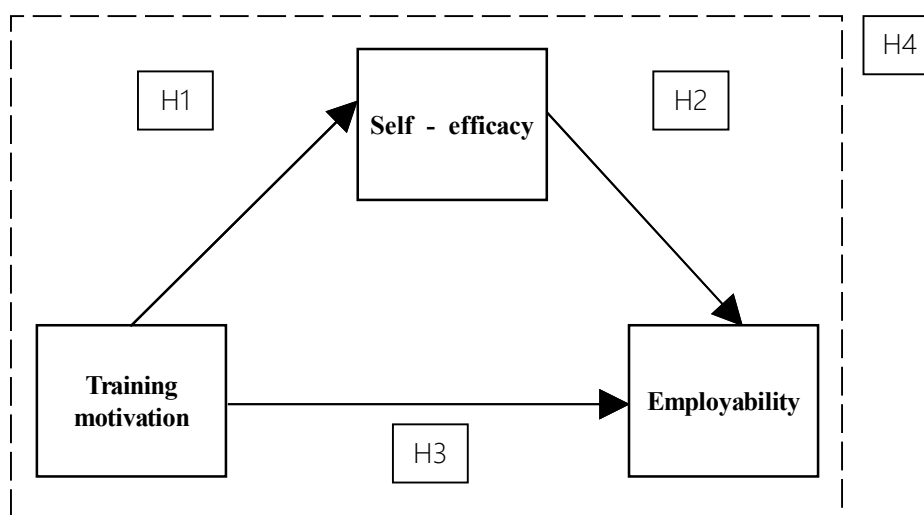


Figure 1. Research Architecture Diagram

In this study, participants from a catering vocational training institution in New Taipei City were selected as the research object and the sampling method used was convenience sampling. The questionnaires were distributed to individuals who had participated in vocational training for at least one month and those who had completed training, including classes for Chinese meat and vegetarian cooking skills (the unemployed, on-the-job training) and beverage preparation skills classes (the unemployed). After the questionnaire was revised by experts

and scholars from related disciplines, 350 questionnaires were distributed and 320 were recovered. Of these, 288 were valid, for an effective recovery rate of 82.3%.

The questionnaire design of this study included four sections: training motivation, self-efficacy, employability, and basic information. The questionnaires were anonymous. Using a Likert 5-point scale, this study measured and scored all dimensions. The participants' motivation scale was designed mainly by referring to Huang's (1985) "Scale

for Adult Participation Motivation of Continuing Education", which was then revised and developed into a questionnaire with a total of 18 items to measure the motivation perception of the participants when choosing to participate in the training course. The self-efficacy scale was designed mainly by referring to Chen, Gully, & Eden (2001), with a total of 16 items developed for the questionnaire. The employability questionnaire also had 16 items and referred to the questionnaire of Fugate (2004). The scores of 1 to 5 represented "strongly disagree", "disagree", "neutral", "agree", and "strongly agree", respectively, to show the degree of agreement to each scale. Basic personal information included gender, age, education, marital status, monthly income, and job category.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Of the 288 valid samples, 26.4% were male and 73.6% were female. Regarding age, 21.5% were under 40 years of age, 37.5% were 41-50 years of age, and 41% were over 51 years of age. The majority were still middle-aged and elderly. Regarding education, 36.8% were below high school and vocational high school, 27.4% were at the junior college level, and 35.8% were above the undergraduate level. In addition, 61.1% were married and 38.9% were single or divorced. Most respondents had the previous highest monthly income of NT\$ 30,001 - 40,000, accounting for 32.6%. The class of Chinese meat cooking skills for the unemployed had the most participants, followed by the class for Chinese vegetarian cooking skills and the class for beverage preparation skills, and all were training for the unemployed.

In terms of the various items of the vocational training motivation, "I am interested in the course" and "I want to acquire professional skills" received the highest score of 4.45 points, followed by "obtaining professional certificates" and "making up for the lack of studies". The item with the lowest score was "being influenced by other students", with less than 3 points. It could be seen that the motivation of the students was mainly to set out on their own and enhance

their self-ability. Among the self-efficacy items, the highest score was "to increase professional skills and obtain licenses", followed by "improving practical operation ability". The items with lower scores were "to feel the improvement of the quality of life" and "to get better jobs". In terms of employability, the items with higher scores were "I can cooperate with my team members to accomplish tasks together" and "to actively seek work success". The items with lower scores were "I have good innovation ability" and "I am sure I can engage in catering work".

Training motivation was found to significantly affect self-efficacy and employability, and self-efficacy also significantly affected employability. The prediction of the relationship among employability, training motivation, and self-efficacy showed that the Beta value of training motivation decreased from 0.711 to 0.202 and the decline coefficient was severe, indicating that the mediating effect of self-efficacy was significant. This indicated that the influence of training motivation on employability produced a partial mediating effect through self-efficacy.

Flippo (2001) added that employee performance in institutions results in a more motivated work force that has the drive for higher productivity, quality, quantity, commitment, and drive. His findings were consistent with Mondy (2007) and Armstrong (2005), both of whom found that employee performance results in more positive approaches and benefits than other managerial perspectives. Bandura (1977) suggested that the cognition, motivation, and emotion of an individual affect the individual's self-efficacy and that both the degree and intensity of self-efficacy affect the individual's belief in his or her own ability, which will eventually affect the individual's motivation and attitude in the face of difficulties. Pool (2007) pointed out that the elements of employability are based on the reflection and evaluation of subject knowledge, general skills, work experience, career planning, and emotional intelligence quotients, followed by the establishment of self-competence and

self-confidence, which then establishes their individual employability.

Bandura (1977) argued that the cognition, motivation, and emotion of an individual affect the individual's self-efficacy, and both the degree and intensity of self-efficacy affect the individual's belief in his or her own ability, thereby eventually affecting the individual's motivation and attitude in the face of difficulties. Bandura (1986) further found that self-efficacy is the decisive factor that most closely affects the human individual's action motivation. Self-efficacy was an important influencing factor in this study; only by improving self-efficacy could the training participants enhance their self-confidence and further increase their career identity.

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IDENTIFYING MOTIVATIONS AND BARRIERS OF FOOD WASTE PRACTICES IN TAIWANESE HOUSEHOLDS

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ABSTRACT

As the food waste issue has drawn considerable concerns, this study attempted to identify motivations and barriers of food-related household practices in order to minimize food waste in Taiwanese households. Using snowball sampling, semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect data from 15 household food providers in

the Taipei area. The research findings identified critical motivations and barriers of household food waste practices in Taiwan. Additionally, food waste prevention strategies were also determined to help reduce household food waste.

Keywords: Food Waste, Motivation, Barrier, Household, Prevention Strategy

THE IMPACT OF THE PERCEPTION OF AUTHENTICITY OF GANGNEUNG DANOJE ON VISITOR' S BEHAVIORAL INTENTION – FOCUSED ON THE EXTENDED THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

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INTRODUCTION

The local festival in Korea is being used as a means to stimulate the local economy and meet the needs of tourists through the identity and traditional resources held in each region. Until now, foreigners who have visited Korea limited their visiting areas to Seoul or some of the regions where tourism resources are located, but the festival has enabled to move them to other places (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, 2016). In 2017, the Andong Mask Dance Festival and Folklore Festival attracted more than 56,000 foreign tourists during the 10-day period. The largest number of tourists, including domestic tourists, reached 1.23 million people in the Andong Dance Festival (Gyeongbuk Daemin Daily, 2017). It seems that foreigners are interested in traditional festivals in Korea, and they are willing to participate in them despite the inconveniences of moving far. Therefore, local festivals play an important role in expressing local identity through unique tourism resources related to local historical facts, cultural characteristics, customs, cultural heritage and folk play (Ryu, 2006). These festivals enhance the regional and national image and contribute greatly to local social, cultural and economic activities such as the revitalization of local economy, exploration, conservation and succession of local culture, and promotion of pride of local people (Kim & Lee, 2001). Recently, however, local traditions are neglected, and festivals composed of similar programs are being developed that focus only on economic performance. Rather than excavating programs based on local culture, festivals held in imitation of other local festival programs that were successful as festivals are considered to be degraded (Oh, 2015). For example, the Wonju World Army Band Festival, the Seoul

World Fireworks Festival, and the Incheon World Dance Festival are less relevant to their unique culture and seen as following the world-famous festival (Lee & Park, 2013). This lack of authenticity makes it difficult for local festivals to continue to operate due to their lack of competitiveness in both form and content. Therefore, Since the authentic object is differentiated from the competitive object of culture and tourism, the region should secure authentic tourism resources through specialized tourism development (Lee, 2003). There have been various attempts to reinterpret and utilize the value of 'tradition' (Ryu, 2006), which was considered a relic of the past.

Currently, many parts of the country are developing tourism products to attract tourists, and many scholars think the tourism market will expand further in the future. However, at this point when Korea's tourism market has surpassed 26.5 million outbound tourists in 2017, it is necessary to review the factors that could attract tourists in order to activate the domestic market (Kim, 2002). Each region should develop and inherit tourism targets with unique local attributes, thereby establishing itself as a place to attract tourists and extend the region's authentic tourism products to the world, not just in Korea (Shim, 2010). Despite the fact that authenticity is an important competitiveness in cultural tourism, there is a few studies on Gangneung Dano Festival.

The Gangneung Dano Festival, a traditional Korean festival, preserves traditional customs and appearance, providing a genuine experience for festival visitors, but no research has been done regarding authenticity yet. Although it is listed as a UNESCO Intangible Cultural Heritage in 2005 and has a lot of academic benefits, it is a pity that it is recognized only as a local festival. It is

necessary to do further research on the Gangneung Danoegje, given the fact that festival officials from other regions are benchmarking them resulting in a significant impact on other regional festivals (Shim, 2010). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to examine the significance of the authenticity of traditional festivals through analyzing the influence of the authenticity of Gangnung Danoje, a representative folk culture festival in Korea, on visitors' behavioral intention.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Gangneung Danoje

The Gangneung Danoje Festival is a comprehensive festival held in Gangneung region, where Dano is a combination of folk games such as mask play, swing, ssireum(Korea wrestling), etc., and a local memorial service ceremony, an offering performance to the local god (Park, Cho, & Choi, 2014). It is not known exactly when Gangnung Danoje was started, but it is possible to deduce the history of the old Gangnung Danoje through the records of the Chosun Dynasty. Gangneung Danoje, which is a festival led by the government and participated by the people, is a large-scale event based on a solid economic and political foundation (Wang, 2007). In 1909, during the Japanese colonial period, Japan banned from the Danoje system. However, it survived as the central markets' merchants maintained it on a small scale. After the Japanese colonial period and the Korean War, the rapid modernization in a short period of time made traditional cultures to be regarded as old fashion, and many Korean traditional cultures disappeared. Though the size of the Danoje became significantly smaller than before, the system of the Confucian ceremony and the Buddhist priesthood, and the folk play have remained continuously.

The high value of Gangneung Danoje, which has a long history, is centered on sacred ceremony, and it is the only existing event that can enjoy the amusement and prototype of the festival together in today's Gangneung Danoje (Choi, Gao & Cho, 2017). In this historical background, Gangneung Danoje has been designated as the 13th Important Intangible Cultural Property in 1967 and protected by the Cultural Heritage Administration. In November 2005, it was designated as a Masterpieces of Oral and Intangible Heritage Humanity by

UNESCO and became a cultural heritage that humanity should preserve (UNESCO and Heritage, 2018).

The driving force until today's Gangneung Dano Festival is the power of myth hiding in it, which even affects the roots and identity of a nation and region. Today, when ethnic culture is disappearing, Gangneung Danoje is recognized for its value and importance as a channel for inheriting traditional culture and as a place for education where people can experience traditional culture (Hwang, 1999). With this historic and educational nature, the Gangneung Dano Festival has a unique value that only Dano Festival has, and captivates visitors with its authentic festival.

Also since 1990, Gangneung Danoje has been developed as a festival that represents Korea and it has been highly evaluated as a tourism and cultural resource. In 1994, Gangneung Danoje was selected as one of the 10 festivals representing Korea in the wake of the 'Year of Visit Korea' and actively developed new programs with the support of the government. According to the Gangneung Dano Committee (2017), the number of visitors to Gangneung Danoje in 2017 is 1.05 million. Among them, 520,000 (49.5%) are tourists and 5,050,000 (50.5%) are local residents. The impact of local residents and tourists on the local economy through the Gangneung Danoje is similar, which is somewhat influential. In addition, Gangneung Danoje has a socio-cultural impact. By demonstrating traditional culture and play and watching foreign folk performances, visitors to the Gangneung Dano Festival can enjoy a variety of high-quality cultural experiences and opportunities to rediscover the traditional culture of local culture.

Authenticity

Authenticity is a good concept to understand specific forms of tourism such as cultural tourism and historical tourism because it can reproduce past objects, phenomena, and expressions (Wang, 2007). The authenticity of early tourism was mainly related to museums and art galleries. (Wang, 1999). Authenticity is seen as one of the major trends in the tourism industry because it can experience the unique characteristics of the region and has the driving force to motivate tourists to travel to distant places by spending time and money (Cohen, 1988; Kolar & Zabkar, 2010; MacCannell, 1973).

Authenticity has an important impact on heritage tourism, which is considered to play a decisive role in historical authenticity, the universal value of cultural heritage (Kolar et al, 2010). This concept of sincerity not only gives strategic and tactical meaning by being used as a means of place marketing but also affects tourists' motivation and behavior (Lee & Oh, 2012).

Although authenticity has been widely studied, it is difficult to conceptualize objectively because it has a constantly changing attribute (Dickinson, 2006). The argument for authenticity is a question of whether authenticity can objectively identify an object or perceive it according to subjective, social, and individual circumstances (Kolar et al, 2010). Wang (1999) classified authenticity as objective authenticity, constructive authenticity, and existential authenticity through a postmodern approach of objectivity, constructivist, and postmodernism from a tourism perspective. Wang's concept of authenticity has also been applied to researchers at home and abroad and has been reborn as a theory that is drawing attention not only in tourism but also in all fields (Choi, 2013). Objective authenticity is an objective and absolute domain of authenticity related to a tourist object, which is an epistemological experience due to the original prototype (Kim, 2002). It focuses on the material authenticity of how objects and structures are kept in the original (Rickly-Boyd, 2012). Constructive authenticity is expressed as an outcome of social production that cannot be objectively measured and activities with objects. This is what is considered to be true, as it is constituted through power, beliefs, preferences, social perspectives, beliefs, etc., rather than being authentic. Finally, it doesn't matter what object looks like an original shape and only the authenticity of experience in the existential state is called existential authenticity (Wang, 1999). This existential authenticity may be expressed in different meanings and may be interpreted in various ways (Wang, 2013). Thus, existential authenticity is the authenticity related to the self, which is expressed in Western society and becomes a state of special existence different from others (Kim & Kwon, 2010).

The authenticity of tourism is not only an artificial factor, but it can attract tourists to tourist destinations and experience their original appearance in tourist destinations (Park, Cho &

Choi, 2014). This leads to the securing of national identity and the authenticity of national culture moving toward other countries and the world (Kim, 2002). In recent years, researches have been conducted not only on interpretive research on authenticity, but also on empirical research on authenticity, and authenticity has been regarded as one of the most important factors of cultural tourism (Cohen, 1998, Kolar et al., 2010; Wang, 1999). Preceding studies are: A study to confirm the authenticity of the tourism experience by targeting cultural heritage tourist sites (Byun & Han, 2013; Cho, 2009; Jang, 2016; Kim, 2002; Kim & Suk, 2010; Lee, 2010; Yang, 2006), Relationship between authenticity according to measurement variables of authenticity (Moscador & Pearce, 1986; Waller & Lea, 1999), Measurement of the authenticity of tourism objects (Cho & Yang, 2004; Chhabra, 2008; Kim & Lee, 2009; Lee, Kim & Yoon, 2013). Based on the previous studies, this study examines the authenticity of the Gangneung Dano Festival through the three types of authenticity of Wang (1999) which are used to find out whether Gangneung Danoje is authenticity or not in the particular place and situation of the festival.

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)

The understanding of consumer behavior and behavior intention is an important challenge and issue in the field of social science and continues to develop a model of behavioral research (Lee, Yang & Han, 2012). Reasonable behaviors and planned behaviors are based on determining the behavior using the information available to humans (Choi, 2005), and each of the behaviors is based on rational action theory (TRA) and planned behavior theory (TPB).

The theory of reasoned action (TRA), developed by Fishbein & Ajzen (1975), shows that attitude(ATT) and subjective norm(SN) influence the behavioral intention of tourists. It is one of the earliest theories related to attitudes and behaviors that can predict the actual behavior of tourists. Rational behavior theory was mainly researched in psychology, but later as the theory became more prevalent, it was widely used in various fields of study, which solidified the basis for rational behavior theory (Fishbein et al, 1975). Unlike other theories, rational behavior theory was relatively dominant in attitude and behavioral research

because it was relatively parsimony and evaluated to be appropriate for research (Lee, Kim, & Yoon, 2010). However, since the rational action theory does not consider external factors that may affect the behavioral intention such as time, resources, money, etc., uncertainty arises and it is difficult to identify the behavior of the actor (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Therefore, Ajzen (1991) included an additional variable called Perceived Behavioral Control (PBC) in order to supplement the limitations of the rational action theory and to increase the explanatory power of the decision making process.

The theory of planned behavior is an extended theory of rational behavior theory. Individual behavior is influenced by the behavioral intention, which is not directly influenced by the cause of action, but the behavioral intention is the attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control (Yoon, 2010). In other words, perceived behavioral control in the extended theory is a new leading factor in the behavioral intention, assuming that perceived behavioral control not only affects the behavioral intention but also has a direct effect on behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Planning behavior theory has been used to describe tourism activities conducted in various studies, because of the three constitutive concepts: attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavior affects behavior. Also its clarity, and the fact that they represent the real world well (Nasco, Toledo, & Mykyyn, 2008). In particular, it is proving the usefulness of the theory by incorporating, not only the individual behavior such as environment-friendly behavior, consumer behavior, and health-related behavior but also social interest. (Choi, 2005).

However, the theory of planned behavior has limitations as well as the rational behavior theory. Although the planned behavior theory has high explanatory power, it has explanatory power on the complex process of action in concrete contexts (Armitage & Conner, 2001). Therefore, in recent studies, the planned behavior theory has been developed in order to supplement the limits of the theory by adding new important variables related to the target action (Song, Lee, & Kang 2011).

METHOD

Hypothesis

The previous research on authenticity and

attitude was conducted mainly to investigate the influence relationship between corporate CSR activities and consumer attitudes. Consumers want to receive authentic services rather than artificial services for their businesses, and they value the delivery of authentic interactions between businesses and consumers (Gilmore & Pine, 2007). There is also a positive relationship between authenticity and attitude in the field of tourism. Lee (2013) found that the authenticity of Namsangol Hanok Village had a positive effect on attitudes, and Lee (2017) showed that the authenticity of the tourist site could form a favorable brand attitude if the authenticity of the tourist site was strengthened through the study of the influence relationship between the brand asset elements (attitude, image, royalties, etc.). In this respect, tourists' perceptions of the authenticity of the tourist sites influence the overall assessment of the visitor's historical sites (Lee et al, 2013). Therefore, the following research hypothesis will be examined based on previous studies.

H1: The authenticity has a positive impact on the attitudes.

Jeong & Kim (2009) conducted a study to identify the factors affecting the use behavior of foreign restaurants. Although the hypothesis that consumers perceive the authenticity of foreign food as having higher perceived subjective norms will be influenced, it shows that the ethnic authenticity of foreign food has a positive effect on usage attitude instead of not affecting subjective norm. The reason for this result is that consumers did not feel the authenticity of foreign restaurants because of their low historical and cultural factors such as knowledge and experience. Therefore, this study examines the following research hypothesis that the authenticity of Gangneung Danoje, which has a traditional circular shape, will affect visitors.

H2: The authenticity has a positive impact on the subjective norm.

Rational behavior theory, plan behavior theory, and goal-oriented behavior model, which are related to consumer behavior, have a great effect on the relationship between subjective norm and attitude. Lee et al (2016) demonstrated that

subjective norms and attitudes are factors that interact, rather than independent relationships, that result in improved fitness through additional relationships between subjective norms and attitudes that constitute the theory of plan behavior. Therefore, studies have been conducted in recent studies, including the relationship between attitudes and subjective norms. Yoon & Oh (2014) confirmed the behavioral intentions of visitors visiting the festival through the goal-oriented behavior model, confirming that the subjective norm affects the positive attitude. In addition, Lee et al (2016) confirmed that the relationship between attitudes and subjective norms occurred using the extended theory of planned behavior through the study of the behavior of visitors to the Busan International Film Festival. Therefore, in order to enhance the suitability of the extended theory of relational behavior through additional channels of attitudes and subjective norms in this study, the following research theories are to be verified.

H3: The subjective norm has a positive impact on the attitudes.

In the previous study on the existing plan behavior theory, it can be seen that the attitude, the subjective norm, and the perceived behavior control are influenced by the influence of the behavior. Song et al (2011) studied the decision-making process of visitors to the Boryeong Mud Festival, a nature-based festival, through the extended theory of planned behavior, and decided that new operational dimensions were needed to improve individual attitudes in order to enhance the revisit rate of the festival, as attitudes emerged as an important factor in the decision-making process. Based on the preceding study in this study, the following research theories are to be verified.

H4: The attitude has a positive influence on the behavior.

H5: The subjective norm has a positive influence on the behavior.

H6: The perceived behavioral control has a positive influence on the behavior.

In previous studies, research has been conducted on the relationship between authenticity and behavioral intention, as the greater the degree

of authenticity, the more likely it is to influence people's behavioral intentions. Kim & Choo (2017) conducted the relationship between SNS fashion inflator's authenticity and consumers' behavioral intentions, and found that consumers responded positively to the purchased products when they perceived the authenticity of particular inflators. A study by Cho (2015) showed that the authenticity of hotel workers has a positive effect on customers' future behavior. In the end, a company that has earned a sincere service or trust in the market for people will recognize that this belief is continuously carried out in the future, so authenticity is an important factor in determining the intention of the action. Therefore, the following hypotheses are to be verified in this study.

H7: The authenticity has a positive impact on the behavioral intentions.

Study site and data collection

The survey was conducted through the convenience sampling method from June 14 to June 17, 2018, for visitors to the Gangneung Danoje Festival in South Korea. Originally, the period of the Gangneung Danoje Festival was from June 14, 2018, to June 21, 2018, but the survey was conducted from June 14 to June 17. It is because many tourists were expected to visit on Saturday and Sunday than the weekdays. The purpose of the survey was explained to the festival visitors through four surveyors who have received the pre-education for survey method. The survey was conducted through self-administered questionnaires for visitors who agreed to do the survey. Through this process, a total of 365 questionnaires were distributed and collected. A total of 355 questionnaires were used in the final analysis, except for the 10 questionnaires that were untrue or unresponsive.

Analysis

The collected data were used in SPSS 23.0 and AMOS 23.0. Frequency analysis and descriptive statistics analysis were conducted to identify the general characteristics of the samples, and the reliability analysis of each factor, the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model, the validity of discriminations and suitability were confirmed. Afterward, the adequacy and causal relationship of the structural model was clarified

FINDINGS

Demographic Profile of the Respondents

The demographic profile of the sample is represented in Table 1. The gender consisted of 40% of men and 60% of women. Ages are that the 50s is 23.9%, followed by the 20s (21.7%), the 40s (18.9%), the 60s or older (17.7%), the 30s (18.9%) and the teens (5.1%). The residents living in Gangneung 77.5%, followed by Gangwon Province with 11.5%, and other places with 10.7%. Among the respondents, 24.5% housewife had the largest number of jobs, followed by 19.7% management/office workers, 17.7% students, 11% professionals, self-employed businesses (35.9%), other 9%, 5.4% sales/service workers, and 2.3% production workers. College graduates or being in

school accounted for the highest proportion of 63.1%, 28.5% under high school graduates, and 6.2% graduate schools and being in school. Less than 2-3 million won received the most responses from monthly average income. In terms of marital status, married was higher than unmarried people. The shared type distribution was found to be followed by 47% with family, 31.8% friends and colleagues, 7% others, 6.5% couples, and 3.7% groups. The analysis of the general characteristics of the sample showed that gender, age, occupation, marital status, and income were evenly distributed except for the dwelling. There were a lot of people who answered Gangneung as their residence, but this is because Gangneung Danoje, the study site, was held in Gangneung.

Table 1. Characteristics of Respondents

item	Classification	person	percent	item	Classification	person	percent
Gender	Male	142	40.0	Education	Under high school graduates	101	28.5
	female	213	60.0		College	224	63.1
Age	10s	18	5.1		Graduate school	22	6.2
	20s	77	21.7		nonresponse	8	2.3
	30s	45	12.7	Income	under 2 million won	40	11.3
	40s	67	18.9		less than 2-3 million won	101	28.5
	50s	85	23.9		less than 3-4 million won	85	23.9
	Up to 60s	63	17.7		less than 4-5 million won	52	14.6
Resident	Gangneung	275	77.5		More than 500million won	53	14.9
	Gangwon	41	11.5	nonresponse	24	6.8	
	Other	38	10.7	Marriage	married	230	64.8
	nonresponse	1	0.3		marital status	124	34.9
Occupation	professionals	39	11.0		nonresponse	1	0.3
	management/office workers	70	19.7	Company	family	167	47.0
	sales/service workers	19	5.4		friends and colleagues	113	31.8
	self-employed businesses	35	9.9		couples	23	6.5
	production workers	8	2.3		group	13	3.7
	Student	63	17.7		others	25	7.0
	housewife	87	24.5		nonresponse	14	3.9
	other	32	9.0				
nonresponse	2	0.6					

N=355(100%)

A Verification Analysis of Measurement Model

As a result of analyzing the reliability of the items of authenticity, attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavior control, the reliability of all the items were high, proving the validity of the items. This study has analyzed the structural equation model of the Amos program that identifies the

interrelationships of multiple equations in order to increase the validity and reliability of the constructs and the explanatory power of the analysis results through the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). The reliability of all factors was analyzed as shown in Table 2. As a result, the reliability of all items was high, which proved the validity of the items

($p < .001$). The results of this study are as follows. Other fit indices were CFI = .94 (.9), NFI = .902 (.9), TLI = .933 (.9), IFI = .94 (.9) and RMSEA = .08, and GFI = .855, which is considered to be close to 1. The validity was high for all variables except constitutive authenticity, and it was confirmed that discriminant validity and reliability were appropriate.

To verify the conceptual validity of constructive concepts, this study tested the concentrated and discriminative validity. As a result of evaluating the significance of the measurement model, the standardized load value of all observational variables except for 'I got a traditional

feel in the food type, taste, and tableware of the market' was over 0.7, AVE was .639 ~ 0.839 and the test statistic of all observed variables is statistically significant. The conceptual reliability (CR), which indicates the reliability between the constitutional concepts, should be higher than 0.7, and the CR value of the measurement model is .884 ~ .955. The validity of the discriminant validity is evaluated by using the mean-variance extracted value (AVE) in this study. As a result, the discriminant validity was confirmed because the mean-variance extraction value of all latent variables was larger than the square of the correlation of the two latent variables.

Table 2. Results of confirmatory factor analysis and goodness-of-fit indices for measurement Model

Factors	Items	Factor loading	t-value	CR	AVE
AUTHENTICITY	The Gangneung Danoje is based on historical facts.	.762		.955	.639
	The performances of the Gangneung Dano Festival (Gutpan, ritual) shows the old days.	.759	13.959***		
	The Gangneung Danoje shows a part of the traditional local culture.	.778	14.311***		
	The Gangneung Danoje is a unique intangible heritage left by our ancestors.	.713	13.078***		
	I received a feeling of traditional life in various performance / production demonstrations.	.846			
	It recreated the traditional performances I had seen in books and TV.	.813	17.91***		
	I got the traditional feeling from food, tastes and tableware of the marketplace.	.686	14.138***		
	I felt the old atmosphere in the living tools in the exhibition (bowl, farm equipment, plaster, etc.).	.749	15.945***		
	I was able to have the experience to immerse in the ancient ancestors' life.	.844			
	I was able to feel the traditional atmosphere through the experience.	.831	19.029***		
I was able to have an opportunity to reflect on the cultural heritage of Korea.	.843	19.44***			
I was able to feel the novelty of the Dano culture.	.778	17.199***			
ATT	Visiting Gangneung Danoje was a positive action.	.806		.922	.747
	Visiting Gangneung Danoje was worthwhile.	.877	19.279***		
	Visiting Gangneung Danoje was beneficial.	.880	19.381***		
	Visiting Gangneung Danoje was attractive.	.796	16.857***		
SN	Those who are important to me will approve my visit to Gangneung Danoje.	.908		.954	.839
	Those who are important to me will support my visit to Gangneung Danoje.	.929	29.237***		
	Those who are important to me will recommend that I visit Gangneung Danoje.	.902	27.033***		
	Those who are important to me will understand that I visit Gangneung Danoje.	.839	22.802***		
PBC	I can visit Gangneung Danoje whenever I want.	.703		.884	.658
	I can afford to visit Gangneung Danoje.	.810	14.245***		
	I have time to visit Gangneung Danoje.	.844	14.794***		
	I have the opportunity and conditions to visit Gangneung Danoje.	.908	15.651***		
BI	My decision to visit Gangneung Danoje was good..	.864		.924	.753
	I am generally satisfied with Gangneung Danoje.	.810	19.165***		
	I would recommend Gangneung Danoje to people nearby.	.889	22.514***		
	I am willing to revisit Gangneung Danoje.	.830	19.939***		

Note: $\chi^2=807.739$, $\chi^2/df=2.397$, $df=337$, CFI=0.94, NFI=0.902, IFI=0.94, TLI=0.933, GFI=0.855, RMSEA=0.063, *** $p < .001$.

Verification of Structural Equation Model

As a result of the structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis for the hypothesis test, $\chi^2 = 713.220$ ($df = 336$, $p < .001$) was statistically significant. The additional fitness index was $NFI = .913$, $IFI = .952$, $TLI = .946$, $CFI = .952$, $RMSEA = .056$, and the GFI was $.871$ ($.871$). All of them were higher than the standard $.9$ except GFI, but it appeared to be close to $.9$. So it was judged that it wouldn't be a big problem and was identified as an acceptable model.

Based on the hypothesis presented in this study, the following hypothesis tests were found. Hypothesis testing in Figure 1 has shown that authenticity affects the attitude and the subjective norm, which affects the behavioral intention.

First, for Hypothesis 1 the relationship between authenticity and attitude was tested. As a result, Hypothesis 1, which the standardization factor was $.259$ and $C.R. = 4.871$ ($p < .001$), was adopted. In other words, objective authenticity, constitutive authenticity and existential authenticity were found to enhance the attitude of visitors to the Gangneung Danoje.

As a result of verifying Hypothesis 2 for the relationship between authenticity and subjective norms, it was found to have a significant positive effect for the standardization factor = $.59$ and $C.R. = 9.214$ ($p < .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was adopted. The study found that authenticity contributed more to explaining subjective norms of attitude and subjective norms.

As a result of verifying the relationship between subjective norms and attitudes, the standardization factor was $.644$ and $C.R. = 11.17$ ($p < .001$). This suggests that the positive opinions of other people have a positive effect on the attitude of visitors to the Gangneung Danoje when making decisions about the Gangneung Danoje. Hypothesis 3 was therefore adopted.

Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 5, Hypothesis 6 on

the relationship between attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavior control, and behavioral intention were as follows. First, Hypothesis 4 shows that the relationship between attitude and behavioral intention has a positive (+) effect on the standardization factor = $.306$ and $C.R. = 4.226$ ($p < .001$). Hypothesis 5 shows the relationship between the subjective norm and the behavioral intention, with a positive correlation with the standardization factor = $.174$ and $C.R. = 2.627$ ($p < .01$). The relationship between perceived behavioral control and the behavioral intention was positively affected by the standardization factor = $.109$ and $C.R. = 2.539$ ($p < .05$). In other words, attitude, subjective norm, perceived line control increase the intention of behavior, and Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 5, Hypothesis 6 were adopted. Finally, the relationship between the authenticity and the behavioral intention of Hypothesis 7 was positively affected by the standardization factor = $.426$ and $C.R. = 6.696$ ($p < .001$). So Hypothesis 7 was adopted.

Furthermore, through the mediating effect of additional analysis as shown in Table 3. It was confirmed that authenticity has an indirect effect on attitudes and behaviors, which shows that authenticity has a greater indirect influence than it directly affects each factor. The subjective norms also had indirect effects on behavior, but had less influence than the indirect effects shown by authenticity, and unlike the planned behavior theory, it is necessary to suggest why they appear different from theory because subjective norms do not have direct effects on behavior. Studies have shown that attitude and perceived behavioral control have only a direct effect on behavior, which can support the theory of planned behavior. Overall, authenticity has the greatest direct influence on Gangneung Danoje visitors' behavioral intentions.

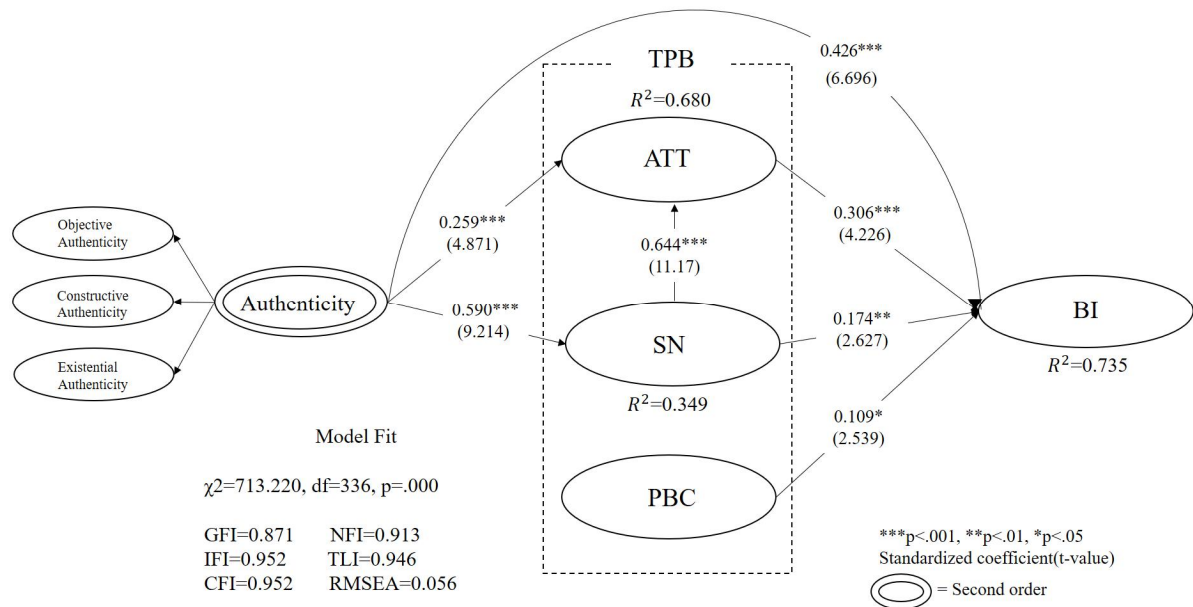


Figure 1. Results of the model

Table 3. Results of structural equation modeling

Factors		Authenticity	PBC	SN	ATT
Direct Effect	ATT	.259**	-	.644**	-
	SN	.590**	-	-	-
	BI	.426**	.109*	.174	.306**
Indirect Effect	ATT	.380**	-	-	-
	SN	-	-	-	-
	BI	.298**	-	.197**	-
Total Effect	ATT	.639**	-	.644**	-
	SN	.590**	-	-	-
	BI	.724**	.109*	.371**	.306**

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

CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the study on the behavior of visitors, the study presents the following implications and limitations for visitors at Gangneung Danoje:

First, the research on Gangneung Danoje has been mainly focused on research on tradition and folk tales, and only empirical studies on economic value estimation and festival program satisfaction have been conducted. It is meaningful that this study contributed to the expansion of the empirical research on the Gangneung Danoje. Based on the background of this research, this study confirmed that the authenticity of Gangneung Danoje has a significant effect on the visitor 's intention to act

and it became the basis of academic research on Gangneung Danoje. In this way, the festivals held only for economic performance should be transformed into festivals where the local uniqueness will dissolve by activating regional strengths and tourism resources, using the Gangneung Danoje as an example.

Second, by adding authenticity as a new variable, this study extended the existing research of the planned behavioral theory by Ajzen (1991). Based on these previous studies, this study has expanded the explanatory power of the theory and supported the previous research. It also proved that authenticity is a suitable model for measuring and analyzing attitudes, subjective norms, and behavioral intentions of visitors to Gangneung

Danoje. The validity and reliability of the items of measurement also indicate that the model of this study can be used in future studies.

Third, research shows that authenticity has the greatest influence on visitors' behavioral intention. This result shows that unlike other regional festivals, Gangneung Danoje is considered to be a unique factor. It also suggests the need to develop programs that enhance existential authenticity in order to emphasize authenticity more clearly. The recent trend toward festival programs has put importance on visitors' experiences that emphasize amusement and playfulness, which are part of empirical values, rather than emphasizing visual elements. Although Gangneung Danoje has provided a place where visitors can enjoy entertainments, they are mostly something like a little circus and simple attractions that have nothing to do with Danoje. There is no real entertainment where visitors can feel a genuine Dano rite, such as participating in Gwanno mask play with visitors own hand made masks. Therefore, in addition to the programs in the existing experience zone, an existing program should be prepared so that visitors can participate in cultural events.

Fourth, there should be a massive promotion of the Gangneung Danoje, saying that this is a UNESCO registered intangible human heritage, should be carried out. The 'opportunity to look back at the cultural heritage' of the item of existential authenticity was 3.35 in the descriptive statistics of authenticity, which was somewhat lower than other authenticity measures. This is because, although the Gangneung Dano Festival has been registered as a UNESCO-designated masterpiece of human salvation and intangible heritage, many people do not appreciate the fact and it is hard for people to directly experience the abstract word "cultural heritage." Therefore, it is necessary to publicize the cultural heritage awareness of the Gangneung Dano Festival, promoting the unique value of the Gangneung Dano Festival, which has the original formation of traditional festivals.

However, it is difficult to generalize the authenticity of the festival because the data were collected only in a specific location, and the limitation is that it is difficult to clarify the relationship by verifying the authenticity without classifying it into three categories.

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DARK TOURISM: ROLE OF MOTIVATION, EXPERIENCES, PERCEIVED BENEFITS AND GENDER IN VISITING DARK TOURISM SITES

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INTRODUCTION

The word “dark tourism” was used by Foley and Lennon (1996) to explain the phenomenon of people traveling to places that are associated with death and tragedy caused by war, political conflict, natural disasters and other fatal events. The examples of the dark tourism sites include Ground Zero in New York, Hiroshima Memorial Park in Japan, Auschwitz concentration camp in Poland, Tsunami memorial sites in Thailand, etc. (Yan et al., 2016). These sites are often used as a secure place for preserving history and remembering the victims, and the number of dark tourism sites as well as dark tourists is increasing (Robb, 2009).

The growing popularity of dark tourism has caused an increase in scholarly research in the area (i.e., Hartmann, 2014; Chronis, 2005; Yankovska & Hannam, 2014; Richards, 2005). As Hartman (2014) questioned whether dark tourism is a real occurrence or just a simple variation of tourism, studies have tried to understand the conflicting views of tourists’ motivation and experiences of visiting these sites (i.e., Andreck, Bricker, Kerstetter, & Nickerson, 2006; Chen & Chen, 2010; Kang et al., 2012; Pearce & Kang, 2009; Tang, 2014; Yan et al., 2016) and the social and economic importance of dark tourism (i.e., Miles, 1993; Rittichainuwat, 2008). However, regardless of the increasing academic attention on dark tourism, there has been no research considering gender differences on the tourists’ motivation and experiences. Moreover, little research has been conducted on

perceived benefits of visiting the sites. Thus, this study aims to fill the gap in the literature emphasizing the relationships among tourists’ motivation, experiences, and perceived benefits, while considering the moderating effect of gender. Therefore, the study has the following research purposes:

1) The study investigates tourists’ perceived benefits for dark tourism by exploring dark tourism motivation and experiences.

2) The study attempts to identify the moderating effect of gender on dark tourism motivation, experiences and perceived benefit formation process.

3) The study tests the mediating effects of dark tourism experiences between the tourists’ motivation and perceived benefits.

METHOD

The study tried to examine the degree to which dark tourism motivation features elicit experiences and perceived benefits towards dark tourism sites. Curiosity and obligations, education and emotional reaction were used as motivation factors, while knowledge gain, personal fulfillment and appreciation were tested as variables of perceived benefits after visiting post-earthquake sites of 2015 Nepal earthquake. Cognitive and affective experiences were used as mediating variables between dark tourism motivation and perceived benefits. The study also proposed the moderating impact of gender.

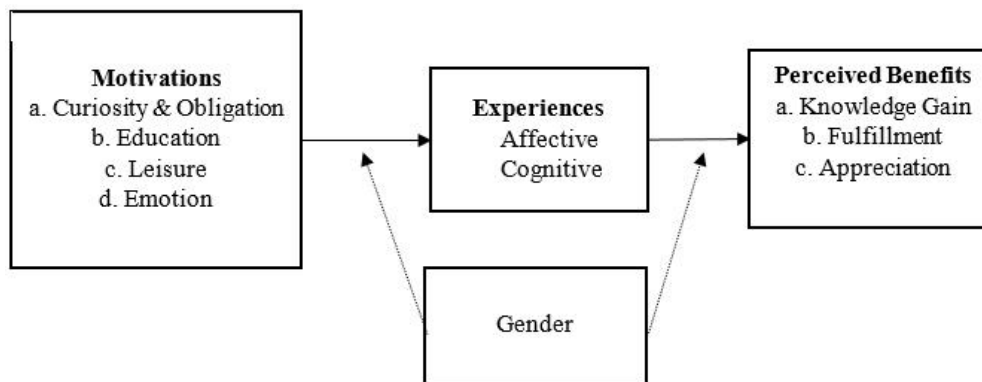


Figure 1. Proposed conceptual framework

A field survey with the convenience sampling was performed, in which participants were randomly selected at the Nepal earthquake sites (i.e. Kathmandu, Bhaktapur, and Lalitpur). A total of four trained research assistants conducted a survey. The data collection period was for about a week (July 1, 2018 – July 7, 2018). The survey questionnaires were handed out to the visitors and immediately collected upon their completion. The participants were given a brief description about the study purpose and the importance of filling out all questions. 1200 tourists were randomly asked during face-to-face interactions to complete the survey. Altogether, a total of 913 usable survey questionnaires were obtained from the pool of 1200 distributed questionnaires. The questionnaire consisted of four sections. The first section was designed to measure their motivation to visit the earthquake sites. The second section contained questions regarding experiences gained after visiting the sites. The third section included questions regarding perceived benefits. The final section asked the participants' demographic information. The purpose of the study was explained to the

respondents and informed consent was obtained. To analyze the data, Partial Least Squares-Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM) was used. The data was analyzed using SmartPLS 3 and SPSS 24.

FINDINGS

The quality of measurement models was assessed for convergent validity with the magnitude of the factor loadings, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). All factor loadings exceeded the recommended value of 0.7 (Chin, 1998) and composite reliability values for constructs exceeded the recommended value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2006). Discriminant validity among constructs was confirmed by assessing AVEs for each construct and by comparing the squared correlations between the two constructs of interest. The AVEs for all constructs exceeded the recommended level of 0.50 and AVEs for all constructs were greater than their squared correlations, supporting adequate discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981)

Table 1. Validity and Reliability for Constructs

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	CR	AVE
Curiosity & Obligation	0.901	0.920	0.923	0.665
Education	0.764	0.765	0.895	0.809
Emotion	0.854	0.868	0.932	0.872
Leisure	0.734	0.748	0.838	0.723
Affective	0.852	0.859	0.910	0.772
Cognitive	0.778	0.777	0.849	0.530
Fulfillment	0.751	0.766	0.858	0.669
Knowledge Gain	0.813	0.816	0.870	0.573
Appreciation	0.748	0.782	0.852	0.657

Table 2. Hypotheses Testing

Paths	Male (n=463)	Female (n=450)
	Coefficients (t-values)	Coefficients (t-values)
Curiosity & Obligation -> Affective	0.06 (2.24)*	0.07 (1.62)
Curiosity & Obligation -> Cognitive	0.06 (1.07)	0.06 (2.45)*
Education -> Affective	0.06 (0.02)	0.07 (0.91)
Education -> Cognitive	0.06 (2.39)*	0.07 (0.29)
Emotion -> Affective	0.05 (7.87)**	0.05 (9.97)**
Emotion -> Cognitive	0.05 (9.74)**	0.05 (8.02)**
Leisure -> Affective	0.05 (0.50)	0.05 (0.12)
Leisure -> Cognitive	0.04 (0.87)	0.05 (1.59)
Affective -> Knowledge Gain	0.05 (2.83)**	0.05 (4.85)*
Affective -> Fulfillment	0.06 (2.93)**	0.06 (3.54)**
Affective -> Appreciation	0.05 (1.83)	0.06 (3.54)**
Cognitive -> Knowledge Gain	0.05 (9.40)**	0.05 (8.58)**
Cognitive -> Fulfillment	0.06 (5.93)**	0.05 (8.58)**
Cognitive -> Appreciation	0.05 (5.23)*	0.07 (2.57)*

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the limited literature associated with the role of tourist's motivations, experiences, perceived benefits and gender in visiting dark tourism destinations.

Among the four motivational factors examined, the empirical results depicted that emotional reaction was the strongest factor of the dark tourism motivation, affecting both affective and cognitive experiences. Additionally, the study revealed that both affective and cognitive experiences had strong positive relationships with three perceived benefit constructs for female tourists. On the other hand, appreciation was found to have little statistical relationship with male tourists' affective experience. Both affective and cognitive experiences were found to have strong mediating effects between the both female and male tourists' motivation and perceived benefits. In conclusion, this research provides valuable information to dark tourism providers to develop an effective dark tourism site as well as to enhance their services to meet tourists' needs. This study also provides an evidence that the dark tourism is a real occurrence, which can enhance tourists' psychological, cultural and intellectual benefits. This study is also expected to increase the awareness of dark tourism and shed light on the limited number of research and findings in the area.

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ANALYSIS OF TOURISM DEMAND IN JEJU ISLAND AND SEARCH FOR TAXABLE TARGET

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism taxation was introduced and operated in various forms such as accommodation tax and leisure tax in overseas, and review for introducing a new tourism taxation is actively carried out in South Korea. In South Korea, the introduction of Tourism taxation has not been reached yet, but the study on institutional dimension for the introduction of tourism taxation has been relatively active (Kim, 2003; Nam·Cho, 2003; Park, 1997; Lee·Kim, 2012; Cho, 2008). However, there is a lack of preliminary research on introduction of the system such as tourism demand and the ripple effect on the local economy when actual tourism taxation is introduced (Kwon·Shin, 2016). The research that is essential as a preliminary study is that when taxation is applied to tourism activities, how much the increase in the price of tourism affects tourism demand, and this study can be an important standard in the introduction of tourism taxation.

The positive effect of the introduction of tourism taxation is that the increase in tax revenues and tax revenues can be used to recover local environmental pollution caused by local tourism revival and tourism activities (Kim·Yoo, 2017; Kim, 2003; Nam·Cho 2003; Park, 1997; Lee·Kim, 2012; Cho, 2008). On the other hand, the negative effect is that tourist demand is shrinking due to the rise in tourism prices and tourism income is reduced, and financial income may be less than before the introduction of tourism taxation depending on the degree of tourism demand decrease (Ko·Lim, 2010; Kwon·Shin, 2016). In order to realize the financial expansion, which is a positive effect of the introduction of tourism taxation, it is only possible under the condition that the price elasticity of tourism demand is inelastic (Kwon·Shin, 2016).

It is important to estimate the price elasticity of tourism demand in measuring the impact of

tourism price increase on tourist demand due to the introduction of tourism taxation. The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of tourism taxation introduction on tourism demand and financial income by estimating the price elasticity of tourism activity in Jeju Island, which is a typical island tourism destination in South Korea.

This study is composed as follows. First of all, theoretical background is to clarify the necessity of introducing tourist taxes in the theoretical background, and review recent cases of introduction of overseas tourism taxation. The purpose of this study is to examine the effect of tourism taxation introduced during the period after reviewing the tourism demand behavior of Jeju island tourists and reflecting the regional characteristics in the research model. In the analysis model and variable setting, we review the QUAIDS (Quadratic Almost Ideal Demand System) model used in this study and clarify the data, analysis items and variables used in the analysis. The results of the analysis are divided into the price elasticity and the tax revenue effect. Finally, the implications and limitations of this study are presented based on the analysis results.

Rationale for introduction of tourism tax

Tourism taxation is a tax to increase the number of local taxes while preventing the costs to be passed on to the local residents by directly paying the corresponding expenses to the tourists who cause various financial needs in the area while enjoying the benefits directly through the tourist activities (Park, 1997). In other words, it is a tax that prevents tourists' free riding by partially imposing management and maintenance costs on public services provided to tourists, who are users of tourism resources (Nam·Cho, 2003).

As an important rationale for the introduction of tourism tax, it is possible to realize the principle of paying the beneficiary. Consumers in tourism are

tourists and suppliers are local governments, As a provider of tourism, local governments are striving to maintain the best conditions for tourist facilities and various facilities related to tourism and to continuously provide high quality tourism services such as developing new tourism resources(Park, 1997). On the other hand, tourists use tourism resources and various convenience facilities to feel leisure satisfaction and benefit of improving the quality of life. At the same time, they cause various social costs such as environmental pollution and traffic congestion and local self-governing bodies are burdened(Nam·Cho, 2003; Cho, 2008). Therefore, it is a principle of beneficiary to impose tourism tax with tourists as taxable objects, and to match the benefits enjoyed by tourists to tourist destinations and the various social costs incurred by tourists(Kim·Yoo, 2017; Kim, 2003; Nam·Cho 2003; Park, 1997; Lee·Kim, 2012; Cho, 2008).

Tourism taxation is still in the stage of introduction review in South Korea, but in overseas, based on the principle of beneficiary burden, tourism related taxes are taxed in various countries under various names. In the case of Okinawa, which is an island tourism destination in Japan and which has many similarities with Jeju Island, started specific design of the tourism taxation system. A relatively recent introduction has begun to tax the accommodation tax for tourists in 2012 and 2016, respectively, in order to improve the provincial financial conditions that deteriorate Spain's Catalan and Balearic Islands, Japan's Osaka and Malaysia have also begun collecting accommodation tax for tourists since 2017(Kim·Yoo, 2017). The positive aspect of the introduction of Tourism taxation is that tourism activities of tourists, who are subject to taxation of tourism tax, contribute to the stability and expansion of local government's taxation related income because it is income elastic(Ko·Lim, 2010; Cho, 2008). However, the positive effect of the introduction of tourism taxation is realized under the condition that the price elasticity of tourism demand is inelastic. (Kwon·Shin, 2016). Therefore, it is necessary to clarify the effect of introducing tourism taxation through systematic approach and analysis of price elasticity of tourism demand.

PRECEDENT RESEARCH

This study focuses on price elasticity in

estimating the increase of tourism price due to the introduction of tourism taxation and the change of tourism demand. The analysis of the effect of introducing tourist taxation during this period, most of them do not consider price elasticity(Kwon·Shin, 2016). As mentioned earlier, if the system is introduced without consideration of the price elasticity of tourism demand, the tourism industry as a whole will be hurt by the decrease in tourism demand, and the justification for the introduction of tourism taxation such as the increase of financial income may be threatened. It emphasizes the importance of price elasticity analysis in analyzing tourism demand(Seetaram, Forsyth· Dwyer, 2016). Therefore, this study focuses on the studies considering the price elasticity of tourism demand. Park (1997) estimated the price and cross - elasticity of tourism demand by setting three scenarios based on the tax object, tax rate, and imposition method, using Gangwon area and Jeju area as an analysis centering on Gyeongju. As a result of the study, Jeju, Gyeongju, and Gangwon showed that tourism demand is inelastic to tourism price change. There are studies that analyze the effect of tourism taxation introduction to local finance using Park(1997)'s research results, Kim(2003) reported that the city would pay 2,645 million won for the 5% tourism taxation and 5,069 million won for the 10% surcharge. Cho(2008) showed that the rate of financial self-reliance was 0.39% for the 5% tourism taxation and 0.75% for the 10%. Lee·Kim(2012) said that it will achieve financial self-reliance of 2.8 percent when levied 5 percent tourism taxation and 5.3 percent when 10 percent is imposed on Jeju Island. Using the QUAIDS(QUadratic Almost Ideal Demand System) model, Kwon(2015) and Kwon·Shin(2016) estimated the price and income elasticity of tourism demand in seven regions and four major countries visited in Korea. Kwon(2015) showed that price elasticity of all four major countries visited in Korea is inelastic in all sectors(Accommodation, transportation, food, entertainment / culture, shopping / other.), and price elasticity of entertainment / culture sector is -0.307, and it is -0.7 ~ -0.8 in the other sectors. Kim·Yoo(2017) estimated the tourism demand function and price elasticity of each region using the QUAIDS model as in Kwon(2015) for Seoul, Jeju and Yeosu. Domestic demand for accommodation declined from 0.29% to 0.37%,

while for foreigners it decreased by 0.6%. The research on the price elasticity of tourism taxation has been limited in comparison with its importance, and most of the studies focused on the tax increase effect rather than the price elasticity of demand. However, in order to strictly estimate the effect of the introduction of tourism taxation, it is necessary to consider the resilience of tourism demand. In recent research, a study using the QUAIDS model based on the consumer choice theory has emerged in analyzing tourism demand, which can overcome limitations of existing tourism demand research. Since the QUAIDS model has an economic rationale that assumes that consumers' decisions are dependent on the given budget constraint income and the relative price of the goods concerned, the randomness that arises when estimating tourism demand using simple regression analysis is excluded (Kim·Yoo, 2017). This study also uses the QUAIDS model in the analysis of tourism demand, and reflects the regional tourism characteristics that were not considered in the previous studies into the analysis model.

RESEARCH METHOD

In this study, the price and elasticity of demand for domestic tourism goods and services (below tourism goods) are estimated (or expenditure) using the model QUAIDS (Deaton and Muellbauer, 1980; Banks, Blundell, and Lewis, 1997), which is most often used for demand headings in various fields. The basic assumptions are as follows.

First, tourists consume tourism with the aim of maximizing utility. Tourism means the purchase of tourist goods consumed in a tourist destination, as well as the climate, landscape and various cultural and social experiences that can be experienced in a particular tourist destination. Tourism demand will depend on the relative price system of tourist goods, the real income (or expenditure) and preference of tourists, and the attraction of tourist attractions.

Second, tourists' utility function assumes that demand for tourism and demand for other goods and services (non-tourism demand) is weakly separable. The assumption of drug-separable means that the problem of maximizing the overall utility of tourists is caused by multiple-stage allocation processes. As a first step, tourism consumers

allocate their total budget to tourism goods and non-tourism goods and services, respectively. Here, the budget for tourism goods means the share of the budget you want to spend in the tourist areas, and the budget for non-tourist goods and services means the share of the budget you want to spend in your residential areas. As a second step, tourism consumers will redistribute the budget allocated for tourism from various tourist goods to be consumed at the tourist sites.

In this study, the purpose of this study is to analyze the interaction between consumption activities on various tourist goods consumed in tourist areas by paying attention to the second stage of the budget allocation process. More specifically, we want to analyze tourism consumption patterns by estimating and comparing the price elasticity and cross elasticity of each of the various tourist products at the same time.

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OVER–TOURISM’S SOCIAL COST –BENEFIT AND PUBLIC POLICY: A CASE STUDY OF UDO ISLAND AND ITS VEHICLE RESTRICTION POLICY, REPUBLIC OF KOREA

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INTRODUCTION

‘Over-tourism’ has emerged as a global issue, with tourism growth having a profound impact on local communities. Typical examples cited as over-tourism regions are: Venice, Barcelona and Boracay. The negative effects of garbage, noise, and traffic congestion are more than these regions can handle. In Republic of Korea (herein “ROK” or “South Korea”), over-tourism can be seen in Bukchon Hanok Village, Jeonju Hanok Village, Yeosu, and Udo Island, an island accessible from Jeju, Special Self-Governing Province (hereafter “Jeju Province”).

The issue of over-tourism is not restricted to congestion of the tourist’s visit alone. Local residents are also known to have been - displaced from their homes due to the rising prices and of commodities in these tourist areas, as well as the rising real estate values that are often side effects from the gentrification of these tourist areas. Even the local residents’ daily commodities are often replaced as shops start to cater more to the tourist’s commodity needs, such as souvenirs. As the damage to the local residential environment grows, the local people who are experiencing this as a daily phenomenon may start protesting, and develop a hatred towards tourists, commonly referred to as “tourism phobia” and even turn towards crime against these tourists. In recent years it is not only the local residents that are not wanting tourist visitations in excess, but the tourists themselves who have been trying to avoid these crowded tourism spots (Lee, 2018).

When considering the issue of over-tourism, the problems that arise often involve various stakeholders, each with their various interests which are determined by their respective economic, social

and political interests (Alvarez-Sousa, 2018). These various interests, which are often contradictory, are also the reason why it is difficult to draw a social consensus and arrive at a comprehensive solution when over-tourism related problems are incurred.

In order to decrease these conflicts which have arisen due to over-tourism, public sectors have started to establish and implement policies to control the over-tourism phenomenon. The WTTC (2017) developed and proposed a diagnostic index for over-tourism which can be adjusted and applied according to the region’s situation, with the intention to solve excessive congestion and promote sustainable tourism. For example, Barcelona, starting in 2015, transformed to follow a management-oriented tourism policy, rather than to seek ways in which to further promote their tourism attractions. In Venice, resident-oriented convenience policies are also being prepared, with policies being constructed in order to control the number of tourists per day.

As mentioned above, ROK is also in the process of experiencing this over-tourism phenomenon. This current paper examines the over-tourism phenomena occurring in Udo Island, of Jeju Island in South Korea. Among the many over-tourism phenomena occurring there, traffic accidents and traffic congestion have increased quite significantly. A policy was introduced to restrict the number of vehicles allowed on Udo island. However, even though the policy to restrict vehicle entry to the island was introduced in a timely manner, various conflicts arose among various society members, who were stakeholders in this for upholding and “policing” this policy.

In fact, the situation became such that the local merchants of Udo Island sued Jeju Province citing a loss of revenue which they would suffer due to the decrease in tourists expected from the

inconvenience of not being able to use a personal car on the island. Specifically, they filed a lawsuit against Jeju Special Self-Governing Province in July 2017, against the Vehicle Entry Restriction Policy in Udo Island asking for “the suspension of the execution of the car operation and traffic restriction order and the cancellation of the administrative order”. In April 2018, the court rejected this request (Kim, 2018.04.02.). In the process of this action however, the local residents had also expressed the opinion that the policy should be implemented because traffic congestion would be improved, and their everyday living convenience would be improved. Through this situation therefore, various stakeholders’ interests and opinions can be seen to have emerged, and often contradictory in nature.

This current study performs an economic cost-benefit analysis of the aforementioned vehicle entry restriction policy for Udo Island⁶). This vehicle entry restriction policy was implemented as a domestic policy to assist in coping with the over-tourism causing various negative impacts to the island. This study examines what the various stakeholders might gain and lose in this Vehicle Entry Restriction Policy aimed at diverting over-tourism on Udo Island, thereby assisting in creating to the body of literature in support of ‘Anti-over-tourism’ policy. Results from this study may provide insight into the appropriateness and necessity of Anti-over-tourism policy creation and implementation in other regions with similar conditions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Over-tourism

Over-tourism is a growing phenomenon attracting attention in the tourism field all over the

world. It is a compound word derived from the two words of ‘over’ and ‘tourism’, and is not recognized at present as an academic term. The term ‘over-tourism’ was first used on Twitter by Harold Goodwin who is a professor at Manchester Metropolitan University in 2012. It was used to acknowledge the problems being experienced in European cities such as Barcelona, Spain, and Venice, where tourism was being negatively affected (Goodwin, 2017). Since then, it has been frequently used in the media, and was even officially used at the UNWTO & WTM Ministerial Conference in 2017 (Park, 2018).

According to Goodwin (2017), over-tourism is the opposite of ‘Responsible Tourism’. It means that ‘the quality of life, or the quality of the experience in the area, has extremely deteriorated due to too many visitors to the area’. This negative phenomenon, caused by the plethora of tourist visitors, permits ‘over-tourism’ to be classified alongside of ‘tourist phobia’ and ‘touristification’ (Son. et al., 2018).

In a report of UNWTO, the main factors contribute to over-tourism are too many visitors, possibly aggravated by seasonality, too much adverse visitor impact and too much physical impact of the visitor economy (UNWTO et al, 2018, p5). The economic, environmental, and socio-cultural impacts considered when evaluating ‘sustainable tourism’ for a region are all negatively impacted in a community which has experienced ‘over-tourism’. Lee (2018) states that the media express this phenomenon can be identified through several terms, such as ‘over-tourism’, ‘overcrowding’, ‘infringement of local people's rights’, ‘touristification’, ‘tourist phobia’, and even ‘McDonald tourism’.

Table 1. Various “Over-tourism” terminologies used in media

Term	Terminology meaning
overcrowding	The population explosion which occurs when many people visit a limited space.
infringement of local people's rights	Tourists visit exceed the resident population of tourist spot which make daily life impossible for residents
touristification	The rise of disgust with tourists Local people have even posed a physical threat to tourists.
tourist phobia	An aversion to tourists; local people physically threaten to tourists
McDonald tourism	Overpopulation like McDonald's Hamburgers disturb their authentic tourism

Note: Researcher Summary based on the results of Lee(2018).

1) There are 1,817 residents living in Udo. The area of Udo is 6.18 km². The coastline of Udo is 19.8km long.

These phenomena not only impact negatively the local residents, they also deprive tourists from an authentic tour experience. Finally, over-tourism can be seen to have an adverse effect on both local residents and tourists at the same time (Brown, 2017).

The WTTC (2017) states ‘over-tourism’ occurs during high season and a specific time a day when tourists visit intensively. The symptoms or the impacts of over-tourism on the area due to the nature of the destination vary from region to region. It is necessary to actively manage this time, and to take measures and to intervene politically if necessary, for the development of sustainable tourism in the tourist region.

In addition, the rise of over-tourism as a failure of the tourism system and recognizes that there is a problem in inter-element interaction rather than a problem of elements of the tourism system (Alex, 2017). In other words, mutual efforts between the tourism subjects (“tourists”), the tourism objects (“attractions”), and media, are essential for sustainable and socially responsible development.

Over-tourism is not a problem that will disappear any time soon and it is a global phenomenon (Francis, 2017). As such critical discussion is needed to manage this emerging over-tourism phenomenon so that tourism can be sustainable (Alexis, 2017; Francis, 2017; UNWTO, 2017; UNWTO, 2018; WTTC, 2017).

Social Cost-Benefit Analysis in tourism

The cost-benefit analysis for determining public policies implementation is called social cost-benefit analysis. Because it should be carried out in view of the impact of society as a whole, unlike economic cost-benefit analysis conducted by individual firms (Kim, 2012; Boardman et al, 1998; Fuguitt & Wilcox, 1999; Keating, 2014; Seo, 2017).

Social cost-benefit analysis should take into account both the negative and positive impacts of public policies on society as a whole. Because the ultimate goal of public policy with regulatory characteristics is to realize social values such as human rights, safety, welfare, social protection, environmental protection, safety, quality of life, economic growth and employment (Renda. et al. 2013). Analyze quantifiable direct effects of policy implementation, as well as indirect effects that are difficult to quantify. Therefore, not only quantitative

analysis but also qualitative analysis is needed, and in recent years, various techniques have been developed to measure these social values (Seo, 2017).

Until now, study of social costs and benefits has mainly been done within the ecotourism sector. And as such, costs and benefits of conservation have been the object of measure within ecotourism.

The issue in social cost-benefit analysis is the social benefits that have been affected by the policy and the calculation of the effects of environmental improvements and so on. This improvement effect as social benefit is currently being considered as a benefit of reducing carbon emissions and has a system that can be used to assess the value of carbon per unit of value (Bianchini & Hewage, 2012; Cantuarias-Villesuzanne, et al. 2016; Kirkby, et al., 2010).

In order to measure the value of other benefits, the contingent valuation method is mainly used to derive the net benefit of the present value, thereby ensuring the feasibility of a policy.

The Vehicle Entry Restriction Policy in Udo, South Korea

Limiting vehicle entry is the dominant policy in South Korea used to respond to excess garbage, traffic congestion, destination congestion, and conflict between local residents and merchants due to over-tourism.

Jeju Province has established comprehensive measures for Udo, an island accessible only from Jeju, limiting the number of cars permitted to enter it to solve the traffic issue. Since the implementation of the policy Udo Love Cooperative Association, a community-based tourism organization, which was founded by local residents, has introduced 20 electric buses and 15 existing charter buses since January 2018 (Kim, 2018.07.06.)

In addition, Jeju province has already been actively cooperating with both public and private sectors to make the island carbonless and promote sustainable development, for more than a decade. The Udo Island policy to restrict the entry vehicles is not only serving as a policy to reduce traffic accidents, but also it serves as a goal to be recognized as a sustainable tourist destination where tourists and residents can coexist as a green island with no excess carbon emissions

METHOD

Prerequisites for analysis

In this study, the social costs and benefits that have been influenced by the policy was limited to Udo. The analysis period used for analyses was 18

years. Since the battery life cycle of the electric buses introduced on the Udo island is nine years, this study is assumed that they should be replaced once. The social discount rate and the inflation rate are 4.5% and 2%, respectively.

Table 2. Prerequisites for analysis

Item	Content
spatial extent	Udo-myeon ¹ , Jeju-si, Jeju-do, Republic of Korea
analysis period	2018 ~2035 (18 years) - Social Cost-benefit analysis based on 2018 when electric buses were introduced and operated - The battery warranty period is 9 years. - Assume that the battery is replaced once
Social cost-benefit subjects	Social cost-benefit subjects are government, local residents, local merchants, and tourists.
social discount rate	The social discount rate is 4.5% as the interest rate of the market for the agreed time of society(Korea Ministry of Strategy and Finance, 2017)
inflation rate	The consumer price index of 2% (The Bank of Korea, Dec. 2018) - For the calculation based on 2018 for the derived basic unit

Note: myeon means an administrative district

Analysis system

1) Effect itemization

This study analyzed the Cost and Benefit policy effect through interviews and data analysis of vehicle entry restriction policy to Udo and

determined that the stakeholders related to the costs and benefits within this paradigm were the public, local residents, local merchants, and tourists. This study determined the scope, quantification, and valuation on each item for these subjects.

Table 3. Itemization Effectiveness of Vehicle Entry Restriction Policy in Udo

Cost		Benefit	
Item	Subject	Item	Subject
Expenses for tourism activities other than transportation	Tourist	Tourism business revenue excluding transportation	Local residents
Motorcycle and tricycle rental fee	Tourist	Motorcycle and tricycle rental business revenue	Local residents
Electric bus fare	Tourist	Net income from electric bus operation	Local residents
Cost of purchasing electric buses	Government, Local residents ¹	Benefits of reducing environmental pollution costs	Tourist, Local residents
Charging facility maintenance cost	Local residents ¹ ,		
Bus operation maintenance cost	Local residents ¹		
social conflict	Local resident, Local merchant	Urban image improvement effect	Local residents
Motorcycle and tricycle traffic congestion	Tourist, Local residents, Local merchant	the benefits of reducing traffic congestion	Tourist, Local residents

Note: Local residents¹, who are involved in the purchase and maintenance of electric buses are residents of Udo Love Cooperative Association. Other local residents include residents who are not members of the union

In economic analysis there are PVNB (Present Value Net Benefit), B/C (Benefit/Cost) ratio, and IRR (Internal Rate of Return). However, when using the incremental cost-benefit ratio to determine an alternative priority in the B/C ratio, the result is the same as a net benefit. Also, in IRR, the Nth order equation is calculated according to a mathematical formula at an Nth time, so that the Nth result can be varied (Kim, 2012). Economic analysis can be intuitively examined through calculating the net benefit. In this study, only present value net benefit (PVNB) is used as an index for evaluating the economic efficiency.

2) Future population in Udo and tourism demand

The future population of Udo is estimated by applying the average proportion of Udo residents to Jeju residents from 2008 to 2017 gathered data (Jeju Special Self-Governing Province, 2017).

Udo's tourism has been undergoing change in tourism conditions as it learns to manage its over-tourism. Jeju Province's policy direction toward carbon-free islands has led to a regulatory policy of restricting vehicle entry rather than tourism development. This study reviews this policy. Therefore, this study did not try to estimate the

future tourism demand using theoretical forecasting models but estimated it by applying the ratio of the number of tourists to the number of tourists in Jeju (Jeju Tourism Organization, 2017) from the last 10 years from 2008 to 2017, which included the demand for Udo tourism after the policy was implemented.

In order to estimate the demand for tourists who use electric buses among the Udo tourists, the ratio of using electric buses among the tourists is calculated. Demand for the entry vehicle is based on the ratio of the number of vehicles to the number of tourists, but the results of the survey (Jeju Special Self-Governing Province, 2018.07.09.)⁷⁾ on the number of tourists and the number of vehicles during the same period before and after the recent policy implementation are assumed.

Jeju Province has set up a step-by-step plan to supply 40% of all vehicles as electric vehicles by 2022, with the plan to have 100% of all vehicles -electric vehicles by 2030. This is one of the strategies for realizing a carbon-free Jeju province island. Rental cars visiting Udo are expected to be 100% electric cars by 2030. As a result, the demand for future vehicles in Udo was divided into non-electric cars and electric cars.

Table 4. Demand Assumption

		2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
future residents (1 person)		1,817	1,857	1,894	1,923	1,950	1,975	2,000	2,023	2,046
future tourist (1,000 people)		2,040	2,141	2,246	2,345	2,440	2,534	2,623	2,711	2,795
the number of tourists using electric buses		780	792	831	868	903	937	971	1,003	1,034
number of vehicles	non-electric	57,967	57,645	57,100	56,108	54,751	49,251	43,150	36,478	29,259
	electric	18,305	22,418	26,871	31,561	36,501	45,463	54,919	64,849	75,238
		2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035
future residents (1 person)		2,067	2,088	2,107	2,125	2,143	2,159	2,174	2,188	2,200
future tourist (1,000 people)		2,878	2,959	3,038	3,115	3,191	3,265	3,338	3,411	3,482
the number of tourists using electric buses		1,065	1,095	1,124	1,152	1,181	1,208	1,235	1,262	1,288
number of vehicles	non-electric	21,517	13,272	4,542	-	-	-	-	-	-
	electric	86,069	97,330	109,010	116,442	119,277	122,063	124,803	127,503	130,165

7) The average percentage of tourists in Udo of the number of tourists in Jeju was 12.3% from 2008 to 2017, and only was 13% in 2017

FINDINGS

Social Benefit Analysis

The net profit for operating an electric bus, is that the operating cost of an electric bus was directly subtracted from the total tourist's expenditure. This was derived from excluding the operating and managing costs of electric buses after applying the monthly payment amount of \$4.4 (2018).

It is difficult to directly evaluate the economic value of the benefits. This is because the benefits to local residents and tourists are non-market goods that are not traded in the market.

Therefore, A questionnaire was used to determine to set up a virtual market about environmental change, the congestion reduction benefit due to traffic volume reduction was derived through the conditional value measurement, which is a method of directly estimating the amount of payment. The survey was designed in accordance with the CVM Guidelines Improvement Study to measure the conditional values (KDI, 2012).

A pretest was conducted on 10 graduate students at H University, and the distribution of the payment amount was confirmed to be \$1.7. Therefore, \$1.7 was selected and the dichotomous choice method was applied to determine the suggested amount. After allocating the selected amount to the respondents, they were asked to

answer 'yes' or 'no' as to their willingness to pay (WTP) a certain amount. As a result, the WTP for the local residents derived from 8 samples among local residents was \$1.1; the WTP of tourists derived from 20 samples of tourists was \$1.5.

Survey subjects were divided into local residents and tourists. The respondents were asked about the benefits by evaluating their satisfaction with the improvement of the quality of the air, improvement of the convenience of living such as traffic and parking, shortening of waiting time of the ship, reduction of traffic accidents, reduction of conflict between tourists and local people. Then, the questionnaire was organized in a way that the respondents paid for the environmental conservation fund to preserve the changed environment by the policy. A CVM (conditional valuation method) was conducted to estimate the indirect benefits for tourists and residents resulting from the policy.

The benefit from reducing environmental pollution was calculated by modifying⁸⁾ the air pollution costs of passenger cars proposed by the revised standard of the Guidelines, published by KDI (2008).

The air pollution costs of a passenger car are divided and proposed by the types and the speed. The maximum speed of a passenger car adopted in this study was 35km/h. Because a passenger car should be driven on the same roads with two-wheel or three-wheel vehicles in Udo.

Table 5. Social Benefit Items

Item	Benefit(\$1,000)	Period	beneficiary subject	Remark
net profit of electric bus operation	\$ 64,278	policy implementation period	Local residents (Udo Love Cooperative Association)	The electric bus fare is \$4.4 (2018)
traffic congestion reduction benefit	\$ 76,053	policy implementation period	Tourists, local residents, local merchants	WTP of Local residents is \$1.1, WTP of Local tourists is \$1.5
environmental pollution cost reduction benefit	\$220	policy implementation period	Tourists, local residents, local merchants	Applying 19.8km (Udo Circulation Road) to the calculation of air pollution cost for passenger cars

Table 6 shows the benefits to the environment by reducing traffic congestion, and the net profit in operating electric buses according

to the estimated future by year demand for each item.

8) Corrected unit cost of air pollution cost by car type and speed (Korea Development Institute, 2008) to 2018 price reflecting consumer price index

Table 6. Social Benefit Estimation

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
net profit of electric bus operation (\$1,000)	2,498.7	2,549.9	2,709.0	2,859.6	3,005.6	3,146.7	3,283.3	3,416.0	3,545.2
traffic congestion reduction benefit (\$1,000)	3,071.5	3,224.1	3,381.4	3,530.2	3,674.4	3,813.8	3,948.8	4,080.0	4,207.6
environmental pollution cost reduction benefit (\$1,000)	26.5	26.4	26.1	25.7	25.0	22.5	19.7	16.7	13.4
	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035
net profit of electric bus operation (\$1,000)	3671.0	3793.9	3914.0	4031.8	4147.3	4260.7	4372.4	4482.3	4590.8
traffic congestion reduction benefit (\$1,000)	4331.9	4453.3	4572.1	4688.4	4802.5	4914.6	5024.9	5133.6	5240.7
environmental pollution cost reduction benefit (\$1,000)	9.8	6.1	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Social Cost Analysis

The cost involved in the vehicle entry restriction policy can be said to be the purchasing cost for the electric buses by local residents of Udo Island's Cooperative Association (partially subsidized by government), sustaining vehicle maintenance expenses, and tourist's electric bus fare. The total cost from purchasing 20 electric buses, including subsidies from the government and local governments, amounted to \$0.24 million per vehicle.

Vehicle management costs include: the cost of replacing the battery, (which is about 30% of the vehicle cost after nine years, the battery warranty period), maintenance cost necessary for charging facilities, and bus operation. Yook's (Yook et al, 2017), vehicle maintenance cost was applied to the analysis.

Electric bus fares that are generated from tourists' expenditures, managed by Udo Love Cooperative Association, has become an income generator for local residents. Also, this item can be counted double because it can be deducted as an expense item under the electric bus maintenance expenses. This aspect is not calculated in the cost portion. In terms of benefits, the net profit from the electric bus operation, excluding the electric bus maintenance expenses, was calculated from the electric bus operation sales from the tourists' electric bus fare.

The greenhouse gas resulting from the production of electricity for the fuel for the electric buses is omitted. This is also a part of the cost towards environmental pollution, but was excluded from this current study, which limits the study's parameters to the island of Udo only.

Table 7. Social Cost Items

Item	Cost(\$1,000)	Period	burden subject	Remark	
electric bus purchase cost	\$4,779	First year	the central government, local government, and local residents (Udo Love Cooperative Association)	purchase 20 electric buses Excluding the cost of purchasing a charging facility (providing a salesperson)	
Electric bus fare	-	policy implementation period	Tourist	double counting	
Electric bus battery replacement fee	\$1,434	nine years from now	local residents (Udo love Cooperative Association)	30% of the cost of buying an electric bus, 20 buses	
Maintenance cost	Charging Facility	\$2,103	policy implementation period	local residents (Udo Love Cooperative Association)	Charging facility maintenance labor cost and maintenance cost
	Bus operation	\$16,493	policy implementation period	local residents (Udo Love Cooperative Association)	Bus driver's labor cost and maintenance cost

Note: Utilization of Udo Love Cooperative Association's interview data that the cost of electric bus maintenance cost is \$3.1 for 200km service

Social Cost-Benefit Analysis

The total benefit is the sum of the following calculations; the sum of the WTP for the maintenance of the residence, and tourism environment, due to the reduction of traffic congestion multiplied by residents and tourists respectively; the net profit from the electric bus operation; and the benefit from air pollution

reduction, due to vehicle entry limitation.

As a result of the above calculations, the benefit is estimated to be \$5.6 million for 2018, which is the year in which the policy was implemented. The benefit for 2035, which is the final year of review, is expected to gradually increase to \$9.8 million.

Table 8. Total social benefit by year

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Total Social Benefit (\$1,000)	5,596.7	5,800.3	6,116.5	6,415.5	6,705.1	6,983.0	7,251.9	7,512.7	7,766.1
	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035
Total Social Benefit (\$1,000)	8,012.8	8,253.3	8,488.2	8,720.1	8,949.7	9,175.3	9,397.3	9,615.9	9,831.5

The cost of purchasing 20 electric buses in 2018, the initial year of the vehicle entry restriction policy, was high. It was about \$5.7 million. After the initial calculations of merchandise, the costs for the management and maintenance of the charging facilities and the buses operation were calculated. It is estimated that the cost of a bus will be \$1.1

million in 2035 with the increase in electric bus service e and considering the change in tourist demand every year. However, in the eighth year (2026), it is estimated that the cost of replacing electric battery in the bus will incur an additional expenditure of the amount of \$2,464 per unit.

Table 9. Total social cost by year

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Total Social Cost (\$1,000)	5,731.4	956.4	968.4	979.7	990.7	1,001.3	1,011.5	1,021.5	2,464.8
	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035
Total Social Cost (\$1,000)	1,040.6	1,049.9	1,058.9	1,067.7	1,076.4	1,084.9	1,093.3	1,101.6	1,109.7

In order to evaluate the future value at the present day `value (because time itself has an effect of the value of the investment), the total benefit and the total cost are adjusted for the diminished

value of the investment of time (adjusted for a diminished value of 4.5%) by applying <Equation 1> and <Equation 2>.

$$B_i = \frac{B_{i0}}{(1+r)^0} + \frac{B_{i1}}{(1+r)^1} + \dots + \frac{B_{iT}}{(1+r)^T} = \sum_{i=0}^T \frac{B_{it}}{(1+r)^t} \dots\dots\dots < \text{Equation 1} >$$

$$C_j = \frac{C_{j0}}{(1+r)^0} + \frac{C_{j1}}{(1+r)^1} + \dots + \frac{C_{jT}}{(1+r)^T} = \sum_{i=0}^T \frac{C_{jt}}{(1+r)^t} \dots\dots\dots < \text{Equation 2} >$$

If the net present value method is applied to the net benefit by year, the net benefit for the first year, 2018, has a loss of \$0.1 million. However, if the first year 2018 is calculated from the standard

of 18 years, the net benefit continues to increase over time, except during the eighth year (2026), the year in which battery replacement is required.

Table 10. Total Present value net benefit by year

	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026
Net benefit (\$1,000)	-134.7	4,635.3	4,714.3	4,763.4	4,791.9	4,800.0	4,792.0	4,769.9	3,727.8
	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035
Net benefit (\$1,000)	4,691.6	4,638.5	4,577.9	4,512.3	4,442.7	4,368.6	4,290.8	4,210.1	4,126.9

CONCLUSION

This study used the vehicle restriction policy of Udo island in South Korea to perform economic feasibility analysis on the social cost-benefit of multiple stakeholders: government, local residents, local merchants, and tourist. Despite the fact that Udo's current policy is to restrict the entry of vehicles has been introduced in order to manage the problems caused by over-tourism in the region, conflicts among stakeholders in the region have evolved.

This study conducted an economic analysis to examine what each stakeholder could lose or gain from the policy's implementation. This study was able to show through analysis that in fact there is a net benefit derived from the vehicle restriction policy's implementation.

At the time this study was conducted, and the vehicle restriction policy implemented, there was a sudden drop in the number of tourists to Jeju Island. When examined closely however, this was not due to the policy itself, but rather to the geopolitical situation on the Korean peninsula at the time, as the number of Chinese tourists to Jeju decreased due to the THAAD⁹⁾ issue effecting the peninsula. Therefore in 2017, the decline in the number of tourists to Udo Island cannot be held accountable for this. Udo can only be accessed from Jeju Island. Even though tourists might experience some inconvenience due to the vehicle restriction policy of Udo Island, it cannot be said to significantly influence their decision to visit. However, it is believed that the number of vehicles entering Udo has greatly decreased since implementation of the vehicle restriction policy, thus achieving the first goal of the policy.

Even though tourists are likely to pursue convenience, they can embrace systems based on

the values for sustaining a sound economic, environmental, and socio-cultural areas, contrary to the concern of local merchants who were suing the government and implying their decreased revenue was due to the vehicle restriction policy not being convenient for tourists. The analysis results from this study show that those who oppose the vehicle restriction policy for the convenience of tourists, and hence revenue generation, are in fact not persuasive. These policies are even more valuable to tourists than to the local residents because the tourists are shown to support these policies, even despite their personal inconvenience.

The value of Anti-over-tourism policy was measured for local residents and tourists to derive environmental benefits that could arise from policy implementation through CVM analysis. Through this, this study was able to discover the possibility of areas where locals and tourists could coexist.

The policy of limiting the entry of vehicles, initially introduced to eliminate the visible effect of too many cars and the look of 'over-tourism', in fact have the added benefit of reducing air pollution as well, and aiding Jeju Island to become a carbonless island.

Over-tourism should be always considered in the managed of a region's tourism development and kept in mind as a target to avoid in a region's tourism growth (WTO, 2017). An authentic management policy for the sustainability of the region should always be promoted. Social conflicts that arise from various stakeholder interests due to a policy's implementation can be mitigated gradually if long-term analysis is permitted.

Finally, according to the results of the cost-benefit analysis of this study, the net present value benefit will be \$4.6 million from 2019 after the implementation of the policy in 2018, and the net benefit will reach \$4.1 million in 2035 after

⁹⁾In 2017, the number of Chinese tourists visiting Korea dropped sharply due to China's economic retaliation against the decision to deploy THAAD (missile defense system) on the Korean Peninsula.

18-year period of policy implementation period respectively. As a result, the net benefit will continue to be around \$4.2 million from the year following the implementation of the policy. Therefore, this study concludes that the policy of restricting entry of vehicles is very economical.

For future study, a more sophisticated forecasting model design is needed which can calculate various demand estimates that might not have been considered in this current study. Further analysis of this policy may look at supplementing the current research methodology. Currently there are very few studies with surveys that estimate WTP. The current study may assist to contribute to the body of literature available in this area for future studies by other researchers in other regions concerned with similar policy implementations with regards to over-tourism.

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VISITORS' MOTIVES FOR ATTENDING HEALTHY FOOD EXHIBITIONS

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INTRODUCTION

The exhibition sector has largely and rapidly developed in the tourism industry (Oppermann, 1996). This sector has great value and contribution to the promotion of the national economy (Bauer, Lambert, & Hutchison, 2001). Exhibitions provide investments and business opportunities for companies or organizations (Nayak & Bhalla, 2016). The Tourism industry spends a huge amount of money on exhibitions to attract people to purchase tourism products or services (Pizam, 1990). Exhibitions provide customers with a platform to access a wide range of product information on a large scale. Companies or organizations can promote products and increase their brand awareness and image in a relatively short period through exhibitions (Lee, Yeung, & Dewald, 2010). For instance, exhibitions can help healthy food companies connect with potential customers.

According to Means-end theory, product attributes help customers achieve the desires, such as happiness, safety or satisfaction (Gutman, 1982). Recently, people are increasingly concerned about the relationship between food and health. Food selection criteria have also shifted from nutrition, taste, and price to health (Kim, Han, & Kim, 2010). Kim et al. (2010) found that Korean people have a high intake rate of healthy food. The increasing information about healthy food has driven customers' purchase interest (Kim, Kim, & Lee, 2006). In this healthy food consuming environment, people pay more attention to the expected pleasure of health benefits than taste (Hur & Jang, 2015). As efficient and cost-effective communication places (Lee et al., 2010), healthy food exhibitions display low-fat, low-calorie, health-benefit and organic food etc. (Bauer, Heinrich, & Schäfer, 2013; Jun, Kang, & Arendt, 2014), and offer food service industries with opportunities to present products directly to customers.

Visitors' motives refer to attendance desires to see the expected products or services at the exhibitions (Lee et al., 2010; Tanner, Chonko, & Ponzurick, 2001). Bauer et al. (2013) categorized four dimensions of healthy food purchase motives, and they found that organic labels can influence consumers' perceptions as their major purchase motives of global, local and private brands.

Visitors have various values for buying and learning activities (Tanner et al., 2001), their motives for attending exhibitions are different. Understanding visitors' motives at the exhibitions are important because they help exhibitors meet these demands (Godar & O'connor, 2001). Furthermore, the demand-based approach facilitates exhibitors to influence visitors' purchase intention (Lee et al., 2010). Visitors' satisfaction occurs after attending exhibitions, so understanding motives can help monitor satisfaction (Crompton & McKay, 1997).

The satisfactory experience of the participants during the visit to the exhibitions also brings them good memories (Lee & Kim, 2018; Oh, Fiore, & Jeung, 2007). The memory refers to "remembering a particular event" (Oh et al., 2007, p. 123). Good memory can help visitors form positive attitudes toward events (Oh et al., 2007). Researchers have investigated the antecedents of shaping memory in the exhibition field (Ahn, Hyun, & Kim, 2017; Anderson & Shimizu, 2007).

Visitors' motives for the exhibitions have been investigated in various studies, such as trade exhibitions (Yi, Fu, Jin, & Okumus, 2018), handicraft exhibitions (Nayak & Bhalla, 2016) and consumer travel exhibitions (Rittichainuwat & Mair, 2012). It is important to know which motives can influence people's participation in healthy food exhibitions. However, few studies have focused on visitors' motives in the context of healthy food exhibitions. Research in this area is scarce. To identify visitors' motives, this study

proposes a conceptual model to enhance the knowledge from visitors' motives for healthy food exhibitions in South Korea. To this end, a field survey of visitors' motives can help healthy food marketers develop strategies to attract visitors. This study explores whether (1) visitors' motives are comprised of four dimensions; (2) visitors' motives influence satisfaction; and (3) satisfaction affects memory.

METHOD

Design and sample. We employed the instrument of visitors' motives from Bauer et al. (2013). Three items to measure satisfaction were slightly modified for the exhibition industry from scales employed by Back and Parks (2003) and Kim and Ok (2010). Memory was measured with three items from Oh et al. (2007)'s study. Respondents

were 363 visitors who participated at the 22nd Busan International Food Expo, South Korea. The 22nd Busan International Food Expo was held at Busan Exhibition and Convention Center from June 16th to June 20th, 2015. More than 350 companies from 15 countries displayed various foods and products at this Expo (The Busan Ilbo, 2015).

Procedure and measures. Independent variables include four dimensions of visitors' motives including perceived healthiness, perceived hedonism, perceived environmental friendliness, and perceived food safety; dependent variables are satisfaction and memory. We used structural equation modeling (SEM) to confirm the reliability and validity of measurements and constructs and verify the relationships among the variables mentioned above. The study proposed a research model shown in Figure 1.

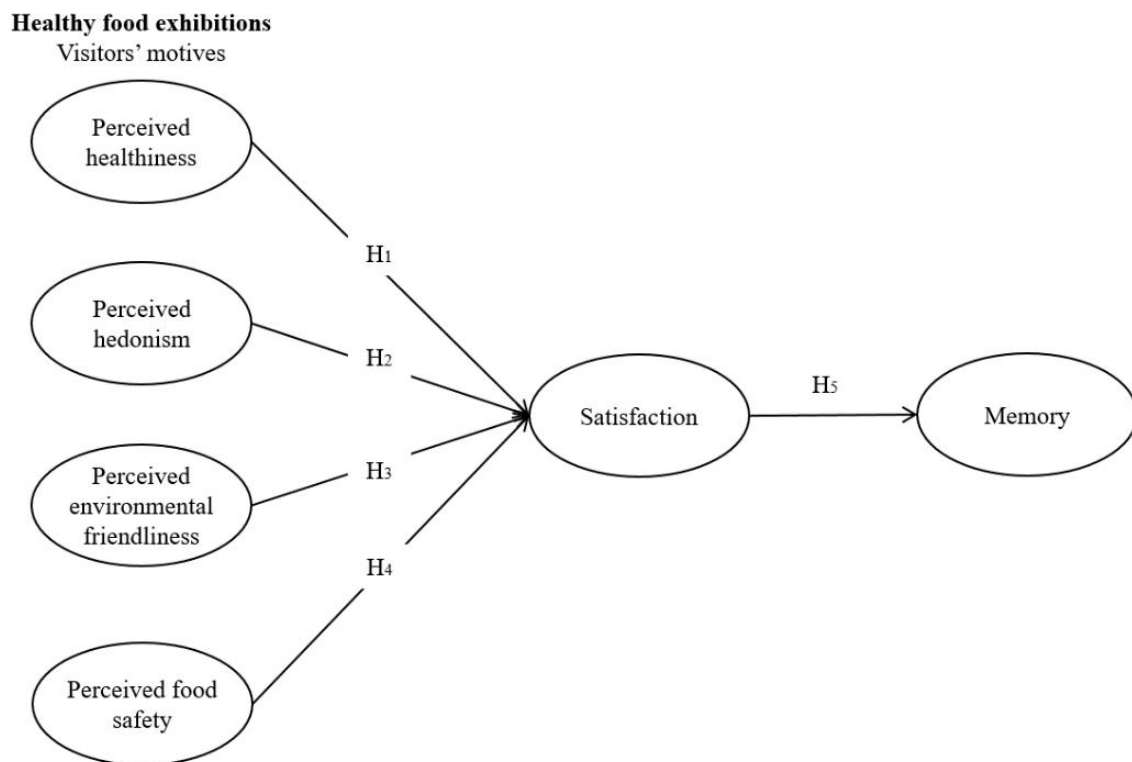


Figure 1. The Proposed Research Model

FINDINGS

As presented in Table 1, perceived healthiness, perceived hedonism, and perceived food safety had significant positive effects on satisfaction (standardized coefficient (β) = 0.160,

* $p = 0.043$; 0.561, ** $p < 0.01$; 0.140, * $p = 0.030$, respectively), supporting H₁, H₂, H₄, but H₃ was not supported. The fifth (H₅) hypothesis was supported that visitors' satisfaction has a positive effect on memory ($\beta = 0.796$, ** $p < .01$).

Table 1. Relationships among Visitors' Motives, Satisfaction, and Memory

Paths	Effect (β)	Hypotheses
Effect of perceived healthiness on satisfaction	0.160*	H1: Supported
Effect of perceived hedonism on satisfaction	0.561**	H2: Supported
Effect of perceived environmental friendliness on satisfaction	0.065	H3: Not supported
Effect of perceived food safety on satisfaction	0.140*	H4: Supported
Effect of satisfaction on memory	0.796**	H5: Supported

Notes: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

CONCLUSION

This study contributes to testing a conceptual model to examine the relationships between visitors' motives, satisfaction, and memory of exhibitions visitors. Few studies have investigated the visitors' motives in healthy food exhibitions, this study bridges the gap in the literature by proposing and verifying a theoretical model. The findings have several implications. First, the results confirm that the visitors' motives have four dimensions: perceived healthiness, perceived hedonism, perceived environmental friendliness, and perceived food safety. As such, our findings contribute to visitors' motives research in healthy food exhibitions by verifying the multidimensional dimensions of visitors' motives.

Second, the results indicated that visitors' motives can have positive impacts on satisfaction, supporting the previous study (Lee, Lee, & Wicks, 2004). The findings suggest that visitors' motives are important antecedents of predicting visitors' satisfaction. Unexpectedly, perceived environmental friendliness had no influence on visitors' satisfaction. Perhaps visitors believe that environmentally friendly products may not bring contentment related to body or mind to them. Exhibitors can promote healthy food through the following suggestions. When refers to perceived healthiness, exhibitors need to strengthen the health benefits to the body brought by healthy food products. For example, some healthy food can improve sleep or relieve acne. For perceived hedonism, exhibitors need to point out that eating healthy food can lead to a healthier lifestyle, thus enhancing well-being. For instance, eating unhealthy food may make people feel anxious which is harmful to mental. And healthy food has no such concerns. As people become more concerned about

food safety, exhibitors can let visitors know that their products are pollution-free, chemical-free, and pesticide-free.

Third, this study provides new insights into memory in healthy food exhibitions. Although scholars pointed out in the 1990s that a better understanding of memory helps to effectively design and organize exhibitions (Bitgood, 1994). Relatively few studies explore the memory in the exhibition sector. The result suggests that exhibitors can enhance visitors' attitude towards the product by providing them with good memories. For example, exhibitors can increase the participation of visitors by offering souvenirs, free samples, games, product experience (foretaste, product production process, hands-on opportunity, etc.) and other activities. This interactive process helps visitors form vivid memories related to the products.

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THE EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED VALUE AND TRAVEL EXPERIENCE ON REVISIT INTENTION: THE CASE OF VIETNAMESE INDEPENDENT TRAVELERS

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INTRODUCTION

Vietnam is one of the faster developing outbound market in Southeast Asia. According to data from the UNWTO and WTTC, outbound tourism in Vietnam is growing rapidly. Choosing outbound tours has become a trend in Vietnam as local people's incomes increase and their consumption habits are changing. Rising overseas travel is a result of smooth economic development and an expanding middle class (Victor, 2018). The number of outbound travelers from Vietnam was projected to reach approximately 7.5 million trips in 2021, up from an estimation of about 4.8 million in 2016. Meanwhile, the New Southbound Policy that Taiwan launched in 2016 aimed at building comprehensive partnership with ASEAN, South Asia, Australia, and New Zealand by promoting regional exchanges and collaboration. A breakdown of the figures reveals that with the exception of Nepal, visitor arrivals from the 17 other New Southbound Policy countries posted gains in November. Cambodia, Bangladesh, Thailand and Vietnam led the way with growth of 288.6 percent, 102.7 percent, 98.8 percent and 93.2 percent, respectively (Taiwan today, 2017).

A continuing trend in international tourism is the growth of independent travel and the relative decline in package travel (Chesshyre 2002; Pryor 2001; Scutte 1997). Poon (1993) suggests that changing demographics and lifestyles have resulted in greater demand for choice and flexibility in vacations. Poon describes a growing group of new tourists, "consumers who are flexible, independent, and experienced travelers, whose values and lifestyle are different from those of the mass tourists" (p. 114). They adopted a self-organized travel mode, arranged travel itineraries and activities

on their own, more or less without help from a tourism intermediary, and travelled alone or in small groups. These tourists are defined as independent travelers in this study. There has been an accumulation of academic research on independent tourists regarding to their motivations, decision-making processes, information collection patterns, consumption and other aspects (Andersen, Prentice, & Watanabe, 2000; Caruana, Crane, & Fitchett, 2008; Hsieh, O'Leary, & Morrison, 1993; Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison, 1994; Hyde & Lawson, 2003; Sheldon & Mak, 1987). However, such research on Asian independent travelers hardly having light shed upon them. Thus, This study examines Vietnamese independent travelers' perceptions of Taiwan as a travel destination. As a whole, this study verifies whether revisit intention is affected differently by their perceived value and travel experience. Also, this study investigate how the well-being acts as mediator in the relationship of perceived value and travel experience to revisit intention.

METHODS

The study was conducted as a self-administered field survey. A structured questionnaire was designed and distributed both on-line and paper. People were invited either by via email, social media (Facebook, TripAdvisor, tweeter, etc.) or by approachable face-to-face survey at travel agents to complete questionnaire. The questionnaire was composed of five sections. The first section aimed to understand each respondent's personal background and demographics. The later section measured respondent agreement about each construct in the research model. All items were assessed using seven-point Likert scales from 1 =

“to a very little extent” to 7 = “to a great extent.” The data collection instrument was based on existing scales. The questions were further refined in Vietnamese and tested on a group of 5 academics and 30 practitioners. All items were translated from Chinese to Vietnamese. A total of 337 respondents were generated for data analysis. About 54% of respondents were female travelers. The 19-25 year old age group had the largest proportion at 43.6% (n = 147). 61.7% were holders of a university degree. Most of them are not married yet. Among the respondents, freelance had the greatest number at 30.6%, followed by those working class at 23.7%. Regarding to income, Nearly 45% had an average monthly income of 500-700 USD. Regarding to their travel behavior, about half (49.3%) of respondents were the first time to visit Taiwan, and 41.5% stayed in Taiwan for 4-6 days. The purpose of visit Taiwan for majority of respondents (81.9%) is for sightseeing.

The results indicate that perceived value can explain the variance of 47.7% of subjective well-being, $F=305.39$, $B= .691$, $p < .000$, indicating that perceived value had a significant effect on subjective well-being. Travel experience can explain the variance of 54.6% of revisit intention, $F=403.35$, $B= .739$, $p < .000$, indicating that travel experience had a significant effect on revisit intention. Subjective well-being explains 62.1% of the variance in revisit intention, $F= 549.17$, $B= .788$, $p < .000$. In addition, after adding the mediating variable of subjective well-being in Model 2, the path analysis results (Baron & Jenny, 1986) showed that the previously significant relationship between perceived value and revisit intention remained significant ($B= .644$, $p < .000$). Additionally, the level of the mediating effect of each proposed mediator was examined and to see whether it is a partial, or a complete mediator. In this sense, Sobel test is such an example of method used in this analysis. The Sobel (1982) procedure was then used to statistically investigate the effect of the proposed mediator on the predictor–outcome relationship. A Sobel test was conducted and found partial mediation in the model ($z=7.536$, $p < .001$), indicating that subjective well-being partial mediated the relationship between perceived value and revisit intention. perceived value was associated with approximately .48 points higher intention

scores as mediated by subjective well-being positively.

Findings show that Vietnamese independent tourists’ well-being has a significant, positive impact on their intention to return. Most importantly, an indirect-only mediation of well-being on the relationship between both perceived value and tourist experience and behavioral outcomes was found. These findings underline that tourist well-being acts as a crucial driving force for tourists’ behavioral intentions. Both perceived value and travel experience will impact tourists’ intention to revisit only if they reach a state of well-being during their trip. An integrated view of the results can provide important considerations for tourism research and fruitful suggestions for Taiwan destination management organizations.

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TO EAT OR NOT TO EAT? AN INVESTIGATION OF CURRENT STATUS AND FACTORS INFLUENCING UGLY FOOD CONSUMPTION IN THE UNITED STATES

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INTRODUCTION

Food waste is a serious issue in the United States. In 2018, American consumers wasted an estimated 300 million pounds of food per day, which required approximately 30 million acres of land and 4.2 trillion gallons of irrigation water to grow (Conrad et al., 2018; Diebel, 2018). Such waste has significant consequences on society, including food insecurity and environmental and economic impacts (LeBlanc, 2018). Recovering and redistributing food to people in need before it is wasted could help relieve hunger by eliminating food insecurity, reducing greenhouse gas emissions equivalent to 37 million cars, and saving \$218 billion dollars (Balkan & Spacht, 2018; LeBlanc, 2018).

Among the wasted food, around six billion pounds of edible fruits and vegetables never make it to consumers' kitchens because they are "ugly" and fail to satisfy retailers' cosmetic standards (e.g., too varied, too misshapen, discoloration; Royte, 2016). Ugly (imperfect/suboptimal) foods deviate from normal appearance or cosmetic standards in terms of their size (e.g., too small, too big, too varied), asymmetry (e.g., too misshapen), scarring (e.g., too many marks on the skin/peel), uncommonness (edible but consumers are unfamiliar with it; e.g., broccoli leaves), and/or discoloration (e.g., too different from the average color; Imperfect Produce, n.d.-a). These ugly fruits or vegetables have the same nutritional quality and taste as regular produce (Imperfect Produce, n.d.-b), but are usually 30%–50% cheaper than regular produce on average (Shain, 2018).

European countries such as France and the United Kingdom launched campaigns to promote ugly food in supermarkets in early 2014, echoing the European Union's movement against food waste (Godoy, 2014). However, in the United States, similar campaigns are rare. In fact, the retail chain Kroger is currently planning to introduce an ugly produce brand in 2019 (Redman, 2018), lagging far behind their European counterparts. To help reduce food waste by successfully promoting ugly food consumption in the United States, it is important to understand consumers' awareness of food waste caused by ugly foods and key factors that may influence their purchase intention of ugly food.

Using various food choice models, the current study aims to identify factors influencing consumers' ugly food purchase intentions. The food choice process model (Furst et al., 1996) claims that monetary consideration (i.e., price of the product) is a primary factor in individuals' personal system that influences consumption behavior. Consumers who consider low price (i.e., price-conscious) as essential are more likely to purchase products at discount prices (Palazón & Delgado, 2009). Ugly food is sold at lower-than-market prices, so price-conscious consumers are more likely to be motivated to choose such produce. The environment identity model (Stets & Biga, 2003) proposed that people who identify themselves as pro-environment are more likely to engage in environmentally friendly behaviors. Consuming ugly food helps reduce food waste and the subsequent negative impacts on the environment, so people with a pro-environmental

self-identity are more likely to purchase ugly food. As suggested in the total food quality model (Grunert et al., 1996), consumers use intrinsic cues (e.g., characteristics of physical appearance, sensory perceptions such as taste) to make quality inference and purchase decisions. Ugly food is unappealing from the outside and may have an unpleasant sensory perception, thereby demotivating consumers to try these items. Food availability is another factor in the food choice process model (Furst et al., 1996) that is contextual in determining food purchase. The limited accessibility of ugly produce in grocery stores and online retailers cannot be controlled by the consumers and may therefore demotivate consumers from buying it.

The specific objectives of this paper are to (1) investigate the current status of ugly food awareness and consumption in the United States and (2) develop a model to disclose factors that drive or hinder consumers' willingness to purchase ugly fruits and vegetables.

METHOD

Based on previous research, an online survey questionnaire was created and distributed to randomly selected Amazon Mechanical Turk users in the United States. Questions on (1) background information, (2) price consciousness, (3) pro-environment identity, (4) physical appearance of the ugly food, (5) perceived sensory appeal, (6) unavailability of the produce, (7) attitudes toward ugly food, (8) purchase intention, (9) ugly food awareness, and (10) demographics were asked. Definitions as well as images of ugly fruits and vegetables were shown at the beginning of the survey. All items of the major constructs were measured using a 7-point Likert scale. A total of 433 valid responses were obtained for analysis. Descriptive statistics regarding the awareness and consumption status of ugly food were summarized. The proposed model was then tested using Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two-step approach. Confirmation factor analysis (CFA) as well as reliability and validity checks was conducted to evaluate the measurement model initially, and path analysis using robust maximum likelihood estimation (MLR) in Mplus was used to test the proposed model.

FINDINGS

Current Status of Ugly Food Consumption

The summary of the descriptive statistics revealed that the majority of participants had heard of ugly food (72.1%), but most had never purchased any (55.4%). In terms of ugly food awareness, more than two-thirds (68.4%) of participants were not aware that six billion pounds of edible ugly fruits and vegetables were wasted each year. Among those participants who had purchased ugly food, around 70% of them were younger than 40 years old. Slightly more males (55.44%) than females had purchased ugly produce.

CFA & SEM Results

The CFA indicated that data fit the measurement model well ($\chi^2=658.942$, $df=278$, $\chi^2/df=2.370$, CFI=.955, TLI=.948, RMSEA=.056, SRMR=.040). Composite reliability scores were all above 0.8. Convergent validity results were evaluated using standardized factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE). All standardized factor loadings exceeded 0.7, and AVEs were above the 0.5 threshold. The constructs' discriminant validity was assessed by comparing AVEs with squared correlations. The squared correlations between each pairs of constructs were lower than AVEs. Thus, the constructs' reliability and validity were verified. Results of the structural path model (SEM) are summarized in figure 1. The model fit indices revealed that the proposed model fit the data well ($\chi^2=679.923$, $df=283$, $\chi^2/df=2.403$, CFI=.953, TLI=.946, RMSEA=.057, SRMR=.046). Analysis of the path model indicated that consumers' price consciousness (PC) and pro-environmental (PE) identity had a significant positive effect on attitudes (ATT) toward the ugly food (PC: $\gamma=.141$, $t=3.292$, $p=.001$; PE: $\gamma=.209$, $t=4.835$, $p<.001$). As expected, physical appearance (PA) negatively influenced consumers' attitudes toward ugly food ($\gamma=-.434$, $t=-5.126$, $p<.001$). However, although perceived sensory appeal (SA) exerted a negative effect on attitudes, the relationship was not significant ($\gamma=-.085$, $t=-0.913$, $p=.361$). Moreover, the result revealed that unavailability (UA) of ugly food had a significant positive influence on attitudes ($\gamma=.132$, $t=3.208$, $p=.001$). Consumers' attitudes toward ugly food had a strong positive influence on purchase intention ($\beta=.835$, $t=34.170$, $p<.001$).

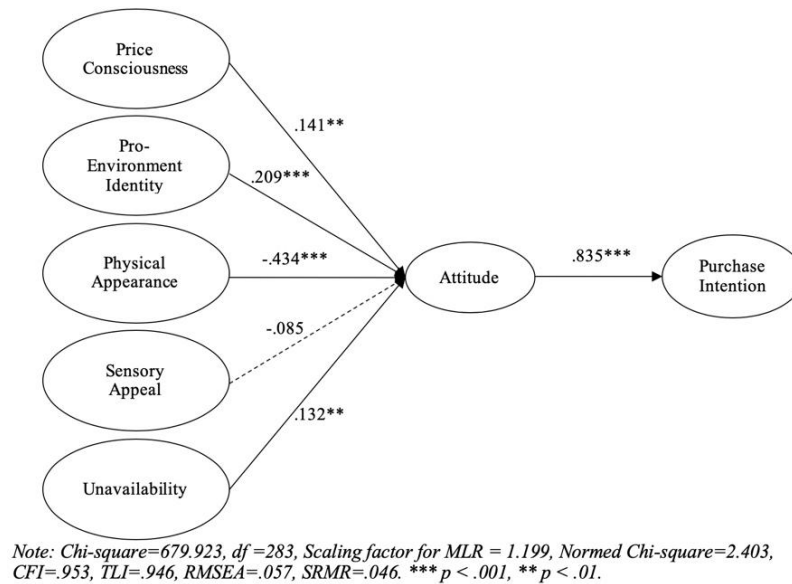


Figure 1. SEM Result

CONCLUSION

Exploratory analysis of the current status and awareness of ugly food consumption revealed that, although most people had heard of ugly food, they had never purchased it. Many consumers never even realized that an astonishing amount of edible produce was wasted just for being “ugly.” This finding highlights the urgent issue of food waste in the United States. Industry professionals should take steps to inform consumers that this produce is ugly outside, but as beautiful as all other normal looking food inside.

An investigation into the motivation factors that influence consumers to choose ugly food revealed that it is usually sold at lower market prices, so price-conscious consumers are more likely to have a positive attitude toward the produce and, consequently, a higher purchase intention, showing the selfish side of individual motivation to consume ugly food. Eating ugly food also helps reduce food waste and minimize environmental impacts, so pro-environment consumers are in favor of ugly produce, showing the altruism side of personal motivation to consume ugly food. The coexistence of these two individual factors formed a “selfish altruism” motivation (Miller, 2003, p. 18), revealing that consumers would like to purchase ugly fruits and vegetables to benefit not only themselves, but also others. Another interesting finding of this paper is that the limited accessibility of ugly food in

grocery stores does not stimulate consumers’ negative attitude toward the produce. Instead, such unavailability arouses consumers’ positive attitude. This phenomenon can be probably explained by food neophilia (Kim et al., 2009) or novelty seeking. For most consumers, ugly food may be new to them because grocery stores only shelve normal looking farm produce. Curiosity about ugly produce may elicit a non-negative first impression, making consumers willing to try the produce.

This paper contributed to understanding consumer motivations toward ugly food consumption in the United States. By discovering factors that motivate and hinder ugly food purchases, this study provides insights into strategies for promoting or selling ugly foods in grocery stores and online. The findings could also help reduce a significant amount of food waste by promoting the purchase of edible “ugly” foods.

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MR. POTATO HEAD FIGHTS FOOD WASTE: INVESTIGATING THE ROLE OF ANTHROPOMORPHISM IN PROMOTING UGLY FOOD

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INTRODUCTION

In the United States, a great amount of fresh, edible fruits, and vegetables end up in landfills instead of on consumers' tables (Grewal, Hmurovic, Lamberton, & Reczek, 2018), not only generating millions of pounds of waste and billions of lost revenue dollars, but also leading to a heavy toll on our environment and natural resources due to methane emissions, the waste of irrigation water supplies, and the misuse of farmland (Gunders, 2012). More importantly, it is estimated that 805 million people worldwide still suffer from chronic hunger (Sharma, Dwivedi, & Singh, 2016). Therefore, preventing food from being wasted would not only benefit our climate and natural resources, but also contribute to food security.

Ugly foods, also called imperfect foods or oddly shaped foods, have the same nutritional quality and taste as those of regular produce (Imperfect Produce, n.d.). Unfortunately, about six billion pounds of edible ugly foods (e.g., vegetables and fruits) are being abandoned simply because they fail to satisfy retailers' cosmetic standards. As wasting food regularly leads to severe consequences, food industry professionals should help promote the consumption of ugly food through effective advertisements. This study aims to identify effective ways to promote ugly food consumption by analyzing the relative persuasiveness of advertisements in terms of three variables: anthropomorphism (i.e., anthropomorphic vs. non-anthropomorphic), temporal framing (i.e., near future vs. distant future), and message framing (i.e., loss vs. gain).

As a powerful marketing tool,

anthropomorphism has been widely used in the market. Anthropomorphism is defined as "the tendency to imbue nonhuman objects with human-like characteristics, intentions, and behavior" (Epley, Waytz, & Cacioppo, 2007, p. 864). In advertising, anthropomorphism has been widely and successfully used as a marketing tactic (Root, Douglas, Smith, & Verissimo, 2013). Previous studies have demonstrated that anthropomorphism positively predicts consumer purchase behavior due to the fact that anthropomorphized products help elicit higher moral care and trust (Waytz, Cacioppo, & Epley, 2010). Furthermore, anthropomorphism is effective in encouraging behavior related to environmental protection (Tam, Lee, & Chao, 2013). Based on these previous findings, the present study investigates how anthropomorphism influences consumers' intentions to purchase ugly food in a retail setting.

This study also examines the influence of different message framings and the joint effect of message framing and anthropomorphism on consumers' purchase intention toward the ugly food. Previous literature has suggested that temporal proximity heightens individuals' sensitivity to potential impediments and negative outcomes (Higgins, 1998; Mogilner, Aaker, & Pennington, 2007). By employing the construal level theory (Lieberman & Trope, 1998), this study predicts that differently framed advertisement messages (i.e., loss vs. gain) might be interpreted differently based on customers' perceived temporal distance (i.e., near future vs. distant future) from the advantages of purchasing ugly food. For instance, a message describing the loss (e.g., wasted ugly food

deteriorating in landfills) due to not buying ugly food may lead to a higher purchase intention when matched with the immediate future consequences, whereas a message offering hope regarding a positive outcome may appeal more when matched with the distant future benefits of purchasing ugly food. However, due to the aforementioned influence of anthropomorphism, this matching effect (i.e., between temporal distance and gain/loss message frame) may be more salient for anthropomorphic advertisements than for non-anthropomorphic advertisements.

In summary, the purposes of this study are four-folded: (1) investigate the effect of anthropomorphism on participants' purchase intention toward the ugly food; (2) confirm the matching effects between loss/gain message and temporal distance on participants' purchase intention in a context of ugly food; and (3) identify whether the matching effects between loss/gain message frame and temporal distance on participants' purchase intention differ depending on whether the advertisement is anthropomorphic.

The findings of the present study can offer insightful strategies for advertisers who expect to create persuasive advertisements to promote the sale of ugly food. It contributes to the development of more sophisticated message framing strategies for ugly food promotion by presenting the relative effectiveness of a message in terms of eliciting purchase intention toward the ugly food advertised.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Anthropomorphism

Anthropomorphism is defined as the attribution of human characteristics in inanimate objects, animals, and others (Duffy, 2003). Furthermore, anthropomorphic merchandise refers to those products that feature humanized factors through design, interaction, intelligence, responsiveness, and personality (Mourey, Olson, & Yoon, 2017). Marketers often strategically integrate human traits and personalities into brands, and such anthropomorphized brands effectively predict consumers' favorable evaluations toward the products due to people's tendency to perceive humanlike factors in nonhuman entities (Aggarwal & McGill, 2007; Epley, Waytz, & Cacioppo, 2007).

Mourey et al. (2017) provided several existing examples that have succeeded in the market. Examples include the car named Brad in the Liberty Mutual commercial and the talking agents Cortana (Microsoft), Siri (Apple), and Alexa (Amazon). Similarly, as one of the long-existing attempts for promoting food, a speaking character in advertising has been widely adopted by food firms. The examples provided by Delbaere, McQuarrie, and Phillips (2011) include Mr. Peanut, the Pillsbury Doughboy, and the M&M chocolate candy characters.

These successful marketing cases are supported by findings in previous studies. Individuals' purchase intention toward the products can be triggered by moral care and trust (Dean, Raats, & Shepherd, 2008; Chang & Chen, 2008), which are caused by the anthropomorphic factors involved in the advertising strategies (Waytz et al., 2010; Waytz, Heafner, & Epley, 2014). To explain the mechanism behind the effect of anthropomorphism on moral care, Riek, Rabinowitch, Chakrabarti, and Robinson (2009) introduced the simulation theory, which demonstrates that people tend to mentally simulate other agents in order to understand the status of their mentality and emotions. Therefore, when individuals experience non-human entities that are featured with anthropomorphic factors, they may attempt to understand the entities' mentality and emotions in a form of greater moral care or trust, which in turn leads to greater purchase intention (Loebnitz, Schuitema, & Grunert, 2015).

Ugly food or imperfect food is defined as those produce that deviate from regular produce in terms of weight, size, and shape (Hooge et al., 2016; Bunn, Feenstra, Lynch, & Sommer, 1990). Even though a number of previous studies have investigated the reasons that consumers choose not to purchase ugly foods (e.g., Hooge et al., 2016; Loebnitz et al., 2015; Bunn et al., 1990), few studies have investigated the role of advertising in promoting ugly food, even fewer studies have explored any effective advertising strategies in a perspective of anthropomorphism. Nevertheless, based on the features of anthropomorphism, when ugly food is anthropomorphized in advertisement, viewers tend to perceive a higher similarity of the ugly food to themselves, and in turn attempt to understand the mentality and emotions of the

anthropomorphized ugly food. As a result, individuals elicit greater moral care or trust toward the ugly food and undertake actions to support this moral care or trust. Thus, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. Anthropomorphizing ugly food in advertisements will have a positive effect on consumers' purchase intention toward the ugly food.

Gain vs. Loss Message Frame

Tversky and Kahneman (1981) suggested that individuals will respond in different ways to a subjectively similar message depending on how the message is framed (i.e., gain or loss). Specifically, gain-focused messages highlight the positive outcomes by engaging in a particular behavior whereas loss-focused messages feature the negative consequences if a particular behavior is not undertaken (White, MacDonnell, & Dahl, 2011). According to previous studies, the role of message framing in behavioral intentions varies in different contexts. Loss-framed messages work effectively in the context of high risks (Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 2004), such as monetary outcomes (e.g., Tversky & Kahneman, 1981) and personal health issues (e.g., Meyerowitz & Chaiken, 1987; Rothman & Salovey, 1997). However, in the context of low risks, gain-framed messages are more persuasive (Meyers-Levy & Maheswaran, 2004). For example, gain-framed messages work more effectively on low-risk tasks, such as recycling intention (White et al., 2011) and purchasing green products (Chang, Zhang, & Xie, 2015). Further, White et al. (2011) mentioned that although conservation activities, such as recycling behaviors, sometimes causes inconveniences to the individuals, conservation activities are low risky implications and even beneficial in a greater scale. Due to the odd shapes and sizes, processing ugly food may cost individuals more time and patience, but in the long run, consuming ugly food is not only economical but also beneficial to food waste reduction. Thus, as a conservation activity, purchasing ugly food can be relatively low-risky to individuals. As a result, individuals tend to be persuaded by gain-framed messages. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2. Gain-framed messages will lead to a higher purchase intention toward the ugly food.

Temporal distance

Construal level theory (CLT) describes the relationship between psychological distance and the extent to which an individual's thinking of the target event is abstract or concrete (Trope & Liberman, 2010). CLT includes several dimensions in terms of temporal, social, and spatial factors (Bar-Anan, Liberman, & Trope, 2006). As one of the three dimensions of CLT, temporal distance proposes that distant future events tend to be more abstract and include features that are general, superordinate, and decontextualized, while near future events tend to be more concrete and include features that are specific, subordinate, and contextualized (Liberman & Trope, 1998). Furthermore, individuals who engage in near future events tend to be focused on how things are performed, while those who engage in distant future are likely to be focused on why things are performed (Liberman & Trope, 1998). Previous studies have commonly used temporal distance as a moderator to affect the loss/gain message frame (e.g., Chang et al., 2015; Teng & Chang, 2014; White et al., 2011).

Previous studies have implied that consumers' perception of an event varies in different types of temporal distance. More specifically, any future goal-directed actions or events can be construed in terms of the goals at different levels of abstractness (Liberman & Trope, 1998; Liberman, Safristano, & Trope, 2002). In other words, when an individual perceives a goal in the distant future (near future), he or she tends to construe the goal in terms of more abstract (concrete) features. Furthermore, when dealing with a positive action (e.g., gains) in the future, individuals prefer a context of abstract outcomes in the distant future because the positive events will gradually add more positive values to delayed positive events as time progresses; when dealing with a negative action in the future, individuals prefer a context of concrete outcomes in the near future because they fear negative events will gradually add negative values to delayed negative events (Liberman & Trope, 1998). Thus, the length of time determines individuals' perceived value of goals in either positive or negative events in the future. A number of previous studies have suggested that, when loss-framed messages are paired with the proximate future and gain-framed messages are

paired with the distant future, individuals are more likely to have higher recycling intention (White et al., 2011) and purchase intention toward green products (Chang et al., 2015). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 proposes that the effects of gain/loss in the message frame differ under the different types of temporal distance.

Individuals tend to be more optimistic and confident toward a goal-directed event or action that will be undertaken in the distant future (Liberman & Trope, 1998; Gilovich, Kerr, & Medvec, 1993). For instance, students commonly expect a better final grade at the beginning of the semester rather than later in the semester (Liberman & Trope, 1998). One of the possible explanations is that time offers more liberty for individuals to envision an optimal outcome in the distant future (Pennington & Roese, 2003). In this study, when an individual regards an event as a long-term project, such as saving a great amount of food by taking a certain action, he or she tends to be aware of the sufficient time given to handle the task load and, in turn, anticipates the optimal results. In other words, individuals perceive greater liberty when given enough time to complete a long-term superordinate goal. Therefore, Hypothesis 3a proposes that matching the gain-frames messages to long-term abstract thinking should activate individuals' purchase intention toward the ugly food in order to reduce food waste.

On the other hand, due to the nature of loss-framed messages, negative consequences occur if actions are not engaged in a particular situation. For example, Schartz and Bless (1911) implied that individuals tend to consider negative consequences as threats or concerns that need to be addressed. Regarding these threats and concerns, individuals perceive more accountability in the near future rather than in the distant future; his perceived accountability makes the difficult aspects of future actions or events more salient (Liberman & Trope, 1998; Gilovich et al., 1993). As previously stated, individuals fear that negative events will add negative values to delayed negative events (Liberman & Trope, 1998); thus, a strong and rapid response toward the threats and concerns is undertaken (Taylor, 1991) to prevent the negative events from becoming worse. As such, Hypothesis 3b proposes that loss-framed messages are likely to activate immediate and concrete construal

thinking.

Hypothesis 3. Construal levels (near future and distant future) of the advertising messages moderate the effect of message framing (loss and gain) on consumers' purchase intention toward the ugly food.

Hypothesis 3a. Consumers will exhibit higher purchase intention when a gain-framed message is paired with the distant future rather than the near future.

Hypothesis 3b. Consumers will exhibit higher purchase intention when a loss-framed message is paired with the near future rather than the distant future.

Moderating role of anthropomorphism

Aforementioned joint effect between temporal distance (near vs. future) and message frame (gain vs. loss) on the purchase intention might be different based on the levels of anthropomorphism (i.e., non-anthropomorphism vs. anthropomorphism). As suggested in previous studies, the likelihood of a consumer evaluating a questionable event or behavior with morality is decided by the levels of anthropomorphism (Riek et al., 2009; Waytz et al., 2010; Waytz et al., 2014). Hence, it is assumed that, when accessing the information related to food-wasting behaviors, individuals' moral concerns will be significantly escalated by anthropomorphic factors rather than non-anthropomorphic factors in advertisements (Riek et al., 2009). In other words, individuals' moral concerns could be amplified by the presence of anthropomorphism due to the fact that anthropomorphic factors inspire individuals to recognize the kinship with the anthropomorphized object (Veer, 2013). For example, in the context of machine abuse (i.e., a negative event), individuals tend to be more strongly concerned about human-looking robots than mechanical-looking robots (Riek et al., 2009). Similarly, in the context of a positive event, it is anticipated that individuals tend to be optimistic or more strongly satisfied with an anthropomorphized entity than a regular looking entity. In summary, the presence of anthropomorphism in advertisement exaggerates the "feeling" toward an anthropomorphized entity—that is, individuals tend to be more concerned about an anthropomorphized entity in negative events but more optimistic about an anthropomorphized object

in positive events.

In advertisement, anthropomorphism enhances individuals' optimism toward the future positive event (i.e., gains). More specifically, when exposed to anthropomorphized entities, individuals tend to recognize a kinship, which in turn triggers individuals to perceive a greater optimism especially when the anthropomorphized entity is benefited for the long run. To further explain the mechanism behind this optimism, Liberman and Trope (1998) stated that individuals usually savor a positive event adding positive values to a future event as time progresses. Moreover, this positive value could be enhanced by the involvement of anthropomorphism (Hart, Jones, & Royne, 2013). Further, since distant future could provide individuals with higher perceived liberty (e.g., sufficient time) to handle tedious tasks (Pennington & Roese, 2003), so that individuals tend to be more optimistic and confident when they view messages framed in the distant future that could provide sufficient time and other resources to gradually maximize the positive value (e.g., gaining a great amount of food). On the other hand, in the context of non-anthropomorphized advertisements, individuals may lack the external stimulation (i.e., anthropomorphism) that enhances the optimism toward the positive outcome in the distant future. In other words, without anthropomorphism, individuals are less likely to recognize the similarity or kinship to themselves from the entity. As a result, individuals have difficulties to associate themselves to the entities that are benefited in distant future. Therefore, compared with anthropomorphized entities, non-anthropomorphized entities are less likely to trigger individuals to think optimistically toward a positive event in distant future.

Anthropomorphism also triggers a deeper understanding of the moral concern or threat toward the negative events (i.e., loss), and this moral concern or threat becomes more concrete in the proximate future (Liberman & Trope, 1998). More specifically, when individuals view messages regarding negative events, anthropomorphism leads to a deeper accountability (Bartneck, Kulic, Croft, & Zoghbi, 2009; Kahn et al., 2007), which in turn heightens the salience of negative aspects of the near future event (Liberman & Trope, 1998). Individuals tend to dread these negatives aspects adding negative values to the future events over

the time (Liberman & Trope, 1998). As a result, individuals tend to execute immediate actions to address this concern. On the other hand, in the context of non-anthropomorphism, individuals are less likely to associate to the entity due the low similarity to themselves. As a result, in responding to negative events, individuals are doubtfully to recognize a kinship with the entity, or even the accountability. The lack of accountability blurs the salience of the negativity of the event in near future, and in turn individuals are unlikely to undertake actions accordingly. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 4: Depending on the level of anthropomorphism, the matching effect of temporal distance on the two types of message frame when predicting the purchase intention will be different.

Hypothesis 4a: When the advertisement is anthropomorphized, a gain-framed message will lead to a higher purchase intention under the influence of the distant future whereas a loss-framed message will lead to a higher purchase intention under the influence of the near future.

Hypothesis 4b: When the advertisement is not anthropomorphized, the two types of message frames will not have a significant effect on the purchase intention regardless of the influence of the temporal distance.

METHOD

The joint effect among the proposed three variables—namely, anthropomorphism, message frame, and temporal distance—was investigated in a 2 (anthropomorphism: anthropomorphized vs. non-anthropomorphized) by 2 (message frame: loss vs. gain) by 2 (temporal distance: near future vs. distant future) between-subjects experimental design. A total of eight types of one-page color advertisements were created and utilized as study stimuli.

Stimuli

The study stimuli were prepared in the form of advertising posters. Eight different one-page color advertisements (anthropomorphism/non-anthropomorphism × loss/gain × near future/distant future) were created to promote the ugly food. Since the potato is the most eaten vegetables in the United States (Khazan,

2014), a picture of oddly shaped potato was chosen to represent the ugly food being promoted in the advertisement. In addition, to regulate the product description that demonstrates the message frame (i.e., loss vs. gain) portrayed in terms of temporal distance (i.e., near future vs. distant future), along with the title, message wording techniques were retrieved from White et al.'s (2011) and Chang et al.'s (2015) studies.

The advertisements consist of three key components: the title, the product description, and the picture of the ugly potato. The title was created to correspond to the desired message frames (i.e., loss vs. gain) and temporal distances (i.e., near future vs. distant future). In a similar manner to Chang et al.'s (2015) study, the titles used in this study were framed in highlighting: "Think about what will be lost/gained today/every year in the future." In addition to the title, a brief statement was placed right below the title to help participants understand the concern related to ugly food being thrown away and the advantages of consuming ugly food. Second, the product description was developed using three key pieces of information: the total amount of food wasted daily/annually due to its odd appearance, the daily/annual calories such wasted ugly food could provide to people, and the amount of irrigation water wasted or saved depending on the purchase behavior. These key pieces of information with appropriate modification made to the product description were retrieved from either databases or previous studies (Gerbens-Leenes, Hoekstra, & van der Meer, 2009; Goldenberg, 2016; Kolasa, 1993; Statista, 2019; Subramanian & Deaton, 1996). Each of these three pieces of information highlighted the amount of ugly food wasted to vary the focus on different levels of temporal distance (i.e., near future, distant future). In addition, a picture of an oddly shaped potato was included at the bottom of the advertisement in forms of anthropomorphism or non-anthropomorphism to represent the ugly food being promoted. In the advertisements involving anthropomorphized factors, three components were used to modify the promoted ugly potato as an animated character, including a hat, an eye, and a mouth. In addition, the product description was edited to reflect spoken language, which was proved by previous study to be able to further enhance the perception of anthropomorphism (Aggarwal &

McGill, 2007).

Pilot Study

During the pre-test, 80 participants were recruited to test whether the manipulations for a 2 (anthropomorphism × non-anthropomorphism) by 2 (loss messages × gain messages) by 2 (near future × distant future) design were recognized as intended, and 10 participants were assigned to each of the eight conditions. Participants who viewed the anthropomorphized advertisements involving humanized factors (e.g., humanized character, spoken language), reported a higher perception of anthropomorphism ($M_{\text{anthro}}=4.61$) than those who viewed non-anthropomorphized advertisements that did not involve the humanized factors ($M_{\text{non-anthro}}=3.65$) ($t[77]=-2.90$, $p=.005$). Participants who viewed the loss-framed messages reported being more focused on negative outcomes of wasting food ($M_{\text{loss}}=5.65$ versus $M_{\text{gain}}=2.92$, $t[49]=7.87$, $p<.001$) whereas those who viewed the gain-framed messages reported being more focused on the positive outcome of saving food ($M_{\text{gain}}=5.81$ versus $M_{\text{loss}}=3.92$, $t[66]=-5.10$, $p<.001$). Moreover, participants who were exposed to the messages framed in the near future reported being more focused on the outcome in the short-term ($M_{\text{near}}=5.64$ versus $M_{\text{distant}}=4.25$, $t[67]=4.35$, $p<.001$) whereas those exposed to the messages framed in the distant future reported being more focused on the outcome in the long-term ($M_{\text{distant}}=4.94$ versus $M_{\text{near}}=3.08$, $t[65]=-5.76$, $p<.001$). In conclusion, the results of the pre-test confirmed the efficiency of all three manipulations, and they could be adopted for the main study.

Procedures and Instruments

A scenario-based online questionnaire was developed and then randomly distributed to the online panel members in the United States using the Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk). First, two screening questions were asked to ensure the participants' qualifications: Have you purchased any fruits or vegetables in the last month? and Have you purchased or consumed potatoes before? Participants who had not purchased fruits or vegetables in the last month or who had never purchased or consumed potatoes were excluded from the study whereas those who were qualified were randomly assigned to one of the eight

conditions. In the scenario, participants were told to imagine that they went to a grocery store and saw some ugly potatoes for sale. In each of the conditions, one of the eight types of advertisements was shown to the participants, who were then asked questions in the following order: (1) anthropomorphism (manipulation check question), (2) message frame (i.e., loss and gain; manipulation check question), (3) temporal distance (manipulation check question), and (4) purchase intention (dependent variable).

The manipulation check measurements from previous literature were adopted to ensure the validity and reliability of the current study. The questions were slightly modified in order to fit the context of this study. Using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree), three questions for perceived anthropomorphism, six questions for message frame, and six questions for temporal distance were asked to check the manipulations. First, to check the manipulation of anthropomorphism, a total of three items were adopted from studies by Mourey et al. (2017) and Delbaere et al. (2011). For example, (1) “To me, this potato is more person-oriented and humanlike”; (2) “It suggests that the potato in the advertisement is like a person”; (3) “The potato in the advertisement is portrayed as an animate object.” Second, to check the manipulation of the message frame (i.e., loss and gain), six items were adopted from the studies by Chang et al. (2015) and Cho and Boster (2008). For loss-framed messages, three items were used: (1) “The advertisement focused on what would be lost if people choose not to purchase ugly potatoes”; (2) “This advertisement focused on the disadvantages of buying ugly potatoes”; and (3) “This advertisement showed the negative things that can happen if people buy ugly

potatoes.” For gain-framed messages, three items were adopted: (1) “The advertisement focused on what would be gained if people choose to purchase ugly potatoes”; (2) “This advertisement focused on the advantages of buying ugly potatoes”; and (3) “This advertisement showed positive things that can happen if people buy ugly potatoes.” Third, to check the manipulation of the temporal distance (i.e., near future and distant future), six questions were asked. For messages framed in the near future, three items were used: (1) “This advertisement focused on thinking about how a significant number of potatoes are wasted today”; (2) “This advertisement focused on thinking about making changes for the present”; and (3) “This advertisement suggested that a great number of potatoes will be wasted very soon.” For messages framed in the distant future, three items were used: (1) “This advertisement focused on thinking about how a significant number of potatoes are wasted every year in the future”; (2) “The advertisement focused on thinking about making changes for the distant future”; and (3) “This advertisement suggested that a great number of potatoes will be wasted sometime much later.” Finally, three questions for testing the proposed dependent variable, purchase intention toward the ugly food, were adopted from Kozup, Creyer, and Burton’s (2003) study: (1) “How likely is it that you would purchase ugly food?” (2) “Assuming that you want to go grocery shopping, would you purchase ugly food?” and (3) “How probable is it that you will purchase ugly food?”

A total of 426 responses were received for conducting the analysis of variance (ANOVA). Means, standard deviations, and the sample size for each condition are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, and Sample Sizes for Each Cell (2×2×2) for Purchase Intention

	Near Future		Distant Future	
	Lost	Gain	Lost	Gain
Non-Anthropomorphic character	5.45 (1.45) 56	5.20 (1.45) 57	5.43 (1.50) 49	5.51 (1.37) 59
Anthropomorphic character	6.01 (0.93) 49	5.40 (1.60) 47	5.73 (1.18) 59	6.47 (.69) 50

FINDINGS

Sample Profile

Table 2 presents the study respondents' descriptive information. The data indicate that approximately 65.5 percent of the population was 20 to 39 years old; 51.1 percent of the participants

were male and 48 percent were female. Regarding ethnicity, 80 percent of the participants claimed to be European American. Approximately 40.7 percent of the participants had completed a 4-year college degree. Furthermore, around 36.5 percent of the participants earned an annual income of 10,000 to 39,000 U.S. dollars.

Table 2. Descriptive Profile of the Participants

Characteristics	N	Percentage
Age		
18-19 years	4	.90
20-29 years	136	31.90
30-39 years	143	33.60
40-49 years	59	13.80
50-59 years	48	11.34
Older than age 60 years	35	8.20
Gender		
Male	217	51.10
Female	204	48.00
Prefer not to answer	4	.90
Ethnic background		
White	340	80.00
Black or African American	27	6.40
American Indian or Alaska Native	6	1.40
Asian	31	7.30
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	.20
Other	20	4.70
Education		
Less than high school	1	.20
High school graduate	48	11.30
Some college	89	20.90
2-year degree	56	13.20
4-year degree	173	40.70
Professional degree	52	12.20
Doctorate	6	1.40
Annual household income		
Less than \$10,000	19	4.50
\$10,000 to \$39,000	155	36.50
\$40,000 to \$69,000	126	29.60
More than 70,000	125	29.40

Manipulation Checks

T-tests were performed to ensure the effectiveness of manipulations. The results indicated

that the manipulations of anthropomorphism, message frame, and temporal distance were successful at delivering the proposed information

to participants. Regarding the manipulation check of anthropomorphism, participants who viewed the advertisements that included humanized factors (e.g., humanized potato) reported higher perceived humanization in the advertisement ($M_{\text{anthro}}=4.69$) compared to those who viewed the advertisements that did not include humanized factors ($M_{\text{non-anthro}}=3.26$) ($t[418]=-10.44$, $p<.001$). In addition, participants who viewed negatively framed messages reported a greater perception of what would be lost ($M_{\text{loss}}=5.75$) than those who viewed positively framed messages ($M_{\text{gain}}=3.14$) ($t[367]=18.50$, $p<.001$). Correspondingly, participants who viewed positively framed messages reported a greater level of what would be gained ($M_{\text{gain}}=6.17$) than those who viewed negatively framed messages ($M_{\text{loss}}=3.56$) ($t[356]=-18.96$, $p<.001$). Finally, participants who viewed the messages framed in the proximal future reported a significantly greater perception of what will happen in the short term ($M_{\text{near}}=5.68$) than that reported by those who viewed the messages framed in a distant future ($M_{\text{distant}}=4.23$) ($t[352]=11.57$, $p<.001$). Similarly, participants who viewed the messages framed in distant future reported a higher perception of what will happen in the long run ($M_{\text{distant}}=4.93$) than those who viewed the messages framed in the proximal future ($M_{\text{near}}=3.26$) ($t[385]=-12.94$, $p<.001$). In summary, the results of the pre-test confirmed the efficiency of all three manipulations, which were subsequently adopted in the main study.

Hypothesis Testing

A 2 (anthropomorphism \times non-anthropomorphism) by 2 (loss \times gain) by 2 (near future \times distant future) ANOVA was performed to investigate consumers' purchase intention toward the ugly food. Furthermore, a *t*-test was used to compare the differences between the two conditions for each of the hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 posits that individuals engaging with advertisements that include anthropomorphic factors would report a greater purchase intention toward the ugly food. The results suggested a significant main effect of anthropomorphism on the purchase intention ($F[1,26.88]=15.75$, $p<.001$). A follow-up *t*-test further proved that participants

exposed to an anthropomorphized advertisement ($M_{\text{anthro}}=5.90$) had greater purchase intention than those exposed to a non-anthropomorphized advertisement ($M_{\text{non-anthro}}=5.40$) ($t[420]=-3.94$, $p<.001$). Consistent with the hypothesis, compared with a non-anthropomorphized advertisement, an anthropomorphized advertisement was more likely to trigger a higher purchase intention toward the ugly food among consumers.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 proposed that, (a) when exposed to messages framed in a proximal temporal construal, participants would report a greater purchase intention in response to a loss-framed message than a gain-framed message and, (b) when exposed to messages framed in a distant temporal construal, participants would report a greater purchase intention in response to a gain-framed message than a loss-framed message. The results indicated a significant two-way interactional effect between the message frame and temporal distance on purchase intention ($F[1,18.53]=10.86$, $p<.001$). Specifically, in a long-term perspective, participants demonstrated greater purchase intention toward the ugly food when exposed to positively framed messages ($M_{\text{gain}}=5.95$) rather than negatively framed ones ($M_{\text{loss}}=5.60$) ($t[215]=-2.06$, $p=.041$). Correspondingly, in a short-term perspective, participants showed a greater purchase intention toward the ugly food when exposed to negatively framed messages ($M_{\text{loss}}=5.71$) rather than positively framed ones ($M_{\text{gain}}=5.29$) ($t[207]=2.18$, $p=.031$). In summary, a higher purchase intention toward the ugly food will be evoked when messages are framed (a) positively in the distant future and (b) negatively in the near future.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 suggested a three-way interaction effect among anthropomorphism, message frames, and temporal distance on consumers' purchase intention. More specifically, it proposed that, depending on the degree of anthropomorphism, the interactional effect between message frame and temporal distance on purchase intention will be different. The results indicated a significant three-way interaction among anthropomorphism, message frame, and temporal distance on purchase intention ($F[1,6.72]=3.94$,

$p=.048$).

To interpret the three-way interaction with purchase intention, two-way ANOVAs between message frame and temporal distance were conducted while controlling the two degrees of anthropomorphism. For the non-anthropomorphism group, in which the participants viewed advertisements without humanized factors, none of the message frames (i.e., loss and gain; $F[1,36]=.17, p=.677$), temporal distances (i.e., near future and distant future; $F[1,1.22]=.59, p=.444$), or interactions ($F[1,1.53]=.74, p=.392$) between message frame and temporal distance showed a significant effect on purchase intention (see Figure 1). In other words, individuals are unlikely to elicit emotions due to the lack of anthropomorphism (Ahn, Kim, & Aggarwal, 2014). Considering that previous studies have suggested that the effect of message frame (i.e., loss and gain) and temporal distance (i.e., near future and distant future) is more prominent under the involvement of emotions (Achar, So, Agrawal, & Duhachek, 2016; Agerstrom & Bjorklund, 2009), participants showed a similar level of purchase intention toward the ugly potato under the effects of both message frame and temporal distance when there was no involvement of anthropomorphism.

For the anthropomorphism group, in which the participants viewed advertisements with humanized factors, the main effect of temporal distance was significant ($F[1,8.08]=6.15, p=.014$). In addition, a two-way interactional effect between message frame and temporal distance was significant ($F[1,22.90]=17.44, p<.001$; see Figure 2). These results showed that, under the effect of anthropomorphism, when compared to the purchase intention under the effect of messages framed negatively in the distant future ($M_{\text{loss}}=5.73$), messages framed positively in the distant future ($M_{\text{gain}}=6.47$) were more likely to trigger a higher purchase intention ($t[96]=-4.01, p<.001$). Correspondingly, compared to the purchase intention under the effect of messages framed positively in the near future ($M_{\text{gain}}=5.40$), messages framed negatively in the near future ($M_{\text{loss}}=6.01$) were more likely to trigger a higher purchase intention ($t[73]=2.27, p=.026$). Thus, under the effect of anthropomorphism, gain-framed messages arouse higher purchase intention when described in distant future rather than near future, while loss-framed messages trigger higher purchase intention when described in near future rather than distant future.

Table 3. ANOVA Results for Purchase Intention toward Ugly Food

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Three-way ANOVA					
Anthropomorphism (Anthro)	26.88	1	26.88	15.75**	<.001
Temporal framing (Tem)	7.91	1	7.91	4.64*	.03
Message framing (Loss/Gain)	.01	1	.01	.01	.94
Anthro × Tem	1.65	1	1.65	.97	.33
Anthro × Loss/Gain	.54	1	.54	.31	.58
Tem × Loss/Gain	18.53	1	18.53	10.86**	.001
Anthro × Tem × Loss/Gain	6.72	1	6.72	3.94*	.048
Two-way ANOVA (Non-Anthro)					
Tem	1.22	1	1.22	.59	.44
Lost/Gain	.36	1	.36	.17	.68
Tem × Lost/Gain	1.53	1	1.53	.74	.39
Two-way ANOVA (Anthro)					
Tem	8.08	1	8.08	6.15*	.01
Lost/Gain	.19	1	.19	.15	.70
Tem × Lost/Gain	22.90	1	22.90	17.44**	<.001

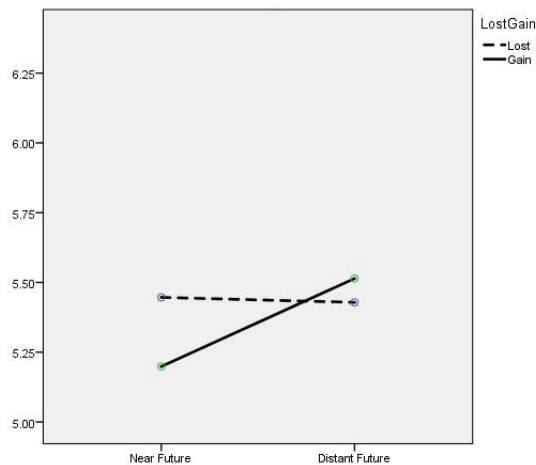


Figure 1. Two-way Interaction (non-anthropomorphism)

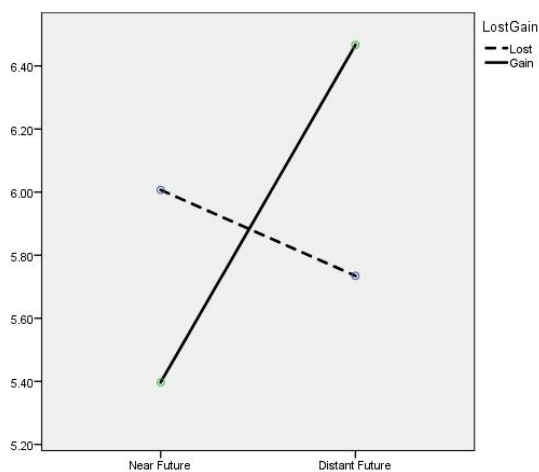


Figure 2. Two-way Interaction (anthropomorphism)

CONCLUSION

Summary and Discussion

This study investigated the role of anthropomorphism in advertising on consumers' purchase intention toward ugly food. More specifically, it explored anthropomorphism, temporal distance, and loss/gain message frames in order to find an effective method for promoting ugly food. The results revealed that a main effect of anthropomorphism exists, playing a significant role in promoting ugly food. Consistent with previous studies (Aggarwal & McGill, 2007; Choi, Miracle, & Biocca, 2001), the present study also supported that anthropomorphism in advertisements can significantly improve consumers' purchase intention toward the products, such as ugly food.

The results confirmed the positive impact of anthropomorphism on purchase intention. As stated,

anthropomorphism refers to the attributions of human characteristics to inanimate objects and helps consumers relate to the brand in a personalized manner. When participants perceived that the fictional character in advertising was humanlike, they tended to establish a bond with the anthropomorphized object (i.e., product) and, in turn, tried to understand the status of the mentality and emotions of the character in the advertisement. Therefore, in this study, the participants were more likely to raise moral obligations toward the humanlike character in the advertising (i.e., Mr. Potato Head), as a great amount of the ugly food advertised would be allegedly wasted or saved on a daily or annual basis. Furthermore, these moral obligations triggered by anthropomorphism led to purchase intention toward ugly food. Therefore, the retailers and advertisers could promote the sale of ugly foods by incorporating anthropomorphism into their advertisements. This finding also offers theoretical implications for academia. Although anthropomorphism has often been adopted in research projects focused on the design of robots (e.g., Duffy, 2003; Eyssel & Kuchenbrandt, 2012), religion (e.g., Barrett & Keli, 1996), and advertisements (e.g., Choi et al., 2001; Delbaere et al., 2011), few studies have demonstrated its effectiveness in ugly food promotions. This study proved that anthropomorphism can be adopted to promote ugly food and even food-saving behaviors.

The main effect of temporal distance was found to significantly impact consumers' purchase intention toward the ugly food. More precisely, participants who viewed the message framed in the distant future showed a greater purchase intention toward ugly food than those who viewed the message framed in the near future. According to construal level theory, any behaviors can be perceived on different levels of abstraction. Low levels of abstractions specify how the behavior is undertaken whereas high levels of abstraction specify why the behavior is undertaken (Freitas, Gollwitzer, & Trope, 2004; White et al., 2011). In this study, when participants had a concrete view of food waste in the short term, they tended to focus on how to save food or prevent food waste on a small scale (i.e., small amount of food either saved or wasted), which was insufficient to motivate the participants to initiate food-waste reduction behaviors such as purchasing behavior. However,

when participants had an abstract view of food waste in the long term, they tended to focus on why to save food or prevent food waste on a larger scale (i.e., a great amount of food either saved or wasted), implying a more significant meaning of food waste reduction toward ugly food. Therefore, participants exposed to distant future messages elicited a greater purchase intention toward the ugly food.

This finding also fills the literature gap. Previous studies often adopted temporal distance as a moderator to affect the relationship between message frame and behavioral intentions (e.g., Chang et al., 2015; White et al., 2011). However, few studies have mentioned the main effect of temporal distance on consumers' purchase intention. The current study revealed that temporal distance can significantly predict consumers' purchase intention in the context of food promotion. In addition, for future advertisements that promote food waste reduction, the present study advocates that retailers or advertisers frame the messages in the distant future in order to increase the persuasiveness of the advertisement.

In addition, this study highlights the joint effects under which the participants will be more likely to purchase the ugly food. Providing evidence for the matching hypothesis in this study, the results showed a significant interplay between loss/gain message frame and the participants' construal level mindset (i.e., near future or distant future). The results indicated that, when a message is framed as a negative loss matched with consequences in the near future, participants showed a higher intention to purchase ugly food. On the other hand, messages framed as a positive gain matched with benefits in the distant future were also highly effective in increasing participants' purchase intention toward ugly food. This finding is consistent with previous studies (i.e., Chang et al., 2015; White et al., 2011) demonstrating the congruency effect between the loss/gain message frame and temporal distance.

Importantly, this study also provides a deeper understanding of the mechanism behind the matching effects that led to a higher purchase intention toward ugly food. For example, participants tended to consider the messages as a threat or concern when they were negatively framed, whereas participants dreaded the threat or concern when adding negative values to the future event

as time progresses. To prevent this threat or concern from worsening over time, a rapid behavioral intention was triggered psychologically. Furthermore, when messages were framed in a positive way, participants tended to believe that saving a great amount of food would produce a positive value, which could be gradually added to a future event to a greater extent over time. Thus, participants perceived a greater benefit from the saving behavior in the long run and showed a higher purchase intention toward the ugly food. This finding provides practical implications for how advertisers and retailers can improve the persuasiveness of their advertising messages by strategically using loss- or gain-framed messages according to the different levels of temporal distance, especially when promoting ugly foods or other food-saving behaviors.

The primary objective of this study was to investigate the role of anthropomorphism in the matching effects between the loss/gain message frame and temporal distance on consumers' purchase intention toward the ugly food. This study demonstrated a three-way effect, in which the proposed matching effect was evident only for participants who viewed anthropomorphized advertisements.

Anthropomorphism triggers a greater sense of similarity, thereby leading to either a deeper moral concern or greater optimism based on the types of loss/gain message frames. More specifically, under the effect of anthropomorphism, a deeper moral concern caused by loss-framed messages would lead to an immediate intention to prevent the loss whereas a greater optimism triggered by gain-framed messages would lead to a distant superimposing of the gain. In conclusion, each type of coping behavior led by a loss/gain message frame has its best fit under a different construal level mindset. Explaining the fit between the loss/gain message frame and temporal distance, as previously mentioned, when predicting the distinction between the near future and the distant future from a timespan perspective, the near future refers to time restriction while the distant future refers to time flexibility. In other words, when exposed to messages that describe negativity/positivity in the near/distant future, participants will react correspondingly based on their perceived fit or experience of "feeling right." In this study, we hypothesized that

individuals have higher behavioral intention when a loss-framed message is paired with the near future and when a gain-framed message is paired with the distant future.

Viewing the anthropomorphized character (i.e., potato) that suffers from a tragic event (i.e., being wasted) caused a deeper moral concern due to the higher perceived similarity of the character to the viewers themselves (Krach et al., 2008; Whitby, 2008). Furthermore, as described in the advertisement, the near future suggested an impending deadline or time restriction, which had a better fit with loss-framed messages because individuals fear negative events gradually adding negative values to the future negative events in the long run. In this study, after viewing the message describing how an anthropomorphized potato is unfairly treated in the near future, participants tended to concretely perceive a threat that needed to be addressed immediately in order to prevent the situation from deteriorating. Therefore, participants tended to engage in actions to overcome this concern. On the other hand, when exposed to the messages describing the anthropomorphized potato being saved in the long run, instead of moral concerns, participants perceived greater optimism due to the higher similarity with themselves. In other words, the participants became optimistic when they perceived that positive events were gradually adding positive values to the future positive event. In this study, participants' optimism was triggered after realizing that a great number of potatoes would be saved in the long run. Thus, participants recognized a better fit between the gains and the sufficient time given by the distant future and tended to initiatively undertake actions to maintain this positive trend due to their optimism toward saving the ugly food.

This study contributes several insightful managerial implications for retailers and advertisers who aim to create effective advertising messages to encourage consumers to purchase ugly food. The results in the present study suggest that anthropomorphism is an effective mean to arouse consumers' moral obligation and trust. Thus, retailers and advertisers could promote the sale of ugly food by involving anthropomorphism in ugly food advertisements. Furthermore, when frame the messages in advertisements, distant future messages play a more critical role in increasing consumers' purchase intention toward the ugly food. Therefore,

by encouraging consumers to perceive the information in a distant future perspective, retailers and advertisers can significantly increase the persuasiveness of the advertisement. In addition, as suggested by the matching effect of loss/gain message frame and temporal distance, a loss-framed message is more effectively persuasive when described in near future perspective, while a gain-framed message is more effectively persuasive when described in distant future perspective. More importantly, the involvement of anthropomorphic factors can significantly improve this matching effect. Hence, when implying loss-framed messages in a perspective of near future and gain-framed messages in a perspective of distant future, retailers and advertisers could involve anthropomorphic factors to optimize this matching effect. For example, retailers or advertisers could involve anthropomorphism in a loss-framed message that described a proximate event in order to create a more persuasive advertising to promote the sale of ugly food.

In summary, depending on the level of anthropomorphism, the differential effect of the loss/gain message frame on consumers' purchase intention toward ugly food will differ under the two types of temporal distance. Retailers and advertisers could use this finding to optimize the advertising effect by implying loss-framed messages in a near future perspective and gain-framed messages in a distant future perspective. For example, retailers or advertisers could involve anthropomorphism in a loss-framed message describing a proximate event in order to create more persuasive advertising to promote the sale of ugly food. In addition, to contribute to previous literature, this study extended the joint effect between the loss/gain message frame and temporal distance by involving anthropomorphism as a moderator for amplifying the matching effect on consumers' purchase intention. More specifically, under the effect of anthropomorphism, advertising messages that contain either loss/near future or gain/distant future are more persuasive than those advertising messages without anthropomorphism.

Limitation and Future Study

This study has contributed several implications to academia and the retail industry. However, several limitations still exist to be

addressed in future studies. First, although the scenario-based online experiment was delicately designed, and the present study aimed to construct a vivid buying scenario, participants still recognized the gap between the online survey and reality. In future studies, researchers should survey consumers in a real grocery store to more effectively reflect consumers' buying motives toward the ugly food. Second, this study adopted an "ugly" potato as the product promoted in the advertisement. As the most popular vegetable sold in the American market, potatoes are considered a daily necessity; thus, a potential bias might exist in participants' buying considerations. However, oddly shaped foods include a variety of vegetables and fruits not limited to potatoes. Therefore, in future studies, researchers should aim to develop advertisement(s) that include multiple oddly shaped vegetables and fruits to balance the bias.

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ONLINE REPUTATION MANAGEMENT IN SELECTED HOTELS' BUFFET RESTAURANTS IN PASAY CITY, PHILIPPINES

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INTRODUCTION

Today's advent of technology, Online Reputation Management, an organization's image on the internet, is now being used by most, if not all, hotels and restaurants in the Philippines for the improvement of their businesses and respond to online reviews that customers leave about their business on popular review sites. Based from www.reputationdefender.com and www.slideshare.com, online reputation management is "your own image on the internet". It is "how others see you when they look for you online". It is about improving or restoring one's name or brand's good standing. ORM crafts strategies to influence the public perception of one's organization, individual or other entity.

In Online Reputation Management, a strategy plays key role to compete in this dynamic business environment to inform what a company is doing, where it is heading to, its major goals, policies, and action sequences into a cohesive whole. With the markets' competition as harder than ever, reputation has become a new meter for a company's success and a way to increase competitive advantage.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Online Reputation Management (ORM) is the set of techniques and strategies that an individual puts in place for his business in order to promote its online presence in a positive light (devrix.com). It is, according to Dolle (2014), the way by which companies can deal with content of people on Social Media effectively in order to defend their reputation. It "involves monitoring and resolving negative reviews and feedback in the best manner possible, and making sure that false or malicious ones are dealt with as soon as possible and its best tools in managing it are BirdEye, Podium, Trustpilot,

Reputation.com, Yext, Review trackers and Broadly Reviews Johnson (2019).

1) It was cited in www.news-leadermedia.com that Online Reputation Management helps a company or an organization to: a) resolve customer complaints quickly; b) show that one's business cares about customer service; c) earn customer's trust, d) increase transparency; e) creates more positive word-of-mouth about company's brand; f) identify company's opportunities; g) grow one's presence on the digital channels customers frequented; and g) encourages online endorsements. Tuazon (2015) pointed out that ORM is a critical part of governance that could be effectively channeled through government media because public information creates awareness and generates acceptance of government policies and programs if used effectively. It also mobilizes public participation in development works and improves the image of government. In ORM, good reputation of a business is essential to organization's survival. As emphasized by Bracey (2018), business reputation can benefit a business in a multitude of ways including: consumer preference; support for an organization in times of crisis or controversy; and the future value of an organization in the marketplace. If an organization has a good reputation in the marketplace, consumers may have a preference for that company even if there are similar businesses offering the same products or services for different prices. The reputation of an organization can enable a company to differentiate its product in highly competitive markets, allow it to have premium pricing, and can become the ultimate factor in whether a customer decides to patronize one business over another (www.businessinfocusmagazine.com/2012). Kizak (2014) enumerated four reasons for managing online reputation management that have contributed to the success of companies in India. These are as follows:

(1) it increase its sales, (2) it builds trust and credibility, (3) it builds a brand image, and (4) broadens online insights and recruitment.

METHOD

The study used Descriptive-Correlational Research. It used 1) ANOVA to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the means of two or more independent/unrelated groups). 2) Effect Size r to measure the strength of the relationship between two variables on a numeric scale. 3) Coefficient of Determination (R^2) to measure the proportion of variance of a predicted outcome as well as 4) Scheffe test for testing the lowest statistical power and 5) Cronback to measure the reliability of internal consistency.

FINDINGS

The highest number of respondents aged between 30-39 (42.5%) followed by age range between 20-29 (28.5%) and thirdly with age range between 40-49 (19.5%). In terms of sex, females scored 107 (53.5%) compared to males 93 (46.5%). When it comes designation, 86 (43%) of respondents occupied rank and file positions followed by supervisory respondents of 69 (35%) and third was the managerial level which was 45 respondents (22%).

On the extent of effects of Products and Services, there is a Large Extent as it posted an average of 3.7 rating scale. Buffet Restaurant B had the highest WM of 4.48, followed by Buffet Restaurant A with 4.42 WM and 3.7 by Buffet Restaurant C. When it comes to the extent effects of Emotional Appeal, Restaurant C got a WM of 3.89, followed by Restaurant B and C with 3.81 WM, respectively. It has a Large Extent effects as well. On the extent effects of Workplace Environment, it posted a 4.0 WM Large Extent effect. Restaurant A had the highest WM of 4.7 secondly followed by Restaurant C with 4.02 WM and Restaurant B of 3.99 WM. All these contributed to a Large Extent.

The four dimensions of Online Reputation Management namely: Products and Services, Emotional Appeal, Workplace Environment and Social Responsibility contributed to a Large Extent

in terms of extent effects to Online Reputation Management. Social Responsibility had the highest WM of 4.09, followed by Workplace environment with 4.02, thirdly by Emotional Appeal with 3.83 W and Products and Services with 3.7 WM.

On the extent of effects of four (4) dimensions, Social Responsibility ranked first with an average of 4.33, secondly followed by Products and Services (4.20), thirdly followed by Workplace Environment (4.02) and lastly by Emotional Appeal (3.83). This means that customers are giving premium on the Social Responsibility function of Buffet Restaurants compared to other three dimensions cited in this study. In summary, the extent level of the effects of four dimensions, it can be observed that these four dimensions contributed to a Large Extent in Online Reputation Management.

Products and Services registered the strongest significant association with On-Line Reputation ($r=.721$, $p<.05$). The result also revealed that Workplace is the second highest correlation with On-Line Reputation ($r=.632$, $p<.05$). On-Line Reputation was found to have moderate associations were found in Social Responsibility and Emotional Appeal ($r=.341$, $p<.05$; $r=.341$, $p<.005$ respectively).

Products and Services got the highest Standard Deviation (.2459), followed by Workplace Environment with (.2465) and thirdly by Emotional Appeal with (.1923) Standard Deviation. In terms of Mean, the Social Responsibility posted the highest Mean of 4.342, followed by Workplace Environment with 4.031 Mean and thirdly by Products and Services with 4.007 Mean.

The test for significant difference on the extent by which the dimensions affect the establishment's online reputation management when grouped according to restaurants using One Way ANOVA revealed significant differences existed between and among the three selected buffet restaurants. F ration revealed 5.42 while the F tab has .14 and therefore the decision was to reject the null hypothesis.

There are no significant differences existed on the extent by which the dimensions affect the restaurant's online reputation management when classified according to respondents' job position. Respondents exhibited similar perspectives on the effect of the four dimensions in their companies' online reputation management. It can be observed

that F ratio is 0.0002 while the F tab is 5.14 hence, there is no significant difference thus, the need to accept the null hypothesis is decided.

CONCLUSION

The four dimensions: Products and Services, Emotional Appeal, Workplace Environment and Social Responsibility contributed to a Large Extent to Online Reputation Management with different significant degree of correlation. Social Responsibility had the highest effect to respondents to Online Reputation Management. The null hypotheses are rejected. Further, there was a significant difference on four dimensions.

Online reputation management is tedious and a hands-on person should not be able to spare time. Online reputation management and its valuable team must be highly knowledgeable to deliver fast results.

The purpose of this study is to demonstrate the benefits of online reputation management which can be managed in many indicators. Proper online reputation management strategy is a benefit for every organization. Hence, organizations must monitor their online presence and manage it properly, so they can gain more customers and higher profit. Online reputation management

became necessary with the advent of social networks, online forums, blogs and other forms of online communication and information sharing. But since current laws are insufficient to prevent total strangers from damaging online reputation, online reputation management is now critical. It can easily make or break business or government enterprises.

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HOW TOURISTS ENJOY THEIR SHOPPING TRIPS IN CASINO INTEGRATED SHOPPING MALL – EVIDENCE FROM MACAO'S TRIPADVISOR REVIEWS

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INTRODUCTION

Macau, formally known as China's Macau Special Administrative Region, has been renowned as Asia's gambling destination due to the rapid development in its casino sector after gaming liberalization in 2002. In 2018, the gaming sector on its own generated approximately US\$37.6 billion revenue (Gaming Inspection and Coordination Bureau Macao SAR, 2019). The development of the gaming sector has triggered huge growth in tourism-related industry and has broadened casino offerings. Hung et al. (2010) point out that the new casino operators "employed an integrated entertainment model and focus on total tourist consumption, rather [than] simply of revenue from the casino gamblers" (p. 4). The opening up of Vegas-style casinos has brought world-class integrated resorts into the city, with an integrated entertainment model which includes shopping, gaming, and dining to fulfill tourists' desires (Choi, Lehto, & Morrison, 2007; Wong, 2013). Newly established themed casino shopping malls have served as a "pulling factor" to lure tourist patrons; the shopping facilities with their visual appeal have now been viewed as tourist attractions by many visitors (I. A. Wong, 2011).

Researchers are beginning to understand tourists' motivation to visit Macau's casinos (Lam & Vong, 2009; Wong & Rosenbaum, 2010); yet the question of tourists' perception toward the service at casino integrated shopping malls remains unanswered. It is important for destination planners and casino operators to have a better understanding of tourists' service evaluation when shopping at casino malls, as the insights could guide them to better develop the non-gaming sector and maintain a competitive position.

By using reviews drawn from TripAdvisor listings of Macao shopping malls under casino operation, the objective of this study is to investigate tourist shoppers' service expectations toward casino integrated resort. Through carefully examining positive, negative and neutral comments, the study aims to answer the following research questions.

RQ1: What are the categories of mall service attributes often mentioned by tourist shoppers?

RQ2: What are tourists perceived the mall service attributes in the integrated shopping mall?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Shopping has been regarded as one of the main desired activities when tourists travel abroad. Tourists are likely to purchase products that are not available from home, or that can serve as a representation of a destination (Lehto, Chen et al. 2014)). The unique attributes derived from the tourism product can enhance their travel experience by becoming attached to a unique memory of a specific experience. Wong and Rosenbaum (2010), in their study of understanding mainland Chinese tourists' motives in visiting Macau's casino integrated properties, reveal that these destinations with their commercially built environment serve as a travel attraction to many mainland Chinese tourists. Similar studies from Shim and Santos (2014) point out there is a growing trend for the shopping mall to be perceived as a popular tourist attraction. Extensive studies have been conducted to determine the factors that influence shoppers' experience in the shopping mall. Factors related to mall assortment, environment, entertainment, and convenience were confirmed to be important contributions to the tourists' shopping experience in the mall (Khei Mie Wong, Lu et al. 2001, Ismail El-Adly 2007).

METHOD

The objective of the study is to explore tourists' service perception inside casino integrated shopping malls. The purpose of the study is to determine the underlying service attributes frequently mentioned by the tourists that might influence their shopping experience during their holiday. By following a content analysis approach, secondary data from TripAdvisor.com on casino integrated shopping malls in Macao were explored. Considering that integrated casino shopping mall projects were completed in different phase of Macau's development, and to reflect the more current situation as well as considering the time-variant nature of online reviews, an available date and cutoff date have been set for the data collection. From 1 Jan 2019 to 1 Jan 2016, all TripAdvisor reviews related to integrated casino shopping malls have been retrieved. Only English-language reviews were included in the study. In total, 173 reviews that related to shopping mall experience were downloaded for examination, from 7 casino integrated resorts. A coding scheme has been developed based on previous studies conducted in the context of shopping malls, for the

data analysis. For each review comment, the study adopted the data analysis method used by Lei and Law (2015), which considers each sentence from a user review (with a full stop) as one review comment. Following repeated reading of downloaded review comments, a set of initial code was set by using qualitative data analysis software MAX QDA (For example, transportation, brand category, interior design of the mall, size of the mall), by reviewing the themes from the existing literature, potential themes (mall environment, mall essence, entertainment, food and beverage services, convenience) were identified. The additional review comments which may not fit into the theme with previous literature have been coded with others.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The study examined the shopping experience of tourism shoppers in Macao's casino resorts. The frequency counts and summary of percentages is listed in Table 1. As revealed by Table 1, for Macao's casino integrated shopping malls, the mall environment category was frequently mentioned (35%), followed by mall environment (26%), food and beverage services (15%), convenience (12%) and entertainment (12%).

Table 1. Summary of Frequency Count of Review Comments

Categories	Positive Comments		Negative Comments		Neutral Comment	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Overall	227	54%	76	18%	121	29%
Mall Environment	87	78%	5	5%	19	17%
Themed design concept	32	89%	1	3%	3	8%
Interior design of the mall	44	81%	4	7%	6	11%
Ambiance	2	67%	0	0%	1	33%
Atmosphere	5	100%	0	0%	0	0%
Scale of the mall	4	27%	0	0%	9	69%
Mall Essence	56	38%	26	18%	66	45%
Brand variety	48	41%	9	8%	60	51%
Value for money	1	6%	17	94%	0	0%
Product category	7	54%	0	0%	6	46%
Entertainment	37	74%	3	6%	10	20%
On-site tourist activities	25	74%	3	9%	6	18%
Live show and performance	10	71%	0	0%	4	29%
Others	2	100%	0	0%	0	0%

Categories	Positive Comments	Negative Comments	Neutral Comment			
Food and Beverage Service	32	49%	17	26%	16	25%
Dining option	28	56%	7	14%	15	30%
Value for money	2	25%	5	63%	1	13%
Others	2	29%	5	100%	0	0%
Convenience	15	30%	25	50%	10	20%
Access within the mall	2	8%	20	40%	2	4%
Access to other mall	5	250%	2	8%	7	29%
Shuttle service to ferry terminal/airport	7	100%	0	0%	0	0%
Others	1	20%	3	60%	1	20%

Overall, a higher number of positive reviews were generated for casino integrated shopping malls in comparison to negative and neutral comments. However, it is notable that the distribution among positive, negative and neutral comments varied by different categories. Tourist shoppers were more likely to make comments toward the mall environment, especially on the theme and design aspects of the mall. Themed shopping malls integrated with a well-known tourism destination were appreciated by the tourists. Comments were frequently made toward the architecture and interior design of the mall, and these features gained more positive comments than other categories of comments. Mall essence relates to the brand assortment. Although tourist shoppers made positive comments toward the brand variety of the mall, a large number of neutral comments were revealed, which only describe the brand/assortment the mall carries, without providing an evaluation. The food and beverage category was frequently discussed in comments, along with the brand variety. A majority of the comments were made toward the dining options available within the shopping malls. Tourist shoppers also commented about the convenience of commuting to different integrated shopping malls by hotel shuttle and bridge.

CONCLUSIONS

The study provides some implications for the casino integrated shopping malls. It is important for resort managers to understand what aspects of shopping mall tourism shoppers notice and what aspects are viewed positively by the tourism shoppers. The study found that Macao's casino integrated shopping malls generally received a

higher percentage of positive comments on mall environment, mall entertainment and food and beverage services. The negative comments more on convenience aspects of the mall. Notably, although tourism shoppers were willing to contribute comments about the mall category, more neutral comments were received, and the majority of the comments were merely descriptive, without sharing any views toward the brand assortment in the mall. The derived mall dimensions from the customer reviews are consistent with Ismail El-Adly (2007) revealed mall factors that would influence tourism shoppers' shopping experience in the mall. In order to cater to the needs of the tourism shopper, destination shopping malls need to direct their efforts toward engaging the tourist shoppers by enhancing the environment, entertainment and convenience aspects of the experience.

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FAMILY TOURISM ELEVATES NOT ONLY CHILDREN'S GENERIC SKILLS BUT ALSO PARENTS' WELL-BEING

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INTRODUCTION

Family tourism has increasingly gained attention from academics as well as the tourism industry (Durko & Petrick, 2013). Many studies focusing on family tourism have targeted pre-trip behaviors, such as decision making or on-site tourists' behaviors (Fu., Lehto, & Park, 2014; Hilbrecht, Shaw, Delamere, & Havitz, 2008). However, few studies have examined the benefits or outcomes of family tourism. A few exceptions have considered such benefits as building relationships and creating memories (Kozak & Duman 2012; West & Merriam, 2009). It is important to obtain further evidence that family tourism is beneficial for family members, such as children and parents.

Parents mostly seek educational benefits for their children through family tourism (Lehto, Fu, Li, & Zhou, 2017). Indeed, scholars believe that travel is educational for children (Byrnes, 2001; Stone & Petrick, 2013) and may develop their skills. However, empirical evidence that shows the educational benefits of family tourism on children remains limited. Therefore, it is important for parents not only to focus on children's educational outcomes but also to enjoy and to engage in family holidays so that they can appreciate that family tourism is beneficial for themselves (Gram, 2005). There are numerous pieces of evidence showing that tourism is beneficial for individual health and well-being (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Smith & Diekmann, 2017; Uysal, Sirgy, Woo, & Kim, 2016). However, it is still unclear if families as a whole benefit from tourism. Because family tourism involves group travel, it is essential to consider whether the same kinds of travel benefit individual family members.

Additionally, although numerous studies have investigated the benefits of tourism on health and

well-being (Smith & Diekmann, 2017; Uysal et al., 2016), further evidence is required to understand *why* tourism has positive benefits on improving well-being. Considering the antecedents of tourism benefits enables researchers and practitioners to understand tourists behavior further and to help in developing marketing strategies.

Based on previous research, the current study aimed to examine the benefits of family tourism on children's skill development as well as parents' well-being. This study asked both parents and children to answer a questionnaire to investigate tourism benefits they experienced. Moreover, we examined the antecedents of the benefits of parents' well-being, which included memorable tourism experiences, children's skill development, and travel characteristics.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Benefits of tourism on skill development. Several studies indicate that tourism has educational benefits, such as acquiring new knowledge and skills, as well as expanding one's worldview (Chen & Huang, 2017; Falk, Ballantyne, Packer, & Benckendorff (2012; Kuh, 1995; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Accordingly, Pearce and Foster (2007) proposed that generic skills, which include problem-solving, time management, and communication skills, are fundamental abilities needed to succeed in today's sophisticated society. Freudenberg, Brimble, and Cameron (2011) defined generic skills as "a set of skills that have potentially broad application to a range of disciplines or circumstances." Pearce and Foster (2007) found that backpackers were likely to acquire essential generic skills through backpacking travel. Furthermore, Scarinci and Pearce (2012) found that the frequency of international travel experience had a positive effect on generic skills in a sample of undergraduate

students. More recently, Miyakawa, Kawakubo, and Oguchi (2019) found that the more employees travelled, the more they perceived improvement in their generic skills. These findings suggest that travel experience helps improve one's skills.

However, most studies mentioned above did not employ longitudinal research, so the causal relationship between travel experience and generic skills has not yet been well investigated. Additionally, empirical evidence that shows the educational benefits of family tourism on children is still limited. Several papers indicate that one of the reasons that researchers have not attempted to investigate children's perspective's on the benefits of tourism is because of methodological issues (Poria & Timothy, 2014; We, Wall, Zu, & Ying, 2019). Usually, it is difficult to obtain a sample of children with tourism experience. Furthermore, in a survey questionnaire, it is necessary to create a format that is understandable for children. Thus, the current study aimed to examine the educational benefits of family tourism on children by using a longitudinal design with a special version of a questionnaire (that was easy children to understand for) to acquire quantitative answers from children. The details of the survey are explained in the method section.

Considering that previous studies indicated that tourism improves the generic skills of undergraduate students and adults (Stone & Petrick, 2013; Scarinci & Pearce, 2012; Miyakaw et al., 2019), we predict that tourism is also likely to improve the generic skills of children. Byrne (2001) proposed that travel can help children improve their skills and expand their worldview. Additionally, Bos, McCabe, and Johnson (2015), using qualitative data, suggested that holiday tourism can be educational for children. Although these studies did not show strong evidence by using quantitative longitudinal data, their studies imply that tourism has educational benefits on children as well. Therefore, this study proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Family tourism will enhance children's skills.

Benefits of tourism on well-being. Over the decades, well-being has been an emerging topic in tourism research. Research on well-being has two

main streams: hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives. Hedonic well-being is the idea that people attempt to maximize pleasure and minimize pain (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999), whereas eudaimonic well-being is based on the idea that people strive to live better according to their personally adopted values (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Several review papers indicated that tourism improves individual well-being (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Smith & Diekmann, 2017; Uysal et al., 2016). For instance, tourism or vacationing can reduce individual levels of stress (de Bloom, Geurts, & Kompier, 2013), and enhance happiness (Nawijn, Marchand, Veenhoven, & Vingerhoets, 2010; Nawijn, 2011) and life satisfaction (Chen, Petrick, & Shahvali, 2016; Lounsbury & Hoopes, 1986; Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal, 1999; Neal, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2007).

However, most research has only focused on the hedonic perspective on well-being. Filep (2014) argued that it is vital to consider overall well-being, including both hedonic and eudaimonic perspectives. In this vein, family tourism has aspects that also enhance the eudaimonic aspects of well-being. Some studies investigated the benefits of family tourism and determined that family tourism is positively associated with building better relationships as well as enhancing family bonds (Durko & Petrick, 2013; Lehto, Choi, Lin, & MacDermid, 2009). Thus, family tourism may also have positive benefits on increasing overall levels of well-being, including relationship satisfaction. The current study used measures to assess multiple perspectives on well-being to understand tourism benefits. We proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Family tourism will enhance parents' well-being.

The literature above suggest that tourism has positive benefits for individual well-being, but what would be the antecedents of improving parents' well-being through family tourism? One important concept could be memorable tourism experience (MTE; Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012). MTE refers to "a tourism experience positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred" (Kim et al., 2012, p. 13). Shaw, Havitz, and Delemere (2008) indicated that family tourism is likely to create positive memories that strengthen the connection among family members. Actually,

Bryant and Verroff (2007) implied that recalling positive memories can be a way to enhance one's well-being (i.e., positive emotion). More recently, Sthapit and Coudounaris (2018) showed that MTE has a positive impact on individual subjective (hedonic) well-being. Additionally, Kim and Chen (2019) indicated that memorable travel experience influenced travel reminiscence. Based on these studies, it is possible that MTE could facilitate individual well-being because it can help to create positive memories that can be shared among family member as well as others, which would help to improve positive emotions and well-being. Therefore, the current study proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): MTE during family tourism will enhance parents' well-being.

Besides MTE, there could be other factors that increase the level of parent's well-being through family tourism. Psychological and educational literature mentions that parents' well-being can fluctuate depending on whether their grown children become successful or not. Fingerman, Cheng, Birditt, and Zarit (2011) investigated the relationship between middle-aged parents' well-being and the successes and failures of their grown children. Their results indicated that having several successful grown children had a positive association with the parents' well-being. Additionally, Nelson, Kushlev, and Lyubomirsky (2014) proposed a model of parents' well-being, mentioning that achieving meaning in life is one of the factors that influences whether parents experience increased well-being from having children. Especially, for most parents, educating children is an important goal (Delle Fave & Massimini, 2004). Therefore, when parents feel that their children have developed successfully, their sense of meaning in life is likely to improve, which in turn may affect their well-being. From these studies, it is considered that children's development, such as improving their knowledge and abilities, may enhance parents' happiness and well-being.

Several studies indicate that parents seek educational benefits for their children from family tourism (e.g., Lehto et al., 2017). These findings imply that family tourism can provide an opportunity to educate children. When parents perceive their children developing, they may

experience positive feelings such as satisfaction or achievement, which in turn enhance their overall well-being. Thus, we proposed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Children's skill development during family tourism will enhance parents' well-being.

Travel characteristics and well-being. Considering the factors that influence the relationship between tourism and well-being, travel characteristics such as travel length and destination may be important factors. Regarding travel length, Chen, Petrick, and Shahvali (2016) showed that more extended vacations were associated with higher levels of life satisfaction as well as recovery experiences. On the other hand, Kawakubo, Kasuga, and Oguchi (2017) showed that participants' subjective happiness improved during a vacation even if the vacation was short-term (e.g., a weekend). Moreover, de Bloom et al. (2013) reported that there was no relationship between vacation length and health and well-being during just after a vacation but there was a positive association four weeks after the vacation. Thus, further studies are required to understand the relationship between travel length and the benefits of tourism.

Considering destination and tourists' well-being, Smith and Diekmann (2017) indicated that nature tourism had a significant impact on improving an individual's level of well-being. Indeed, there is evidence that shows that exposure to nature improves one's well-being more than exposure to an urban or built environment (Capaldi, Passmore, Nisbet, Zelenski, & Dopko, 2015; McMahan & Estes, 2015). These studies may imply that nature and the urban environment have different influences on tourists' psychological benefits from tourism. Indeed, Lehto et al. (2017) indicated that the benefits of family tourism change depending on destination activities.

Although there is some research investigating the relationship between travel characteristics and benefits of tourism, there is still a lack of evidence needed to understand its relationships. Therefore, following the abovementioned studies, this study explores the relationship between travel characteristics and benefits of family tourism: (a)

whether travel characteristics are related to improvements in children's skill and parents' well-being, and (b) whether antecedents of parents' well-being (cf., MTE, children's generic skills) change depending on travel characteristics.

METHOD

Participants and procedure. Participants in this study were families that included elementary school students, who bought a family trip from a travel agency (company A), which is one of the biggest travel agency companies in Japan. We asked company A to send a notification email to the participants and ask them to answer a questionnaire before (Time 1) and after (Time 2) the family trip. The invitation email asked the family to invite one of the parents and one of the elementary school children to answer the survey questionnaire. The invitation email included a link to an internet-based questionnaire. We collected data from July until November 2018. Upon receiving the completed questionnaire, company A created a dataset that combined the data of participant demographics and travel information with the questionnaire answers by using the reservation number or email address. After company A removed personal information (i.e., the email address), they sent the data to the researchers.

The dataset included 330 family groups who answered our questionnaire at both Time 1 and Time 2. We removed some responses to improve the quality of the answer based on the following criteria: (a) Responses that did not involve the same family member at Time 1 and Time 2 (based on respondents' age and birthday); (b) Respondents who answered both Time 1 and Time 2 on the same day (based on the respondent date); (c) Respondents who answered the questionnaire too quickly (less than 4 minutes) or too slowly (more than 177 minutes). As a result, the final sample comprised 220 family groups. The parents comprised 67 men and 153 women. The average age of parents was 42.46 years old ($SD = 6.26$). The children comprised 107 boys and 113 girls, and the average age was 9.19 years old ($SD = 1.62$). Regarding the family trip, the average days of the trip were 4.5 days ($SD = 1.62$), the average number of family members was 3.77 ($SD = 1.30$), and the average cost of the trip was 462,563 yen (approximately US \$4,100)

($SD = 400,679.52$). Hawaii was the most popular destination ($n = 40$), Guam ($n = 34$) was second, and Korea ($n = 16$) was third, followed by Taiwan ($n = 15$) and Singapore ($n = 12$). Regarding destination, 90.5% ($n = 199$) selected an overseas trip, whereas 9.5% ($n = 21$) chose domestic destinations.

Measurements. The questionnaire consisted of five sections. The first four sections were intended to obtain responses from the parents. The final section aimed to acquire answers from the children. The first questionnaire measured parents' well-being using the PERMA profiler developed by Butler and Kern (2016). The PERMA profiler measures well-being including Positive emotion, Engagement, Relationship, Meaning, and Accomplishment. We selected 15 items (11-point rating scale) to measure the five major subscales of the PERMA profiler and used the total average score as an index of overall well-being (Time 1: $\alpha = .94$, Time 2: $\alpha = .95$).

The second section assessed memorable tourism experiences using the MTE scale developed by Kim et al. (2012). The MTE includes seven subscales: Hedonism, Novelty, Local culture, Refreshment, Meaningfulness, Involvement, and Knowledge. We selected two items from each factor and used 14 items in total to assess MTE. Examples of these items include "Different from previous experiences" and "I did something meaningful." Respondents answered on a five-point rating scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). We used the average score of the items ($\alpha = .87$).

The third questionnaire measured children's generic skills. We adopted 15 items based on Scarinci and Pearce (2012). Using a five-point rating scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), we asked parents to assess to what extent their child has each skill. Examples of these items included "Effective Communication" and "Being Open-minded." We used the average score of the items as a parent-reported measure of children's generic skills (Time 1: $\alpha = .87$, Time 2: $\alpha = .90$). In the fourth section, demographic information, including household income and education level, was collected.

The final section in the questionnaire was created to obtain the children's responses. We employed the same 15 items of generic skills used

in the parents' section. To improve the understandability of the questionnaire for children, we modified each item to a simpler word that children could understand (e.g., not using *Chinese characters* and only using *kana* language). Moreover, because our target was elementary school students (6 to 12 years old), we employed a Smiley Face Likert scale (SFL; Lewin, 1979), which consists of emoticons ranging from a strong frown to a strong smile. An SFL allows children to understand the questionnaire easily and improves the accuracy of their answers, and is a common method for use in questionnaire research targeting children (e.g., Papavlasopoulou, Sharma, & Giannakos, 2018; Smith, 2015). We used the average score of the items as a child-reported measure of children's generic skills (Time 1: $\alpha = .85$, Time 2: $\alpha = .88$).

In addition to the questionnaire data, Company A provided data on travel information, including travel length and travel destination as well as demographic information such as age, birthdays, and gender.

FINDINGS

Benefits of family tourism on children's skill development. A paired sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the benefits of family trips on children's generic skills. The results showed that the child-reported measure of children's generic skills significantly improved from Time 1 ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 0.60$) to Time 2 ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 0.63$) [$t(219) = 5.13$, $p < .01$, $d = .26$]. Moreover, the parent-reported measure of children's generic skills also significantly improved from Time 1 ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.61$) to Time 2 ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 0.59$) [$t(219) = 9.13$, $p < .01$, $d = .52$]. These results supported H1.

Moreover, to investigate whether travel length and travel destination affect improvement of children's generic skills, we performed a repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA). Respondents were grouped into two using the descriptive statistics of travel length: those who spent either two to four days (short-vacation) or five days or more (long vacation). The results of travel length (short- and long-vacation) \times time (Time 1 and Time 2) of child-reported children's generic skills indicated that there was a significant

main effect of time, but not of travel length, and no significant interaction was found with child-reported generic skills. Similarly, the results of travel length (short- and long-vacation) \times time (Time 1 and Time 2) on parent-reported children's generic skills indicated that there was a significant main effect of time, but not of travel length, and no significant interaction was found on parent-reported generic skills.

Furthermore, respondents were grouped into two based on the travel destination (Nature-centered destination and City-centered destination). The results of travel destination (nature and city) \times time conditions (Time 1 and Time 2) on child-reported children's generic skills showed that there was a significant main effect of time, but not of travel destination, and no significant interaction was found on child-reported generic skills. Similarly, the results of travel destination (nature and city) \times time (Time 1 and Time 2) on parent-reported children's generic skills showed that there was a significant main effect of time, but not of travel destination, and no significant interaction was found for parent-reported generic skills.

Benefits of family tourism on parents' well-being. A paired sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate the benefits of a family trip on parents' well-being. The results showed that parents' well-being significantly improved from Time 1 ($M = 7.27$, $SD = 1.58$) to Time 2 ($M = 7.93$, $SD = 1.55$) [$t(219) = 6.93$, $p < .01$, $d = .42$]. As predicted in H2, family tourism enhanced parents' well-being.

Next, we employed a 2×2 ANOVA to examine the effects of a family trip on parents' well-being. For the analysis of MTE groups (low MTE and high MTE) \times time (Time 1 and Time 2), the results showed that there were significant main effects of MTE group ($F[1, 218] = 7.88$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$) and time ($F[1, 218] = 47.06$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$). Additionally, a significant interaction of MTE group and time was found ($F[1, 218] = 5.08$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$). The results from the analysis of simple main effects indicated that both the low MTE and high MTE group displayed improvement of well-being from Time 1 to Time 2. However, the high MTE group had a significantly larger increase in well-being from Time 1 to Time 2 (Figure 1). Supporting H3, MTE during family tourism enhanced the parents' well-being.

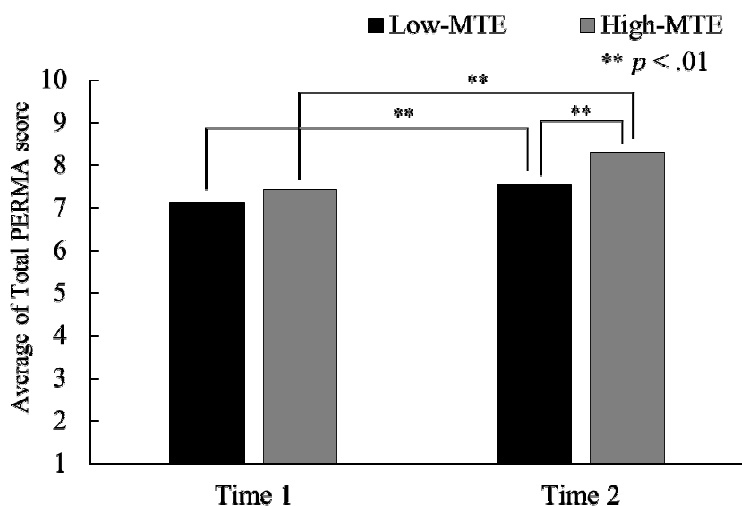


Figure 1. The score of parents' well-being based on MTE group and Time

Similarly, we examined the effect of skill development groups (low skill development and high skill development from parents' evaluation) \times time (Time 1 and Time 2). The results showed that there was a significant main effect of time ($F [1, 218] = 55.68, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .20$), but no significant main effect was found for skill development group. Moreover, a significant interaction of skill development group and time condition was indicated ($F [1, 218] = 15.81, p < .01, \eta_p^2 = .07$). Similar to the results of MTE group, parents who perceived that their children had higher skill development showed a significantly larger improvement in well-being from Time 1 to Time 2. These results supported H4.

Moreover, we conducted ANOVA to investigate whether travel length and travel destination affected the improvement of parents' well-being. We followed the same grouping that was used in the children's generic skills comparison (short- and long-vacation; city- and nature-centered). Similar to the results for children's skill development, the results of ANOVA showed no significant interaction, which suggested that parents' well-being improved to the same degree during the family trip regardless of travel length and destination.

Influence of children's skill development and MTE on parents' well-being. Hierarchical regression analysis was performed to investigate the effects of MTE and children's skills development on parents' well-being. This analysis used the score difference of well-being between Time 1 and Time

2 (well-being Time 2 - well-being Time 1) as an independent variable. In the first step, we added demographic variables such as age, gender, education, and household income. Following these variables, we added MTE (step 2), the child-reported measure of children's generic skills development (Generic skill Time 2 - Generic skill Time 1; step 3), and the parent-reported measure of children's generic skill development (Generic skill Time 2 - Generic skill Time 1; step 4). Overall, the model explained a significant amount of variance in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .17, F [8, 211] = 5.46, p < .01$). The results indicated that MTE ($\beta = .25, p < .01$), and both child-reported ($\beta = .19, p < .01$) and parent-reported ($\beta = .28, p < .01$) generic skill development had a significant positive influence on parents' well-being.

The next step was to explore whether travel characteristics such as travel length and destination influence the antecedents of parents' well-being. We followed the same grouping that was used in the children's generic skills comparison (short- and long-vacation; city- and nature-centered). Table 1 displays the results of the hierarchical regression model by each group. Regarding travel length, when it was short-vacation, MTE had the strongest positive impact on parents' well-being ($\beta = .31, p < .01$), whereas only parent-reported measurement of children's skill development had a significant influence on parent's well-being ($\beta = .19, p < .05$). On the other hand, when it was long-vacation, both parent-reported ($\beta = .31, p < .01$) and child-reported measures ($\beta = .35, p < .01$) of children's skill

development had a significant influence on parents' well-being. However, MTE did not show any significant impact on parents' well-being.

Along with travel destination, the results showed that parent-reported measurement of children's skill development had the highest positive impact on parents' well-being in a city-centered destination ($\beta = .52, p < .01$). However, the child-reported measure of children's skill development did not show any significant influence on parents' well-being when it was a city-centered

destination. On the other hand, when the destination was nature-centered, the strongest antecedent of parents' well-being was MTE ($\beta = .29, p < .01$), and both child-reported ($\beta = .19, p < .05$) and parent-reported ($\beta = .19, p < .05$) measures of children's skill development were significant predictors of well-being. These results indicated that antecedents of parents' well-being are likely to change depending on travel characteristics such as travel length and destination.

Table 1. The results of hierarchical regression analysis for score differences in well-being

	Travel length		Travel destination		Total (<i>N</i> = 220)
	Short-vacation (<i>n</i> = 127)	Long-vacation (<i>n</i> = 93)	City- centered (<i>n</i> = 89)	Nature- centered (<i>n</i> = 126)	
Step 1					
Age	-.12	-.01	-.13	-.09	-.07
Gender	-.07	-.06	.07	-.08	-.04
Education (Mother)	-.04	.04	-.06	.03	.00
Education (Father)	-.14	.16	-.10	.01	-.03
Household income	.16	.10	.24 *	.05	.13
Step 2					
MTE	.31 **	.11	.23 *	.29 **	.25 **
Step 3					
Generic skill (Subjective)	.13	.31 **	.12	.19 *	.19 **
Step 4					
Generic skill (Objective)	.19 *	.35 **	.52 **	.19 *	.28 **
<i>R</i> ²	.19 **	.23 **	.31 **	.15 *	.17 **

Note. ** $p < .01$

IMPLICATIONS

The current study aimed to investigate the benefits of family tourism using a quantitative approach asking both children and parents. Overall, our findings showed that family tourism is beneficial in elevating children's skill development as well as parents' well-being. We confirmed that family tourism had a decisive advantage on children's skill development. This result was consistent with previous studies, suggesting that tourism has a positive effect on skill development in samples of undergraduates and adults (Chen & Huang, 2017; Falk et al., 2012; Pearce & Foster, 2007; Scarinci & Pearce, 2012; Miyakawa et al., 2019). Unlike previous studies, the current study investigated children's skill development by using both

self-reported and parent-reported measurements. Although some tourism studies have used children as participants (e.g., We et al., 2019), most of these studies did not use quantitative methods because of methodological issues (Poria & Timothy, 2014). In this study, we employed an SFL scale (Lewin, 1979) to acquire responses from children.

Moreover, not only children's skill development but parents' well-being also increased from family tourism. The current study used a measure (i.e., PERMA; Butler & Kern, 2016) to assess multiple perspectives on well-being and the results were consistent with previous findings examining subjective (hedonic) well-being (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Smith & Diekmann, 2017; Uysal et al., 2016). Especially, when family tourism was a memorable experience, outcomes for well-being

had more substantial effects. As Shaw et al. (2008) mentioned, when a family member could experience a positively memorable event during family tourism, it may help to enhance reminiscence after tourism, and this can improve family bonds (cf., Bryant & Verrof, 2007; Kim & Chen, 2019). Furthermore, not only memorable tourism experiences but also children's skill development through family tourism had a positive impact on parents' well-being. In line with the findings of Fingerman et al. (2011), when children improve their skills through family tourism, their parents' well-being may also improve. Although further investigations are needed to understand the relationship, this may be because parents may feel some sense of meaning in life by facilitating children's development through family tourism (Delle Fave & Massimini, 2004).

Our exploratory findings showed the antecedents of improvements in parents' well-being depending on travel characteristics, such as travel length and destination. Although Chen et al. (2016) indicated that longer vacations are associated with higher levels of life satisfaction, our results did not show any significant difference in skill and well-being improvement related to travel length. Instead, we found that travel length may influence the antecedents of increases in parents' well-being. When the trip was shorter than four days, MTE was the most critical factor influencing parents' well-being. However, for longer travel (five or more days), only children's skill development during family tourism affected parents' well-being. Moreover, our findings did not show that the natural environment had a better influence on improving parents' well-being (Capaldi et al., 2015; McMahan & Estes, 2015; Smith & Diekmann, 2017). Instead, when considering the antecedents of parents' well-being, the findings implied that city-centered destination might have more value for skill development, whereas nature-centered destinations require memorable experiences for parents as well as children's skill development.

Based on our findings, we suggest two implications. The first point is that the current study investigated both children's and parents' benefit from family tourism using a longitudinal design. Most previous studies only used samples of parents or adults to examine the benefits of family tourism (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Although some studies have used samples of family groups including both

children and parents, those studies used qualitative data (e.g., Gram, 2005; Shaw et al., 2008) so that they did not directly consider the relationship between positive outcomes and family tourism. Given that family tourism is generally a group unit behavior, it is essential to not only investigate a single individual's perspective but also to examine the interaction between multiple people's perspectives.

The second point is that our study considered the antecedents of family tourism benefits on parents' well-being. Even though some previous studies have focused on antecedents of benefits of tourism on well-being (Chen & Petrick, 2013; de Bloom et al., 2013), no study focusing on family tourism has considered why family tourism can be beneficial. Additionally, there is only a limited amount of evidence considering the relationship between travel characteristics (travel length and destination) and the benefits of tourism. The current study examined several antecedents of the benefits of tourism on parents' well-being. These factors may have practical implications for the relevant industries. Tourism and hospitality industries may be able to enrich their services to not only to provide a memorable experience for the family but also to focus on educational aspects for the children, which in turn could benefit parents as well. Although these positive effects did not change depending on the travel length or destination, the antecedents of the benefits of family tourism on parents' well-being differed depending on the travel characteristics. These findings can be used in the industries. For instance, a travel agency can offer better tourism packages depending on the travel length and destination. If some families want to go to nature-centered destinations, it may be beneficial to recommend a more extended vacation to increase the level of parents' well-being. Indeed, Chen and Petrick (2016) indicated that when people perceived the benefits of tourism experience, they were more likely to go traveling again (i.e., their behavioral intention increased). Thus, proposing appropriate information and recommendations to customers based on the psychological benefits of tourism would enable marketers to improve the quality of their products.

Limitations and suggestions for future directions.

Finally, we acknowledge several limitations

of the current study. First, although this study employed a longitudinal design to examine the benefits of family tourism, we did not perform a follow-up on the long-term effects of family tourism. Previous studies showed that tourism does have a benefit on well-being (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004; Smith & Diekmann, 2017; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018; Uysal et al., 2016) and skill development (Pearce & Foster, 2007; Scarinci & Pearce, 2012; Miyakawa et al., 2019). However, tourism benefits such as improved well-being are likely to disappear one to two weeks after traveling, which is called a fade-out effect (e.g., Nawijn, 2011). Moreover, there is no research investigating fade-out effects on skill development. Considering that tourism has a fade-out effect, future studies should explore the long-term benefits of family tourism to examine whether the positive benefits found in the current study may disappear quickly or continue for longer periods.

Second, although this study acquired quantitative data from a sample of children, only generic skills were measured. The ANOVA results showed that no differences in improvements in children's skills based on travel characteristics, and there may be differences depending on how children evaluate the family tourism or their positive feelings during the trip (e.g., Durko & Petrick, 2013). The current study could not assess these variables because of considerations of the children's burden. Future research may be able to further investigate the processes as well as the antecedents of children's skill development through family tourism.

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ARE DOMESTIC AND INTERNATIONAL TRAVELS COMPLEMENTS OR SUBSTITUTES? A CASE OF SOUTH KOREAN POPULATION

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INTRODUCTION

Vacation provides an opportunity for people to enjoy an unordinary life at the tourism destination, increases physical and psychological health, and ultimately improves one's subjective well-being through enhanced life satisfaction. These benefits, in turn, make each country to facilitate tourism- and leisure-related activities as a means to increase social welfares across the country through the concept of social tourism (McCabe, Joldersma, & Li, 2010; Minnaert, Maitland, & Miller, 2009). In fact, social tourism boosts participation in travel for low-income groups in several countries and increases family capital and social capital (e.g., Minnaert, et al., 2009). As such, one's vacation behaviors, including travel and leisure activities, have become an essential part of his/her own life as well as the national economies.

Similarly, the Korean government has devoted considerable efforts to the promotion of tourism, vacation, and leisure behaviors among Korean populations to enhance subjective well-being. Undoubtedly, the Korean government would expect the positive effect of the policy on regional economies throughout the country by encouraging the public to participate in tourism activities. Nevertheless, there is still room for further improvement of tourism policy in Korea. Although the number of participants in domestic travels increased 15.9% in 2016 from 2015 (22,289,190 in 2016; 19,310,430 in 2015), the increase of domestic travelers has been concentrated in only a few popular tourist destinations. Furthermore, more people travelled internationally than domestically (39,293,235 in 2016 and 38,307,303 in 2015) (www.mcst.go.kr),

which eventually can cause a significant amount of tourism deficit. To the authors' best knowledge, little empirical research has been conducted to examine the effect of the Korean government's effort on travel frequency both domestically and internationally.

As such, this study attempts to investigate the changes in pattern of both domestic and international travels using the National Tourism survey conducted by the Korean government in a longitudinal manner. By doing so, this study will answer the two following questions. RQ1: What kinds of relationships between domestic and international travel patterns over time are there in the Korean population? and RQ2: What frequency patterns of domestic and international travels exist in the Korean population? The findings of this study will provide academics and policymakers with useful insights for understanding the changes in the travel patterns over time and identify the factors that can be addressed by tourism policy.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourist decision-making is often dependent on various situations and in a sequential decision-making process whereby a subsequent choice is a function of previous decisions (e.g., Dellaert, Ettema, & Lindh, 1998; Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002). Nicolau and Mas (2005) and Van Soest and Kooreman (1987) empirically demonstrated that people make a sequential or simultaneous decision-making including 1) whether to go on vacation or not and 2) the choice of the destination (e.g., domestic and foreign destinations). Furthermore, in the decision-making process, one's characteristics (e.g., demographic and situational factors) have a huge impact on travel frequencies,

demand, and the propensity to travel (e.g., Bernini & Cracolici, 2015; Eugenio-Martin & Campos-Soria, 2011). The impact of such characteristics is not static, but rather has a time-variant effect on tourism demand and the decision-making process (Eilat & Einav, 2004). For example, changes in one's disposable income obviously bring an upward changing pattern in travel frequency in a longer period as income elasticity for travels was often calculated as higher than 1 (e.g., between 1.4 and 2.2 in Litter (1980)). As such, it is easily expected that the changes in one's situation bring different choices in the first stage of a sequential travel choice – i.e., whether to travel or not. Then, the question quickly moves to the choice of their travel destination between domestic and international destinations. From the tourism policy point of view, it is important to understand the method of choosing the destination and its relationship between international and domestic travels. Having too large portion of international tourism by tourists in one country certainly widens tourism trade deficit, which in turn, creates unexpected negative consequences that lessen the importance of the tourism industry in national economics and possibly reduce the attractiveness of domestic travels. This vicious cycle may deter the development of the tourism industry in the country and make it even harder to promote one's subjective wellbeing through tourism activities. In previous literature, domestic and international travels are mutually dependent at the decision stage with some notable exceptions. While some studies showed the complementary relationship between domestic and outbound tourism demand (e.g., Kim, Yi, & Jang, 2019; Park & Kim, 2011; Yap, 2013), other studies had a substitute relationship (e.g., Athanasopoulos, Deng, Li, & Song, 2014; Eugenio-Martin & Campos-Soria, 2011; Van Soest & Kooreman, 1987). As these studies utilized either cross-sectional data or aggregated national-level tourism data, this inconsistent result calls for further analysis using longitudinal individual panel data.

METHOD

The data is drawn from the annual Korea

National Tourism Survey for the years 2012–2015, which is published by the Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism. The open-access data is from the Korean Tourism Knowledge and Information System (tour.go.kr). Of the 7,588 respondents, the current study uses samples only if the respondents participated in all four annual surveys and at least one overnight domestic and international travel between 2012 and 2015. In this way, the four-year data of 1,626 respondents was incorporated in the current study. To answer the research questions, this study employed latent growth curve modeling (LGCM), which allows an understanding of the travel frequency trajectory for both domestic and international travels over time and within-subject variations simultaneously. This study ran two separate LGCM trajectories in a single model concurrently to understand the relationships between domestic and international travel trajectories. While the baseline model did not have any assumption of relationships between domestic and international travels, the alternative model aimed to test the relationship between two forms of travels in our sample.

FINDINGS

To explore the relationship between domestic and international travel patterns, we run a LGCM with demographic predictors, where each intercept and slope are designed to measure the latent change of domestic and international travel frequency trajectories (see Figure 1). Two LGCMs were then compared using log-likelihood difference tests: Model 1 with freely estimated correlations between domestic and international travel trajectories (both intercept and slope variables) and Model 2 with an independence assumption between two travel trajectories. The results show that Model 2 is more parsimonious by reducing the number of free parameters without increasing the log-likelihood value significantly, thereby being considered as a better model (see Table 1). Put differently, the domestic travel frequency trajectory for Korean travelers identified in our data is shown to be independent of their international travel frequency trajectory.

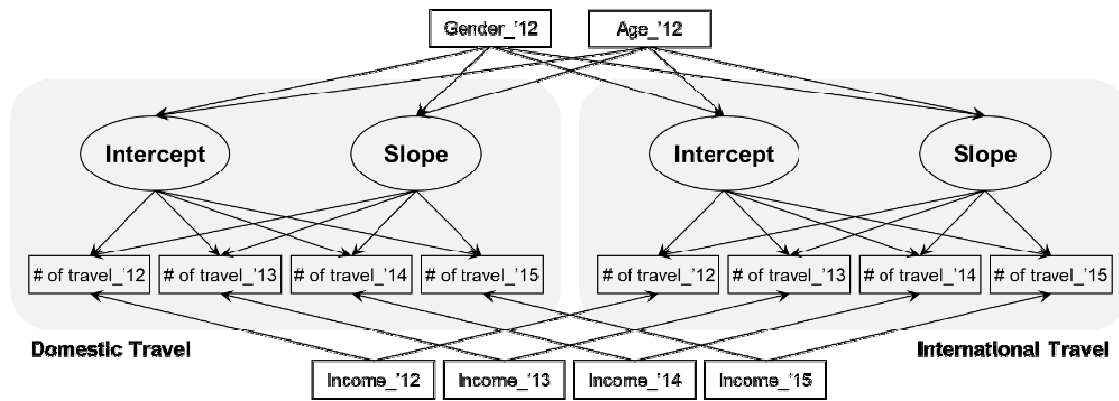


Figure 1. Configured LGCM

Table 1. Log-likelihood Difference Test Between Two LGCMs

Model	<i>L</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>c</i>	SABIC	<i>cd</i>	TRd _(Δ<i>p</i>)
Model 1	-18915.543	38	1.025	37991.334	-	-
Model 2*	-18925.787	34	1.035	37994.954	.935	-21.924 ₍₄₎ ***

L: H0 log-likelihood; *p*: # of free parameters; *c*: MLR scaling correction factor; SABIC: Sample-size adjusted Bayesian information criteria; *cd*: Difference test scaling correction; TRd: Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square difference test statistic

The results of LGCM show that domestic trajectory is stationary over time whereas international trajectory is increasing (see Table 2). The results also show that gender is not associated with latent trajectories significantly, while age is

significantly associated with both trajectories. Household income in each year was shown to be positively associated with the number of both domestic and international travel mostly in the corresponding year.

Table 2. Results of LGCM

	Domestic	International
Intercept Mean (Variance)	.576 [†] (.664 ^{***})	-3.104 ^{***} (.243 ^{***})
Slope Mean (Variance)	-.001 ^{n/s} (.040 ^{***})	.509* (.011 ^{n/s})
Intercept ↔ Slope	-.489 ^{***}	-.897 ^{***}
Intercept ← Sex; Age	-.004 ^{n/s} ; -.158 ^{***}	-.103 ^{n/s} ; .308 ^{***}
Slope ← Sex; Age	.015 ^{n/s} ; .153 ^{***}	.096 ^{n/s} ; -.508 ^{**}
# of travel ← Income in 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015	.044 ^{n/s} ; .050 [*] ; .078 [*] ; .032 ^{n/s}	.294 ^{***} ; .303 ^{***} ; .503 ^{***} ; .368 ^{**}

*** *p*<.001; ** *p*<.01; * *p*<.05; † *p*<.10; n/s *p*>.10

CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the travel frequency trajectories among the Korean population and the relationship between domestic and international travels using panel data of individuals. The finding of this study shows that domestic and international travel frequency trajectories are independent for the Korean population in the given time. This finding is not consistent with findings

in previous studies, where two travel trajectories show either complementary or substitute relationships. A further investigation is required to explore whether this is a unique phenomenon in Korea or subgroups of Korean population may have a different relationship between two travel markets. Another interesting finding is the opposite directional influences of age on both trajectories. Future studies are requested to illuminate this phenomenon.

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A COMMON POOL RESOURCES APPROACH TO DESTINATION MANAGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

This work proposes a conceptual approach integrating the concept of CPR within the strategic role of a DMO, aiming at the achievement of benefits for the host communities within the 3 pillars of sustainable development (ecological, social and economic). Our purpose is to open new opportunities for research, once the concrete application of such a conceptual model depends on the resources and products of each destination, the type of tourism dynamics observed, the specific stakeholders involved and the power balance between them. However, we propose an exploratory application of this framework to the case of the development of wellness tourism in a specific rural destination in Japan. The work includes a systematic literature review, considering the concepts of CPR in tourism, sustainable tourism development and DMO. The integration and synthesis of these approaches is presented as a conceptual model for participatory destination management. An illustrative application of this model to the destination of Kushiro-Akan is offered, including a brief description of the potential development of wellness tourism in the region and the relevant CPR and stakeholders involved, concluding with a proposal for the strategic guidelines of a DMO. Finally, concluding remarks, including the limitations of the study and suggestions for new possibilities for further research will be discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Common pool resources(CPR) are characterized

by “subtractability and “non-excludability”. In general, these resources indivisible, while it is often difficult to define their boundaries. Examples mentioned in tourism studies are the natural landscapes, monuments or architectural landmarks, which can support different recreational or educational services (Briassoulis, 2002). Considering the problems related to utilization, management, preservation, economic valuation and appropriation of benefits, along with the different types of stakeholders using the CPR, different authors propose principles for their management (Ostrom, 2008), which are integrated into our framework for destination management.

There are abundant examples in the literature for utilization of the CPR conceptualization in the analysis of the relation between natural resources and tourism. In particular, the approaches proposed by Moore & Rodger (2019) and Heenehan et al. (2015), both using the CPR approach in order to propose a framework model for participatory resource management, are specially relevant in the context of our work. Moore and Rodger (2019) systematize the “enabling conditions” for the characteristics of the resources systems, the user groups and the relations between them. Also, institutional arrangements and their relation with the resource are taken into account, along with aspects related to the external environment. Heenehan et al. (2015) take into account sets of attributes related to the resources and to the users (appropriators). All these aspects are synthesized and framed into the conceptual framework we propose. Similarly, the utilization of cultural assets for tourism purposes raises long-term problems, which can also be framed within the concepts of CPR. In particular, our

conceptual framework considers the set of principles proposed by ICOMOS (1999) for the management of heritage tourism, taking into account the importance of public awareness of heritage, the dynamic relationship between heritage places and tourism, the need to create a worthwhile visitor experience, the importance of involving host and indigenous communities in the planning processes, the definition of responsible promotion programs and the achievement of benefits for the local communities. The principles for a long-term development strategy for heritage tourism implementation based on participatory management processes proposed by UNWTO (2003) are also taken into account in our framework.

Assuming tasks related to planning and management of tourism destinations, DMO may be seen as institutions that can integrate the management of Common resources within processes of sustainable tourism development. However, it should be noticed that there is no universal definition of DMO (Pike, 2016). In particular, our work takes into account the structure of tasks for a DMO proposed by UNWTO (2007). While integrating the achievement of a sustainable development process within the mission of a DMO, this document suggests that questions related to destination coordination and management or attractions development and management should be addressed at the local level, including processes of participatory governance involving the relevant stakeholders.

The contributions of the different strands of literature presented are systematized in a table, summarizing the implications of these different approaches on the different aspects that affect the management of CPR, destination strategic planning and local sustainable development. The conceptual model proposed is the result of a structured synthesis of these contributions.

AN ILLUSTRATION BASED ON THE DESTINATION OF KUSHIRO–AKAN

Wellness tourists combine different activities, including pleasure and hedonism, the achievement of meaningful experiences and the practice of altruistic activities, normally related to sustainability (Smith & Diekmann, 2017). As observed in previous studies (Romão, Machino & Nijkamp, 2017, 2018),

the region of Hokkaido has a set of resources with high potential for the development of unique, authentic and high-quality wellness tourism services taking into account these motivations. In particular, the destination of Kushiro-Akan has very relevant resources for this type of tourism, which can be broadly classified as CPR: natural hot-springs (onsen); 2 national natural parks and other ecological resources; museums; resident Ainu communities (indigenous communities living in Hokkaido before the arrival of the Japanese population, in the end of the XIX Century). The type of management for each of these resources and the stakeholders involved is discussed, being noteworthy that the development of wellness tourism in rural areas is today a strategic priority for sustainable development, as defined by the Government of Japan (2016, 2017). Taking into consideration the conceptual framework previously presented, the existing resources and stakeholders and the different local organizations operating in the region, we discuss how a local DMO can be operationalized in the destination, combining the strategic development of wellness tourism services with a participatory process of common resource management, aiming at achieving a process of sustainable development.

CONCLUSION

The main contribution of the article is the definition of a conceptual model that integrates the concerns related to the management of CPR and the objectives of sustainable development within the mission of a local DMO based on a participatory process of governance. This conceptual model is used to identify the major challenges and obstacles to its implementation in a specific destination. As each destination has different types of resources, products, stakeholders, organizational cultures and institutions, the conceptual framework proposed can be adapted to other type of destinations, opening new opportunities for research.

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PHI PHI REVISITED: A CONTEMPORARY ASSESSMENT OF DESTINATION VULNERABILITY

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INTRODUCTION

In the wake of the Asian Tsunami, research was undertaken on the island of Koh Phi Phi, Thailand, to evaluate how political economy and interpretations of sustainability affected post-disaster tourism redevelopment (Taylor, 2012). It sought to resolve academic concern about the limited insight within existing bodies of knowledge into how sustainability and sustainable tourism development are conceptualised at a grassroots level by inhabitants and other stakeholders of tourism destinations (Redclift, 1987; Liu, 2003; Swarbrooke, 1999; Mowforth and Munt, 2015; Maida, 2007) and furthermore how these conceptualisations were shaped through expressions of political economy in a post-crisis context.

LITERATURE

Numerous authors have highlighted a relative lack of academic attention directly addressing the influence of political economy on achieving sustainability in post-disaster reconstruction (Klein, 2008; Hystad and Keller, 2008; Olsen, 2000; Bommer, 1985; Beirman, 2003; Faulkner, 2001; Glaesser, 2003; Ritchie, 2004). This work extended existing academic debates and studies in a number of areas. In existing academic debates concerning the political economy of post-disaster reconstruction there is a trend towards 'disaster capitalism' (Klein, 2005: 3) or 'smash and grab capitalism' (Harvey, 2007: 32) and 'attempts to accumulate by dispossession' (Saltman, 2007a: 57). However, this did not occur on Phi Phi. Despite claims of a 'clean slate' being offered by the tsunami in developmental terms (Pleumarom, 2004; UNDP, 2005; Dodds, 2011; Ko, 2005; Nwankwo and Richardson, 1994; Argenti, 1976; Rice, 2005; Altman, 2005; Brix, 2007; Ghobarah *et al.*, 2006; Dodds *et al.*, 2010), this research provided evidence and explanation of why this did not and would never exist on Phi Phi,

a finding that may offer insight to other destinations in a post-disaster context.

METHODOLOGY

An interpretive philosophy informed the research design, in which primary data was gathered using an inductive mixed methodology. Methods included online research, comprising the design and operation of a tailored website to overcome geographical and access limitations; and offline methods such as visual techniques to monitor change and confirm opinions offered by participants of the research; in-depth face-to-face interviews with hand-picked stakeholders of Phi Phi's development; open-ended questionnaires with tourists; and extended answer Thai script questionnaires in order to overcome language barriers and present a Thai 'voice'.

FINDINGS

At that time, it was found that the factor with the greatest influence over Phi Phi's development was the desire to develop the economy through tourism, and the philosophy underpinning the development was largely economic. The tsunami did not cause any significant reassessment of the tourism development trajectory but served to uncover a range of conflicts and unlawful activity, resulting from powerful stakeholders pursuing their own interests and desired outcomes, in order to suit their own needs rather than those of the community as a whole.

In terms of how sustainability was conceptualised by different stakeholder groups, it was found that the meanings attributed to sustainability in this context differed greatly to meanings elaborated within western ideological debates. Stakeholders' conceptualisations of sustainability were mapped against key debates within literature. How meanings differed between

stakeholder groups was also examined and a definition for sustainable tourism development on Phi Phi was compiled encompassing a broad range of interests. The work provided a rare opportunity to see which political, economic and cultural factors shape the planning of tourism development and whether actual practice mirrors the principles of sustainability. For islanders, present needs were yet to be met and education was recommended to increase islanders’ understanding of impacts and sustainability, as well as their skills and knowledge base to enable them to compete intellectually with the ruling elite and reduce dependence upon landowners and the mainland.

In response to Blaikie *et al.*'s (2004) concerns that vulnerability is often reconstructed following a disaster and may create the conditions for a future disaster, the research refined the work of Calgaro and Lloyd (2008) to identify a detailed framework

of vulnerability factors intertwined with factors of political economy, presenting a post-disaster situation that was highly vulnerable and non-conducive to sustainability. The strategic response to the disaster was analysed through an adapted Strategic Disaster Management Framework (Ritchie, 2004) to identify the shortcomings of the disaster response to comprehend how such a disaster has influenced tourism development and planning on the island, showing that this was a mirror opposite to how a disaster should be handled according to the literature (Ritchie, 2004; Adger *et al.*, 2005; Miller *et al.*, 2006; Olsen, 2000; Coppola, 2007; Faulkner, 2001; Baldini *et al.*, 2012). The researcher drew on the notion of ‘strategic drift’ (Johnson, 1998: 179) and ‘boiled frog syndrome’ (Richardson, Nwankwo and Richardson, 1994: 10) to explain how host attitudes to tourism may increase vulnerability.

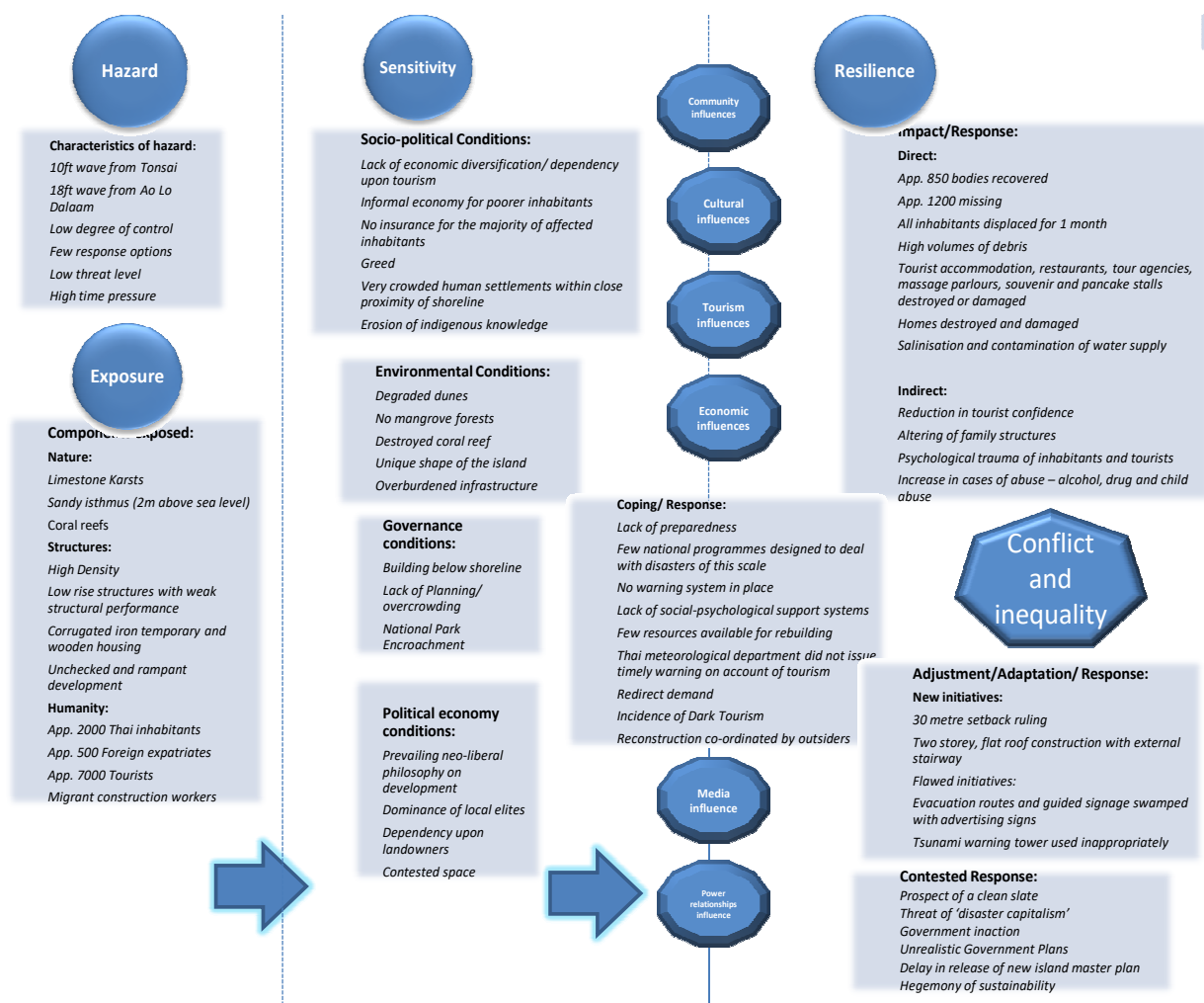


Figure 1. A framework of factors influencing Koh Phi Phi’s vulnerability to disasters (Author’s own comprised through data collection)

An examination of development philosophy established how specific factors of political economy and relationships of a hegemonic nature influence the development trajectory of both Phi Phi and Thailand. Despite governmental rhetoric influenced by a strong 'sufficiency economy' hegemony led by the late King Bhumibol Adulyadej, the observations of dependency theorists provide a better fit for the experiences on Phi Phi and present significant challenges for the pursuit of sustainability. The research posited that an effective response to the disaster and pursuit of sustainability were undermined by the political economy of the destination.

CONCLUSIONS

In the current day, the author has revisited this location to explore whether propositions presented within her earlier work had been realised. In 2012, when the original research was concluded, there was still much ongoing redevelopment work on the island, and it was of interest whether the outcome of this work has resulted, once again, in a form of tourism which is socially and ecologically unviable in the longer term. Whilst there has been limited research undertaken from a tourism development perspective in the intervening years (Calgaro, 2011; Steckley and Doberstein, 2011), much web-based discussion of the Ton Sai/ Ao Lo Dalaam area adopts a negative tone, and there is growing evidence to suggest that tourist satisfaction has been diminishing for a long time now (Kahl, 2014). The presentation will discuss preliminary findings resulting from data collection in March 2019 during a field visit, which included observation, visual data, focus groups with island residents and online surveys following the author's return from Thailand.

The importance of undertaking this longitudinal research lies in Blaikie et al's (2004) prediction of the reconstruction of vulnerability. Has vulnerability been re-created on Phi Phi and, does it create the conditions for a future disaster? With an ever-increasing range of shock events

threatening the tourism industry (Ritchie and Campiranon, 2014) and with increasing competition from other south east Asian island locations (Hampton and Hamzah, 2016), now seems an appropriate time to assess whether Blaikie's (2004) assertions are true.

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THE CORPORATE RITUALIZATION OF PUBLIC SPACE: IMPLICATIONS FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT OF COASTAL AREAS

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INTRODUCTION AND RELEVANT LITERATURE

Spring Break is an annual migratory movement of thousands of North American undergraduate students towards warm and sunny locales during a week-long spring vacation, usually occurring in March/April, before final exams for the spring semester are taken. The very thought of spring break immediately conjures images of scantily-clad youth, happily drinking themselves into oblivion on some sunny beachfront vacation hot spot, participating in raunchy contests of dubious taste, and listening to the hip hop sensation of the moment.

The expression “rite of passage” has been used extensively by both academic researchers (Josiam et al., 1994; 1998; Smeaton et al., 1998) and the popular press (Marsh 2006; Moredock, 2003) to designate the spring break phenomenon. In Van Gennep’s (1961, p. 3) classical definition, rites of passage are “ceremonies whose purpose is to enable the individual to pass from one defined position to another which is equally well defined.” A number of spring break researchers (Sönmez et al., 2006; Wickens and Sönmez 2007) have carried this notion forward to suggest that argued that participation in the spring break experience constitutes a liminal experience, a term coined by Turner (1977, p. 465) to describe “a state or process which is betwixt-and-between the normal, day-to-day cultural and social states and processes of getting and spending, preserving law and order, and registering social status...a time of enchantment when anything *might*, even should, happen.” Other scholars have sustained that it is the space where spring break activities occur that influences spring breakers’ behavior. Apostolopoulos et al. (2002, 734) argued that “it is the very space of the tourist resort that provides a conducive setting where personal and social codes are suspended,

behavioural constraints are removed, inhibitions fade and...travellers take extreme risks,” making a case for what is known in the social psychology and tourism literatures as *situational disinhibition* (Eiser & Ford, 1995).

Similarly to what occurs in other carnival-like phenomena, such as the Carnival in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (Da Matta, 1991), Mardi Gras in New Orleans, Louisiana (Shrum & Kilburn, 1996), or the Daytona Bike Week in Daytona Beach, Florida (Pratt, 2002), a great deal of spring break behavior does indeed occur in public spaces. This makes such behavior eminently visible and, paradoxically, places these locales – which by definition belong to everyone – at a premium. Destinations were quick to realize the potential revenue that could be accrued by granting access to these public locales to corporations with an interest in the spring break demographic. The outcome of this commodification of a public good was not a “tragedy of the commons,” but rather a de facto transfer of ownership of public space to private interests, at least during the spring break season. Because not all public space could be commodified, the end result of this state of affairs was a curious dichotomy between public space and corporate space, separated only by a few feet of sand but with marked differences not just in regard to the behavior that occurs in such spaces, but also in how such space is cognitively perceived by those who embody it.

This paper, derived from longitudinal research (2009-present) in one of the most popular spring break destinations in the United States, BeachTown (pseudonym), discusses the corporate ritualization of tourist behavior and its implications for tourism development of coastal areas.

METHODS

The data presented in this paper were collected in the main beachfront area of

BeachTown, a wide strip of sand stretching roughly 2.2 miles between the water's edge and the massive high-rise hotels and apartment buildings and beach bars/nightclubs along Front Beach Road and Thomas Drive, which constitute BeachTown's "strip". Much like any other spring break destinations, spring break in BeachTown has become a geographically bound phenomenon. Due to the enactment and enforcement of stricter city ordinances, spring break public activities in BeachTown have become restricted to a small beach-front area where a number of spring break-oriented hotels, and a wider number of bars and nightclubs, are located. Entrance to the beach along the strip is done through consecutively numbered wooden passageways, roughly equidistant from one another. Spring break activity on the beach is restricted to the area delimited by beach entrances. Entrance to the beach along the strip is done through consecutively numbered wooden passageways, roughly equidistant from one another. Spring break activity on the beach is restricted to the area delimited by beach entrances (beach entrances numbers 19 and 43). These 24 entrances constituted the data collection points for this particular study.

We adopted a multi-method approach to data collection and analysis. We used a combination of participant observation, continuous monitoring and instantaneous spot sampling (Bernard 2006) to collect behavioral and cognitive data concerning tourist behavior in BeachTown. First, during an initial observation period, we developed an ethogram of spring break activities on the beach. Second, we developed a research schedule by randomizing the aforementioned data collection points (BE #'s 19-42) into two waves of non-consecutive four-day periods of data collection. Each day, a research assistant and I collected data from six randomly selected data collection points. Data was collected from each data collection point at least twice. The order and time of data collection were randomized, and we collected data in each data collection point for equal amounts of time. We collected objectively measured behavioral data using ethogram sheets and hand-held clickers. We collected self-reported behavioral data and cognitive perceptions of spring break activity using questionnaires that aimed at creating a cognitive model of spring break culture and behavior,

following the cultural consensus and cultural consonance models developed by Romney, Weller, and Batchelder (1986; see also Weller, 2007) and Dressler et al. (2005). Lastly, we engaged in prolonged participant observation, informal interviews with spring breakers, local residents, business owners, etc., which allowed us to place our findings into the larger context of spring break in BeachTown and make sense of the results obtained via the methods described.

RESULTS

The space available to spring breakers is not homogenous, but rather neatly divided into two distinct *settings* (here we are using Amos Rapoport's (1990) distinctions of space, settings, walls, and boundaries) which in turn influences the ways spring breakers behave. While there are clear boundaries between these two settings – public areas and corporate areas – spring breakers transgress them with ease, and effortlessly move from one setting to another, in a manner reminiscent of Deleuze and Guattari's (1980) discussion of embodied nomadism.

The first setting, which we designated by *public area* spans roughly 1.5 miles between beach entrances # 22 and 40. The most common activities in these areas can be seen in Figure 1. The second setting, which we designated by *corporate area* spans roughly 0.7 miles, enclose the aforementioned public areas. The most common activities in these areas can be seen in Figure 2. We highlighted the most common behaviors that came out of our ethological research (walking along the beach, drinking alcohol, hanging out, playing sports, tanning, concession and corporate activities and beach tailgate games), which can be seen in Figure 2. It is interesting to compare these figures with the ones for public areas (Figure 3). It is also interesting to compare the behavioral averages (in this case the average was obtained by simply dividing the sum totals for each activity by the number of areas in each setting) between both settings, which can be seen in Figure 4. For an outside observer, most of the spring breakers' behavior in this setting mirrors the image of spring break propagated by the media (Marsh, 2006). Yet every contest and every concert is carefully scripted, and spring breakers' behavior is dictated by the

several MCs that officiate at each of the stages. From their quasi-panoptical position, they read from a pre-determined order of ceremonies and encourage spring breakers – contestants and audience alike – to act in an increasingly raunchy manner, particularly when cameras are present. The crowd roars its approval and reproduces such behavior within this space at the slightest pretext.

In the second setting, we did find evidence of ritualized behavior, as well as a *communitas* of sorts, which was visible only when certain contests and/or concerts were going on. Going back to Rappaport's (1999) five features of ritual, I found evidence to support only four. Namely 1) encoding by others than the performers, 2) adherence to form, 3) invariance, and 4) performance. In regard to the fifth element – lack of material efficacy – it was clear that a utilitarian purpose to these spring break performances exists. As Bosman (2006) pointed out: "Marketers who establish a presence in spring break areas hope not only to reach the 18- to 24-year-old demographic, which is typically resistant to traditional advertising, but to associate their brands with the positive memories students have of their vacations." For the most part, however, spring breakers behaved as they would at a tailgate or fraternity party: hanging out, socializing, playing alcohol-related games, flirting, and drinking constantly. After talking with literally hundreds of spring breakers, I found no evidence to suggest that spring break is a rite of passage for them: they simply want to get away from the cold and the "college drama," hang out, and have a good time.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on these findings, it seems premature to classify spring break as a rite of passage, as a number of spring break scholars have done. I would like to suggest that corporations have succeed in "ritualizing" spring break (Grimes 2004), stressing its compulsory nature. By ritualizing I mean "the act of deliberately cultivating or constructing a new rite" (Grimes, 2004, p. 28). If, as Kertzer (1988, p. 102) argues, "rite makes might" and the ability to enforce rituals translates into power, corporations with a business interest in spring break have of course every interest in ritualizing spring break. By emphasizing the ritual nature of spring break, complete with its own manufactured history and

associated rites, such as extreme behavior, corporations seem to be doing what Hobsbawn and Ranger (1983) called the "invention of tradition." Traditionally a tool of governments and authority to acquire and/or consolidate political power, in this particular case the goal is not to turn spring break into a "field of political struggle" (Kertzer, 1988, p. 104), but rather to use this phenomenon as a tool of corporate marketing. The purposes of a ritualized spring break are not political, although the methods used closely resemble those present in political rituals (Bell, 1997; Kertzer, 1974, 1988). In the case of spring break, the purpose is not to "specifically construct, display and promote the power of political institutions (...) or the political interests of distinct constituencies and subgroups" (Bell, 1997, p. 128). Rather, corporations wish to associate their brands to a particular event – spring break – regarded by college students as a pleasurable and memorable occasion. By doing so, corporations are in effect creating an "imagined community" (Anderson, 1983) of spring breakers, to whom marketing a variety of products will ultimately be easier. The corporate ritualization of tourist behavior has dramatic implications for coastal destinations, which traditionally have followed a pattern of Sand, Sea, Sun, and Sex as means of attracting young tourists in search of excitement and licentious leisure. In this paper, we further discuss how, when such tourist expectations are not met by the destination, visitation drops dramatically; the corporate ritualization of tourist behavior reinforces behaviors that may be at odds with the destination's local population's interest(s) and benefitting only external interests. Further discussion in light of recent tourism literature on tourism development in coastal areas ensues.

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PUBLIC AREAS	Beach Entrances																				sum	average
	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40			
2.1 Hanging out	56	96	43	22	52	32	32	42	36	46	44	62	12	13	20	60	70	73	70	876	46	
2.2 Tanning	20	3	40	15	13	6	44	19	29	29	3	12	13	24	13	10	22	30	58	400	21	
2.3 Playing sports	12	11	21	29	16	9	14	0	6	2	5	19	15	12	18	24	22	7	20	259	14	
2.4 Corporate-sponsored activities	0	11	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	1	0	17	32	2
2.5 Beach/Tailgate games	14	28	4	0	0	7	5	6	7	6	8	0	2	0	0	2	17	9	7	120	6	
2.6 Flirting	12	7	0	1	4	0	0	2	2	5	0	7	0	7	0	3	6	0	1	56	3	
2.7 Walking along beach	281	108	103	150	175	439	235	130	134	151	62	177	54	112	59	198	169	174	195	3102	163	
2.8 Taking photographs	3	1	1	1	2	4	0	6	3	3	1	4	0	10	0	3	9	21	3	72	4	
2.9 Using cell phone	6	2	6	4	5	8	5	4	5	3	1	2	4	1	5	2	5	7	8	79	4	
2.10 Concession activities	3	10	17	3	3	0	15	20	11	14	11	3	9	18	7	19	22	10	35	228	12	
2.11 Eating	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	5	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	29	2	
2.12 Urinating	9	0	0	1	0	4	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	18	1	
2.13 Alcohol consumption	89	54	35	23	59	105	51	37	50	41	39	64	12	34	17	37	62	52	53	910	48	
2.14 Smoking	0	2	1	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	1	3	6	21	1	
2.15 Reading	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	5	0	

Figure 1. Behavioral Counts for Public Areas

CORPORATE AREAS	Beach Entrances					sum	average
	19	20	21	41	42		
2.1 Hanging out	77	59	109	48	43	334	67
2.2 Tanning	5	2	33	16	15	70	14
2.3 Playing sports	32	16	18	48	49	162	32
2.4 Corporate-sponsored activities	21	23	0	0	0	44	9
2.5 Beach/Tailgate games	3	9	34	0	0	45	9
2.6 Flirting	4	8	6	0	0	18	4
2.7 Walking along beach	211	399	439	132	162	1342	268
2.8 Taking photographs	3	8	6	15	2	33	7
2.9 Using cell phone	3	4	8	2	4	20	4
2.10 Concession activities	7	7	17	9	13	52	10
2.11 Eating	0	0	4	2	0	6	1
2.12 Urinating	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2.13 Alcohol consumption	80	122	213	12	51	476	95
2.14 Smoking	3	0	2	0	3	8	2
2.15 Reading	0	0	0	0	1	1	0

Figure 2. Behavioral Counts for Corporate Areas

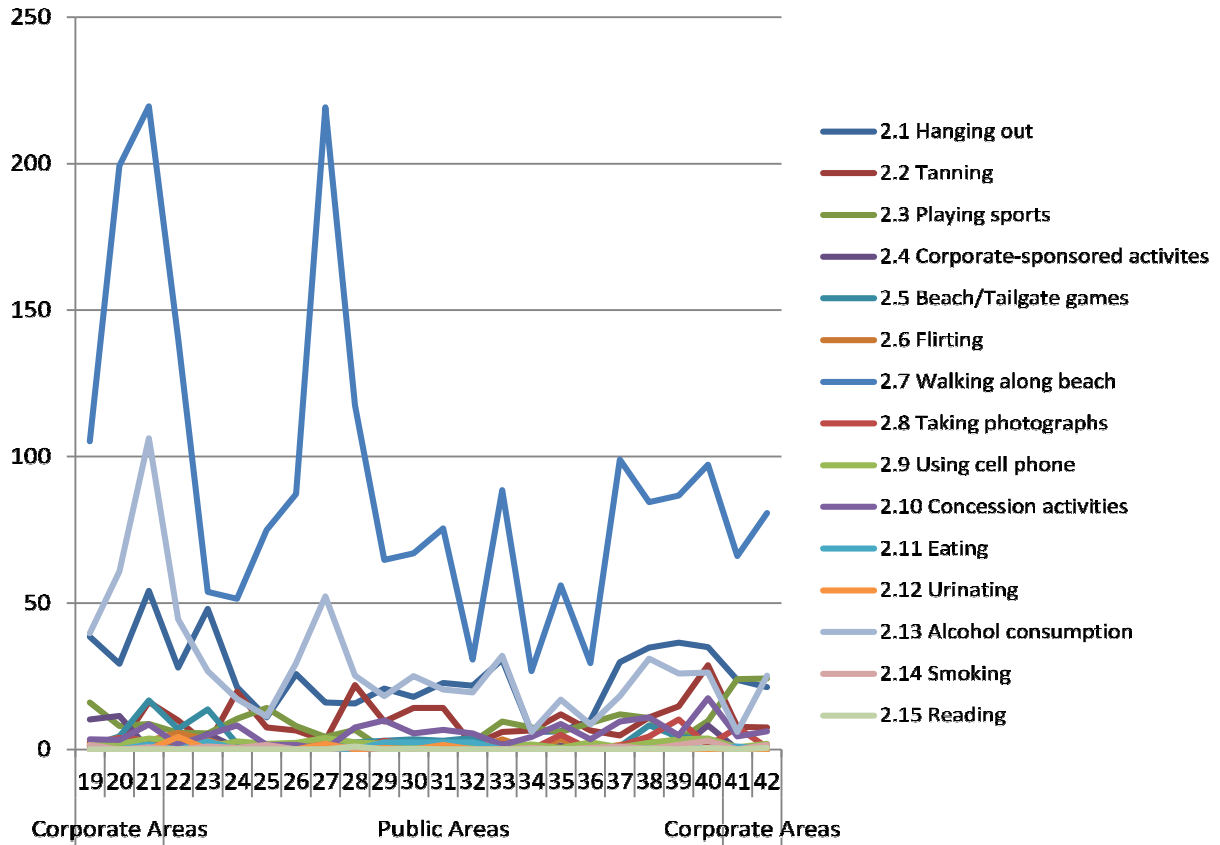


Figure 3. Behavioral Count Comparison between Public and Corporate Areas

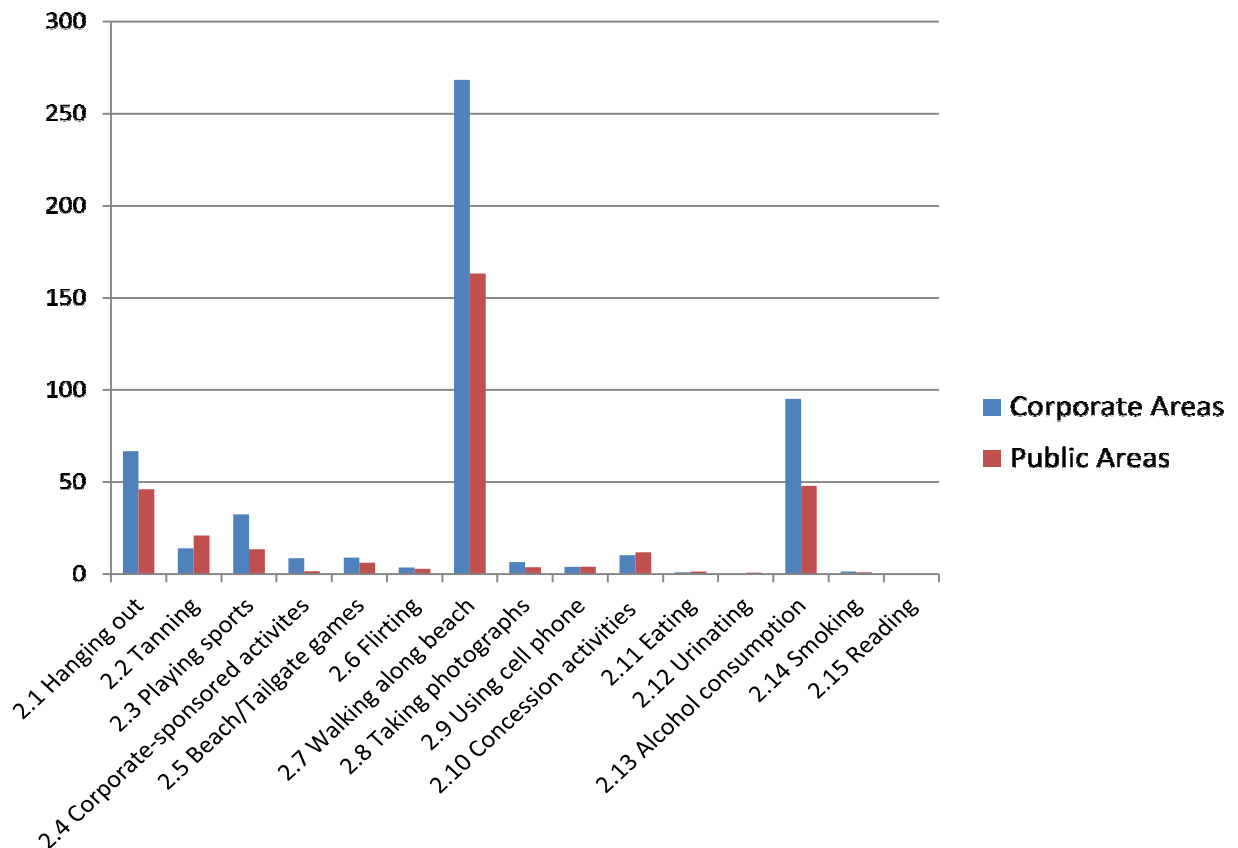


Figure 4. Behavioral Averages Comparison between Public and Corporate Areas

FACTOR INFLUENCING COASTAL TOURISM CIVILIZED BEHAVIOR

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INTRODUCTION

Presently, coastal tourism has progressively become a focus of growth for China's marine economic development under the guidance of the Maritime Power Strategy and the construction of the Maritime Silk Road in 2013, generating large-scale agglomerative development (Liu et al., 2019). The added value of the coastal tourism industry reached 1463.6 billion yuan in 2017, accounting for 46.1% of the added value of the major marine industries (State Oceanic Administration, 2017). However, it seems to have become common for tourists to throw garbage into the sea, spit on the beach, inscribe or scrawl graffiti onto seaside walks and other similar actions (Fenghuang, 2013); these bad behaviors may lead to beach pollution and the growth of harmful algae (Liu and Liu, 2018), in addition to noise pollution and traffic jams associated with an increasing number of visitors during the tourist season. It is worth noting that the coastal and marine space is "home" to a growing number of tourists and tourism facilities, and these are related to coastal tourism (Orams, 1999). Indeed, coastal tourism has provoked a dispute regarding environmental impacts and their compatibility with human activities (Papageorgiou, 2016).

Tourist behavior has become an increasing concern in China. For example, the dramatic increase in the number of Chinese outbound tourists in China has sometimes generated negative media reports about their uncivilized behavior (Zhang et al., 2019). Youth (2018) reported ten types of uncivilized behaviors in tourists' traveling, mainly including littering, unhygienic toilet practices, smoking in public, fighting for seats, jumping queues, talking loudly, inscribing, taking photos randomly in religious places, going barebacked, and

using vulgar language. These behaviors could not only worsen the sustainable development of tourism destinations but also destroy the image of Chinese tourism (Qiu, 2016). There might be many reasons for these uncivilized tourism behaviors, but the most important ones include the lack of environmental responsibility, a weak sense of morality and the awareness of deliberate damage (Li and He, 2002), which may be related to the lack of awareness of public space, the lack of rules and integrity, and differences in religious faiths and cultural customs (Hu, 2016). However, aside from the literature that has criticized tourists' uncivilized behavior (Ren, 1985) and partially analyzed this behavior and its impacts on Chinese tourists (Zhang et al., 2019), little attention has been given to the motivation and promotion of well-behaved and well-regarded tourists. In particular, there has been very little effort made to clarify how to motivate civilized tourism behavior in coastal settings. It has recently become apparent that coastal tourism causes various environmental problems due to a large number of tourists in the coastal scenic area (e.g., beach erosion, ocean pollution, excessive use of natural resources); thus, there is great pressure to alleviate the environmental impacts. Many tourist destinations depend on the attractiveness of the environment to entice visitors (Ramkissoon et al., 2013), so environmental quality plays a significant role in tourist satisfaction (Kim, 2014). Motivating coastal tourists to behave in a more civilized manner is important for coastal tourism destinations because this will create high-quality environments that enhance competitive and sustainable tourism markets.

Tourism is closely related to civilization; that is to say, the development of tourism is based on social and cultural foundations, which in turn promotes social civilization and progress (Yan,

1989). Civilized tourism has become a leading factor for countries seeking to improve their international tourism competitiveness (Wu, 2009). Great significance has been attached to civilized tourism behavior (Tuo and Lee, 2018), and the Chinese government has issued a series of laws and regulations. A campaign for civilized tourism (*wenming lvyou*) was formally inaugurated by the China Central Spiritual Civilization Steering Committee in 2006. According to *Tourism Etiquette Rules for Chinese Citizens Traveling at Home* (Wenming, 2006), *People's Republic of China Tourism Law* (Mct.gov.cn., 2013), *Interim Measures for the Administration of Tourism Uncivilized Behavior Records* (Mct.gov.cn., 2016) and *Tourism Market Blacklist Management Measures (Trial)* (Mct.gov.cn., 2018), several proposals were put forward to create a civilized and harmonious tourism environment.

Previous studies have mostly focused on outbound civilized tourism and countermeasures promoting civilized tourism behaviors (Wu, 2009; Huang and Li, 2016; Qiu, 2017), and these studies indicate that it is effective to implement laws, regulations, planning and construction to achieve civilized tourism. Seemingly, a range of management tools could reinforce civilization awareness, though there are few studies involving the systematic formation mechanism of civilized tourism behaviors. Civilized tourism behavior is a typical kind of pro-environmental behavior (Qiu, 2017). It is evident from prior studies that not much attention has been given to this perspective of normalizing and simulating. Moreover, the countermeasures to promote civilized tourism behaviors proposed by existing literature are still not specific enough and lack practicality, so they cannot undergo the testing of empirical research.

The primary purpose of this study is to examine how to motivate tourists to behave in a much more civilized way at Chinese coastal tourism destinations. More specifically, the objectives of the study are (1) to construct a theoretical analysis framework of civilized tourism behavioral intention by combining the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) and the Norm Activation Model (NAM); (2) to explore factors and formation mechanism of tourists' civilized behaviors; and (3) to propose motivating solutions and strategies using Fuzzy set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA).

This study makes several contributions to the previous literature on civilized tourism behavior. It is the first attempt to investigate the influencing mechanism for motivating tourists' civilized behaviors in the coastal tourism context. The findings are believed to be able to deepen the theoretical understanding of a significant set of coastal tourism civilized behaviors and benefit future policy-making for coastal destinations to differentiate themselves from rival destinations, increase competitive advantages in the markets, and enhance the sustainability of coastal tourism.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Civilized tourism behavior

There is still no generally accepted consensus on the concept of civilized tourism behavior in academic literature. For example, Huang and Li (2016) argued that civilized tourism behaviors are the combination of civilized behaviors of tourism subjects with the perception, emotion, knowledge and responsibility of civilization in the process of participating in tourism activities. Hu (2016) indicated that civilized tourism behaviors referred to the behaviors of tourists and tourism practitioners obeying the public order of tourism during the course of tourism activities, which means staying in line with laws, regulations and ethics. Civilized tourism behaviors is also a typical kind of pro-environmental behavior (Qiu et al., 2018), which is defined as any action that protects the environment or minimizes the negative impacts of human activity on the environment in either general daily practice or specific outdoor settings (Miller et al., 2015). When tourists display bad habits while traveling, such as spitting, littering, and making noise while eating, these behaviors worsen the tourism environment and the sustainable development of those destinations. Thus, learning from the definition of pro-environmental behavior (Miller et al., 2015), this study interpreted civilized tourism behavior as “all the behaviors that contribute to the ecological and environmental protection and do not exert negative influences on the image of tourism destination are made by tourists during their traveling”.

Generally, civilized tourism behaviors are the basic manners of tourists at tourism destinations, which mainly include keeping the environment

clean and tidy, observing public order, preserving the ecological environment, protecting historical sites and cultural relics, being careful with the use of public facilities, respecting the rights of other people, showing courtesy to others and taking part in healthy entertainments, according to *Tourism Etiquette Rules for Chinese Citizens Traveling at Home* (Wenming, 2006). This study measured the civilized tourism behaviors of tourists while traveling in coastal scenic areas. It details several behaviors such as protecting seawater from pollution, keeping the beaches clean, maintaining seaside walks without damage and so on.

In the academic literature, various theoretical approaches have been applied to understand individuals' environmental intentions and behaviors (Berenguer, 2010). Of all these, the Theory of Planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) and the Norm Activation Model (NAM; Schwartz, 1977) are deemed as representative theories (Wang and Zhang, 2017) and have been widely used to explain a variety of pro-environmental behaviors in hospitality and tourism contexts (Zhang et al., 2018). It is noted that the TPB views behaviors as motivated by self-interests (Wang and Zhang, 2017), while the NAM regards behaviors as being prosocial (Schwartz, 1977; Stern, 2010). As mentioned above, civilized tourism behaviors can be deemed as a case of pro-environmental behavior; indeed, a mixture could provide a stronger predictive power of explaining civilized behavior in different perspectives.

Personal norm and civilized tourism behavioral intention

The NAM (Schwartz, 1977) is one of the well-researched theoretical frameworks in predicting individuals' altruistic and prosocial intentions or behaviors, which postulates that one's pro-environmental behavior is predicted by three major constructs: awareness of consequences, ascribed responsibility and personal norm (De Groot and Steg, 2009). Awareness of consequences, which is also called problem awareness, is defined as whether someone is aware of the negative consequences for others or for other things one values when not acting in a prosocial manner (De Groot and Steg, 2009). Ascribed responsibility refers to the feeling of responsibility for the negative consequences of not acting in a prosocial manner

(Steg and De Groot, 2011). Personal norm is defined as an individual's moral obligation to conduct a particular behavior in accordance with the person's individual value system, which is also used in reference to moral norm (Schwartz, 1977; Berenguer, 2007; De Groot and Steg, 2009).

As claimed by previous studies, personal norm is the most proximal variable of the NAM and directly affects tourists' pro-environmental behavioral intention. Han et al. (2016) identified that for U.S. cruise travelers, their personal norm had a critical influence on intention towards environmentally responsible cruises. Similarly, Li and Wu (2019) found that in Hangzhou, a city in eastern China, both local visitors' and tourists' personal norms played a salient role in determining their pro-environmental intentions. Using an online panel survey, Han et al. (2019) verified that boosting tourists' feelings of the personal norm was essential to acquire a clear comprehension of their purchase decision for green cruise products, which aligned with their previous study (Han et al., 2016).

Given that individuals' civilized tourism behaviors draw largely on their morality and responsibility in protecting the environment, personal norm may play a significant role in tourists' intention toward civilized tourism behavior. According to Ajzen (1991), civilized tourism behavioral intention is how much a tourist is willing to try and how much effort he or she plans to exert in order to engage in civilized tourism. Tourists with higher levels of personal norms are more concerned with the good effects that their behaviors produce on the development of tourism destinations than that of tourists with lower personal norms. Therefore, tourists with relatively high levels of personal norms are more likely to have strong civilized tourism behavioral intentions. Based on the aforementioned discussion, the following hypothesis was established:

H1. Personal norm has a significant and positive effect on civilized tourism behavioral intention.

Meanwhile, it cannot be ignored that the positive impacts of personal norm on civilized tourism behavioral intention is also affected by awareness of consequences and ascribed responsibility. More specifically, there is a sequence process wherein personal norm exerts a positive impact on civilized tourism behavioral intention.

Initially, awareness of consequences can activate tourists' ascribed responsibility of civilized tourism behaviors. That is, when tourists realize that their behavior in a civilized manner could contribute to the protection of the seaside environment and enhancement of the destination image, they are more likely to produce a strong sense of responsibility to adopt civilized tourism behavior. Then, ascribed responsibility triggers personal norm because when tourists realize that they have a responsibility to conduct civilized tourism behavior, their moral obligation to achieve civilized tourism will likely be stimulated, which directly determines if they should engage in civilized tourism behavior. Therefore, the following hypotheses were established:

H2. Awareness of consequences has a significant and positive effect on ascribed responsibility in civilized tourism behavior context.

H3. Ascribed responsibility has a significant and positive effect on personal norm in civilized tourism behavior context.

Attitude and civilized tourism behavioral intention

The TPB (Ajzen, 1991) is one of the most researched theories to explain individual's behaviors from the perspective of self-interest (Zhang et al., 2017). According to the TPB, one's behavioral intention is determined by three antecedents: attitude toward the behavior, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. Due to its higher power in predicting one's intentions and behaviors, the TPB has been widely applied to explicate a variety of pro-environmental intentions and behaviors, such as picking up litter in protected areas (Brown et al., 2010), urban bike-sharing for holiday cycling (Kaplan et al., 2015), and green hotel visits (Verma and Chandra, 2018).

Attitude toward the behavior is the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the benefits and drawbacks of behaviors (Ajzen, 1991). That is, when determining whether to perform a specific behavior, a person is likely to assess the benefits and the costs resulting from the behavior (Han et al., 2016). Accordingly, if a tourist believes that performing a certain behavior will result in positive outcomes, he or she tends to possess a favorable attitude and is likely to perform it. Numerous studies have indicated that attitude is another critical influence on tourists'

pro-environmental behavioral intention. Song et al. (2014) conducted research in the 2012 Sancheong Oriental Medicine Festival and found that attitude influenced Korean visitors' desire to attend the festival, which in turn influenced their behavioral intentions. Via an online social network of students residing in Copenhagen, Kaplan et al. (2015) showed that a favorable attitude toward cycling was related to being physically active while on holiday, having an environmentally friendly vacation, and having greater convenience in saving money and time, which drove the behavioral intentions for holiday cycling. Similarly, in the study of Vesci and Botti (2019), attitude played a significant and positive role in predicting the revisiting intention towards local and small culinary festivals held in the Campania region of Southern Italy.

Based on previous studies, it can be assumed that a tourist's positive attitude is a prerequisite for producing civilized tourism behavioral intention. That is, if a tourist develops a positive attitude toward engaging in civilized tourism behavior, this attitude will strengthen the intention towards the behavior. More specifically, when tourists take the viewpoint that civilized tourism behaviors can contribute to the protection of the sea, the beach, marine life, and enhance their travel experience, they will have a stronger intention to adopt civilized tourism behaviors of their own motivation. Based on the aforementioned discussion, we proposed the following hypothesis:

H4. Attitude significantly and positively affects civilized tourism behavioral intention.

Subjective norm and civilized tourism behavioral intention

Subjective norm is defined as the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform the behaviors, according to Ajzen (1991). In other words, if a tourist believes that others who are close to or important to himself or herself are in favor of a certain behavior, he or she is likely to be motivated to meet their expectations and engage in the behavior. A significant number of studies have clearly demonstrated the important role of the subjective norm in determining an individual's behavioral intention. According to the study done by Quintal et al. (2010), in South Korea, China and Japan, as the subjective norm toward visiting Australia become more positive, a person's intention

to visit Australia increased. Similarly, Thomas et al., (2015) found that in Australia and the USA, a higher subjective norm had a positive and significant effect on wine tourists' willingness to revisit the winery. Utilizing a self-administered questionnaire to collect data from young Indian consumers, Verma and Chandra (2018) identified that a subjective norm significantly and positively influenced their intention to visit green hotels.

In general, individuals tend to consider and comply with other people's opinions to perform a certain behavior (Song et al., 2014), which means that an individual's behavior is likely to be influenced by salient others. Given the civilized tourism behavior, if a tourist perceives that other people evaluate the civilized tourism behavior as a positive or valuable activity, his or her intention towards engaging in the behavior will be activated. In other words, tourists' decisions on whether to perform civilized tourism behavior are largely related to those important others, such as parents, spouses, colleagues, friends, and especially travel companions. If those important referents adopt civilized tourism behaviors in a coastal scenic area, tourists will follow them to do the same behavior. Therefore, when significant others hold the opinion that adopting civilized tourism behavior is an important and necessary behavior, tourists' intention toward civilized tourism behavior will increase with their motivation to comply. Accordingly, the following hypothesis was proposed:

H5. Subjective norm significantly and positively affects behavioral intention toward civilized tourism.

Perceived behavioral control and civilized tourism behavioral intention

According to Ajzen (1991), perceived behavioral control indicates the perceived ease of or difficulty in performing the behaviors. In other words, if a tourist believes that there is enough time, money and chance to perform the behavior easily, he or she will perform it. Studies have found that there is a significant relationship between perceived behavioral control and tourists' pro-environmental behavioral intention. Brown et al. (2010) identified perceived behavioral control as a visitor's belief that he or she has the opportunity, knowledge, ability, skill and resources to perform a special behavior, and further demonstrated its positive effects on the

behavior of picking up litter. Chen and Tung (2014) found that in Taiwan, when an individual perceived more behavioral control of green hotels, he or she would be more likely to have the intention to visit them. Similarly, in a study done by Rambalak et al. (2019), in India, perceived behavioral control was also found to have a positive influence on travelers' behavioral intention towards green hotels.

Although one study done at the Blue Mountains National Park in Australia showed that perceived behavioral control had no significant effect on visitors' intention towards noncompliance (Goh et al., 2017), given that tourists' civilized behavior is likely to be related to their education, perceived behavioral control may play a significant role in civilized tourism behavioral intention. For civilized tourism behaviors, the main constraints on adopting it might also be time and vigor. If a tourist is in a situation where the resources or opportunities are insufficient, his or her behavioral intention toward civilized tourism behavior will decrease. For instance, when tourists are having fun at the beach, they may not have the time or strength to put rubbish into the trash can in the distance. That is, when a tourist holds little control over carrying out civilized tourism behavior because of the lack of availability of required resources, his or her behavioral intention towards performing this behavior will be lower. Of course, if tourists perceive stronger control over barriers, there is a higher likelihood that they will be actively engaged in civilized tourism behaviors. In light of the aforementioned traits, we proposed the following hypothesis:

H6. Perceived behavioral control significantly and positively affects behavioral intention towards civilized tourism.

A model driving civilized tourism behavioral intention

Even though NAM and TPB have been widely used to explain an individual's pro-environmental intentions and behaviors, both theories have their own limitations. From the self-interest perspective alone, the TPB contends that the individual makes a choice about adopting a certain behavior or not based on the measurement of the cost and benefit (Wang and Zhang, 2017), which neglects public welfare of behavior. On the other hand, the NAM assumes that one's behavior is performed based on

the consideration of moral obligation from the prosocial perspective (Wang and Zhang, 2017), which could make up for the deficiency of TPB. As suggested by Achterberg and Miller (2004), integrating distinct constructs from competing theories into one or more theoretical models can be more effective than using only one theory in predicting and understanding an individual’s behaviors. Furthermore, the previous literature has pointed out the appropriateness of the integrative model of the NAM and TPB in predicting pro-environmental intentions and behaviors (Shi et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2018). However, to the best of our knowledge, there has still been relatively little attention given as to how this integrative model can be applied to civilized tourism behavioral intention. Therefore, this study converged NAM and TPB into one theoretical framework in order to offer a more comprehensive understanding of tourists’ behavioral intention toward civilized tourism. The proposed conceptual model of the current study is displayed in Figure 1.

The significant and positive relationship

between subjective norm and personal norm has been claimed in various settings (Teisl et al., 2009; Peters et al., 2011; López-Mosquera et al., 2014). In the civilized tourism context, if a tourist’s perception is that performing civilized tourism behaviors would be socially desirable, especially if it meets the expectation of significant people in their lives, that perception will guide his or her judgement to feel obliged to behave in a civilized manner. Hence, we posited that subjective norm can affect personal norm positively in civilized tourism behaviors. In addition, as previously hypothesized, subjective norm and personal norm have positive impacts on civilized tourism behavioral intention; thus, we proposed the following hypotheses, including the first mediation hypothesis:

H7. Subjective norm has a significant effect on personal norm in civilized tourism behavior context.

H7a. Personal norm partially mediates the relationship between subjective norm and civilized tourism behavioral intention.

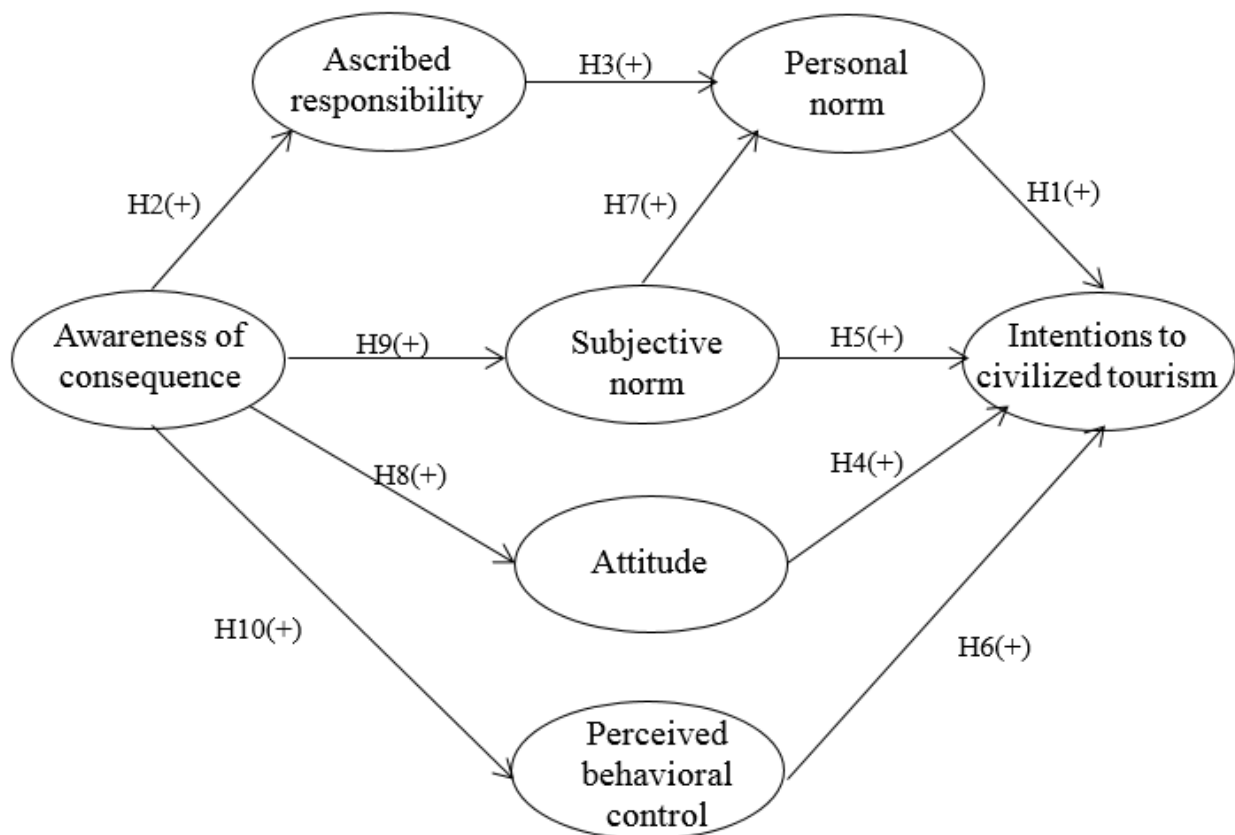


Figure 1. The Proposed Research Model.

Note: positive sign (+) signifies the direction of the hypothesis.

There is a significant relationship between awareness of consequences and each of the three variables of TPB. More specifically, the more positive an individual expects the consequence to be for a certain behavior, the more positive the attitude toward the behavior and the less perceived the social pressure and difficulty to implement it (Onwezen et al., 2013; Han, 2015). Similarly, in the current study, once tourists realize that performing civilized tourism behaviors can contribute to the development of coastal scenic areas or that not performing civilized tourism behaviors can produce several bad consequences, they will believe that civilized tourism is a good thing and needs to be done. Meanwhile, the social pressure they receive from other people will decline, and they will feel this behavior is within their power. Accordingly, we established the following hypotheses:

H8. Awareness of consequences affects attitude toward civilized tourism behavior significantly.

H9. Awareness of consequences affects subjective norm significantly in a civilized tourism behavior context.

H10. Awareness of consequences affects perceived behavioral control significantly in a civilized tourism behavior context.

METHOD

Measurements and questionnaire

Multiple items were utilized to measure the constructs in the proposed research model. To ensure initial reliability and validity of our measurements, we adopted items from previous valid studies and made adjustments to make them suitable for civilized tourism behavior.

One of the three variables within NAM, awareness of consequences, was developed from Bamberg and Schmidt (2003) and Bamberg et al. (2007), and it included three items (e.g., “*Civilized tourism behavior can keep the beach clean*”). Ascribed responsibility was measured based on Stern et al. (1999), Onwezen et al. (2013), and Han (2015), and it was composed of three items (e.g., “*I believe that every tourist is partly responsible for the environmental problems caused by the uncivilized tourism behavior*”). Personal norm was measured by a scale developed from Gärling et al.

(2003), Bamberg et al. (2007), and Onwezen et al. (2013), and it included three items (e.g., “*I feel an obligation toward civilized tourism behavior instead of uncivilized tourism behavior when traveling in coastal tourism areas*”). For the three variables within TPB, attitude toward civilized tourism behavior and subjective norm were both adapted from Ajzen (1991) and Han et al. (2010), and they included four items (valuable, wise, beneficial and pleasant) and three items (e.g., “*Most people who are important to me think I should engage in civilized tourism behavior*”), respectively. Perceived behavioral control was developed from Ajzen (1991), Han et al. (2010), and Brown et al. (2010), and it was composed of three items (e.g., “*Whether or not I engage in civilized tourism behavior when traveling is completely up to me*”). Lastly, civilized tourism behavioral intention was evaluated with three items (e.g., “*I would be willing to protect the ecological environment in coastal scenic areas*”), and it was adapted from Miller et al. (2015), Qiu (2017), and Kiatkawsin and Han (2017). In sum, we used 23 items for the assessment of 7 constructs in our study. All of these items were measured by a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree).

The relevance of the measurement instruments were reviewed by academic experts, and a pretest with 33 questionnaires was conducted. After minor adjustments to wording, the final version of the questionnaire was composed of three sections: a brief introduction of civilized tourism behavior, these measurements for study variables, and a demographic profile.

Data collection

Data collection was done at the Qingdao coastal scenic area between October 2018 and November 2018. The Qingdao coastal scenic area in Shandong Province, China, is a national class 4A tourism area that is famous for its long coastline, numerous bays and abundant natural and cultural tourism resources (Liu et al., 2019). In recent years, with the development of the tourism industry and an increasing number of tourists, the Qingdao coastal scenic area has been confronted with several problems, such as beach pollution, the growth of harmful algae and so on (Ji et al., 2015; Liu and Liu, 2018), which lead to an unfavorable influence on its ecological environment and image. Therefore,

it is especially necessary and important to explore tourists' civilized tourism behaviors to enhance the environmental protection and sustainable development of the Qingdao coastal scenic area.

Our survey questionnaires were randomly distributed to general tourists traveling in the Qingdao coastal scenic area so that sample selection

was consistent with the research objective. A total of 450 questionnaires were returned. After removing inappropriate responses, 400 valid questionnaires were further analyzed, for an effective rate of 88.9%. The demographic profiles of respondents were depicted in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Profile of the Respondents.

Characteristics	N=400	Percentage
Gender		
Male	173	43.30%
Female	227	56.70%
Age		
18 to 30 years	301	75.20%
31 to 45 years	71	17.80%
46 to 60 years	24	6%
Older than age 60 years	4	1%
Education		
Less than high school	7	1.80%
High school	32	8%
Some college	73	18.20%
Undergraduate	185	46.20%
Postgraduate and above	103	25.80%
Monthly household income		
below ¥3000	174	43.50%
¥3001-¥6000	119	29.70%
¥6001-¥9999	60	15%
¥10000-¥20000	35	8.80%
above ¥20000	12	3%

Tools for data analysis

To contribute to a better understanding of travelers' civilized tourism behavioral intention and to improve civilized tourism behavior frequency, we employed mixed analytical approaches integrating Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) and fsQCA. SEM was specified to test each of the study's hypotheses. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) proposed a two-stage approach to SEM. For the first stage, confirmatory factor analysis was used to evaluate the reliability and validity of the measurement model by calculating the factor loading, Cronbach's alpha and AVE. For the second stage, the structural model was used to explore the relationships among the latent variables and to test hypotheses by calculating path coefficients, p -values and R^2 .

Additionally, fsQCA was further adopted to investigate casual configurations in forming travelers' civilized tourism behavior intentions, which could encapsulate the essence of complex associations (Pappas and Papatheodorou, 2017) and identify multiple solutions that can successfully lead to the same proposed outcome (Elbaz et al., 2018).

FINDINGS

Measurement model

In accordance with Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) approach, confirmatory factor analysis was performed to assess the overall fit of the measurement model. The goodness of fit indicators were as follows: $\chi^2 = 551.285$, $df = 188$, χ^2/df

= 2.932, $p < .000$, RMSEA = .070, CFI = .940, NFI = .913, TLI = .927, IFI = .941, which revealed the proposed model fit to the data.

Item reliability was tested by the factor loadings, as shown in Table 2, which were all above .5 and significant, demonstrating that all items effectively measured their corresponding construct (Organ et al., 2015). Additionally, construct reliability was checked by composite reliability and Cronbach's alpha (Yadegaridehkordi et al., 2018). The composite reliability surpassed the generally accepted threshold of .7 (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012), and the Cronbach's alpha exceeded the minimum requirement of .6 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988), suggesting adequate internal consistency between measurement items and constructs.

Convergent validity and discriminant validity were assessed using AVE values and between-construct correlations (Kiatkawsin and Han, 2017), as shown in Table 2 and 3. With the exception of perceived behavioral control, which had the AVE value of 0.499, the AVE estimates for other constructs were higher than the recommended level of .5 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), providing strong evidence of convergent validity. In addition, the square root of the AVE value of each construct exceeded the inter-construct correlations, presenting strong evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Overall, all the tests on the measurement model demonstrated good reliability and validity for measuring the constructs.

Table 2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Constructs and Items	Std. factor loadings	Cronbach's alpha	CR	AVE
Attitude		.886	.893	.678
For me, civilized tourism behavior is valuable.	.758***			
For me, civilized tourism behavior is wise.	.919***			
For me, civilized tourism behavior is beneficial.	.870***			
For me, civilized tourism behavior is pleasant.	.732***			
Subjective norm		.810	.819	.604
Most people who are important to me think I should engage in civilized tourism behavior.	.800***			
Most people who are important to me would want me to engage in civilized tourism behavior.	.862***			
Most people who are important to me support my idea to engage in civilized tourism behavior.	.654***			
Perceived behavioral control		.681	.737	.499
Whether or not I engage in civilized tourism behavior when traveling is completely up to me.	.573***			
I am confident that if I want, I can engage in civilized tourism behavior when traveling.	.930***			
It is easy for me to engage in civilized tourism behavior when traveling.	.550***			
Awareness of consequence		.913	.916	.784
Civilized tourism behavior can keep the beach clean.	.842***			
Civilized tourism behavior can maintain infrastructure such as seaside walks without damage.	.884***			
Civilized tourism behavior can maintain the image of coastal scenic areas.	.929**			
Ascribed responsibility		.838	.851	.658
I believe that every tourist is partly responsible for the environmental problems caused by the uncivilized tourism behavior.	.839***			
I feel that every tourist is jointly responsible for the environmental problems caused by the uncivilized tourism behavior.	.882***			
Every tourist must take responsibility for the environmental problems caused by the uncivilized tourism behavior.	.701***			
Personal norm		.883	.887	.725
I feel an obligation to engage in civilized tourism behavior instead of uncivilized tourism behavior when traveling in coastal tourism areas.	.777***			
I feel that it is important to engage in civilized tourism behavior, reducing the harm to the ocean and environment.	.927***			
I feel it is important that travelers engage in civilized tourism behavior to make tourism sustainable.	.843***			
Civilized tourism behavioral intention		.950	.950	.864
I would be willing to protect the ecological environment in coastal scenic areas.	.950***			
I would be willing to protect the tourism resources in coastal scenic areas.	.931***			
I would be willing to obey public order in coastal scenic areas.	.907***			

Note: CR: Composite reliability; AVE: Average variance extracted.

Table 3. Discriminant Validity.

	CTBI	PN	AC	AR	PBC	SN	A
CTBI	.823						
PN	.761	.777					
AC	.301	.330	.706				
AR	.478	.640	.391	.885			
PBC	.325	.314	.385	.443	.811		
SN	.488	.397	.381	.423	.387	.851	
ATT	.496	.478	.150	.353	.218	.477	.930

Note: The bold diagonal elements represent the square root of AVE. Elements below the bold diagonal are correlations estimated between the constructs. ATT:Attitude; SN:Subjective Norm; PBC:Perceived behavioral control; AR:Ascribed responsibility; AC:Awareness of Consequence; PN:Personal Norm; CTBI:Civilized Tourism Behavioral Intention.

Structural equation model

Upon completion of measurement model assessment, SEM was used to test the hypothesized relationships among constructs in the proposed conceptual framework, as depicted in Figure 2.

The significant relationships between latent variables were evaluated by path coefficients and *p*-values (So et al., 2018). It is evident that awareness of consequences had a positive relationship with ascribed responsibility ($\beta = .430, p < .001$), ascribed responsibility affected personal norm significantly ($\beta = .235, p < .001$), and personal norm increased civilized tourism behavioral intention positively ($\beta = .630, p < .001$). Thus, H1, H2 and H3 were supported. In addition, both attitude ($\beta = .155, p < .001$) and subjective norm ($\beta = .168, p < .001$) exerted significant impacts on civilized tourism behavioral intention. The relationship between perceived behavioral control and civilized tourism behavioral intention was found to be insignificant ($\beta = .052, p = .234$). Hence, H4 and H5

were supported, and H6 was rejected. Furthermore, the results also indicated that subjective norm was positively related to personal norm ($\beta = .375, p < .001$), empirically supporting H7. Likewise, awareness of consequences had a positive influence on attitude ($\beta = .370, p < .001$), subjective norm ($\beta = .489, p < .001$) and perceived behavioral control ($\beta = .479, p < .001$), respectively. Thus, H8, H9 and H10 were also supported. In summary, with the exception of H6, all the other hypotheses in the structural model were supported.

Furthermore, R^2 is the most important criterion for the assessment of the goodness of structural model, which was performed to indicate the predictive power of the model (So et al., 2018). The results demonstrated that the explanatory power of attitude, subjective norm, and personal norm in predicting civilized tourism behavioral intention is 58.9 percent, which indicates the strong prediction ability of the proposed model.

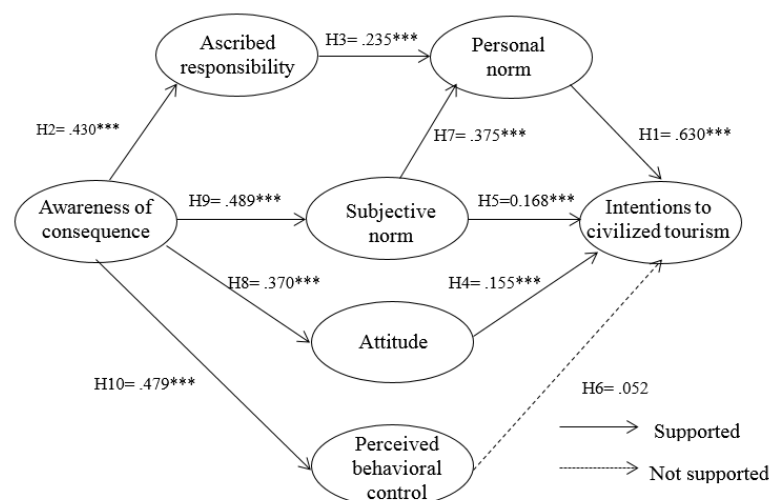


Figure 2. Hypotheses Testing of the Structural Model.

Note: *** for $p < .001$, ** for $p < .01$, and * for $p < .05$.

The mediating role of personal norm

According to the Baron and Kenny (1986) study, a variable functions as a mediator when it accounts for the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable. Further, if the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator as well as between the mediator and the independent variable is significant, but the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is not, there is a full mediating role. Otherwise, a partial mediating role exists.

To explore the mediating effect of personal norm on the relationship between subjective norm and civilized tourism behavioral intention, this study adopted the bootstrap method with 5000 bootstrap

samples and a 95% bias-corrected (BC) confidence interval. The absence of a zero in the ranges of confidence interval indicated statistical significance for all the direct and indirect effects, as shown in Table 4. Results also indicated that the indirect effect, from subjective norm to civilized tourism behavioral intention via personal norm, was significant and positive ($\beta = .175$, $p < .001$), which suggested a mediating role of personal norm existed. Because the direct effects between subjective norm and civilized tourism behavioral intention was also significant and positive ($\beta = .145$, $p < .001$), personal norm played a partial mediating role in the relationship between subjective norm and civilized tourism behavioral intention, and H7a is supported.

Table 4. The Mediating Analysis Results.

Effect	Standardized estimate	S.E.	C.R.	Bias-corrected 95% CI	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Subjective norm→Behavioral intention	.145***	.029	5.016	.053	.285
Personal norm→Behavioral intention	.721***	.053	13.682	.545	1.027
Subjective norm→Personal norm	.243***	.036	6.709	.124	.396

Note: *** for $p < .001$, ** for $p < .01$, and * for $p < .05$.

fsQCA analysis

In light of the SEM results showing that only the path coefficient of personal norm exceeded .6 (see Figure 2), which implied that the relationships between the antecedent variables and civilized tourism behavioral intention could be asymmetric (Elbaz et al., 2018), alternative combinations of casual conditions (antecedents) could generate the same outcome (civilized tourism behavioral intention). Therefore, this study adopted a configuration approach fsQCA to analyze the combined conditions that lead to the outcome of civilized tourism behavioral intention. The fsQCA indicated that the influence of conditions on specific outcomes depended on how the antecedents were combined rather than on the levels of the individual antecedent (Ferguson et al., 2017) and they had the ability to identify multiple solutions that can successfully lead to the same proposed outcome (Elbaz et al., 2018), which is difficult to capture through the conventional multiple regression analysis (Vis, 2012).

The fsQCA results provided two casual configurations with high consistency (above .9), as shown in Table 5. As we can see, combinations

of variables rather than single variables lead to the civilized tourism behavioral intention. The first configuration indicated that civilized tourism behavioral intention is likely to be achieved when travelers have high attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioral control, awareness of consequences and personal norm. The second configuration suggested that a combination of high attitude, subjective norm, awareness of consequences, ascribed responsibility and personal norm could result in travelers' civilized tourism behavioral intention. All of the raw and solution coverages were above 50%, which means that the configurations explained a large proportion of civilized tourism behavioral intention. Comparing two configurations, we found that the lack of perceived behavioral control was offset by ascribed responsibility, which indicates that perceived behavioral control has no significant effect on civilized tourism behavioral intentions, as mentioned in the previous hypothesis analysis (H6). Overall, these two configurations could explain 91.7% of the likelihood of travelers' civilized tourism behavioral intention.

Table 5. Complex Solutions of Civilized Tourism Behavioral Intention.

Casual configuration	Raw coverage	Unique coverage	Consistency
$CTBI = f(ATT, SN, PBC, AC, AR, PN)$			
model 1: ATT*SN*PBC*AC*PN	.882	.047	.998
model 2: ATT*SN*AC*AR*PN	.870	.035	.998
solution coverage: .917			
solution consistency: .998			

Note: * means logical operator AND.

CONCLUSIONS

Summary and discussion

Because of the trend of numerous tourists travelling from home and abroad to China, standardizing and motivating tourists' civilized behavior has become one of the most extensive academic topics within tourism literature. Although recent efforts have been made to examine civilized behavior in tourism settings, few prior studies verified how to motivate tourists to behave in a civilized way more consciously and on their own accord, especially in coastal tourism destinations. Therefore, this study intended to enrich the field of study by exploring the formation mechanism of civilized tourism behaviors systematically. From the theoretical perspective, this is one of the few studies that provide a better understanding of civilized tourism behaviors by converging NAM and TPB theories into one comprehensive theoretical framework, hence enriching the existing literature. In addition, from the methodological perspective, this study applied the Symmetrical Analysis Method (SEM) to investigate the factors that affect travelers' civilized tourism behavioral intention and an asymmetrical analysis method (fsQCA) to explore the casual configurations that lead to one's civilized tourism behavior.

The current study found that both the self-interest motive and the prosocial motive play significant roles in forming tourists' civilized behavioral intention. More specifically, the results concluded that H1, H2 and H3 were supported. The positive relationships between awareness of consequences, ascribed responsibility, personal norm and civilized tourism behavioral intentions were confirmed. The findings imply that tourists who realize the sound consequences of civilized tourism behaviors are more likely to produce a

strong sense of responsibility, then their moral obligation will likely be stimulated, which directly determines if they should perform civilized tourism behavior.

Second, the results concluded that H4 and H5 were supported, which verified attitude and subjective norm both have significant impacts on civilized tourism behavioral intentions. The findings suggested that tourists tend to adopt civilized behaviors when they have a positive perspective on civilized tourism behavior and believe it is socially expected. In addition, this study found an interesting result, that is, perceived behavioral control had no significant effect on civilized tourism behavioral intention (H6). One explanation may be that tourists believe that adopting civilized tourism behaviors mainly depends on internal factors, such as an individual's moral responsibility and positive perspective towards civilized tourism behaviors.

Finally, the findings also concluded that H7, H7a, H8, H9 and H10 were all supported, which demonstrated that the positive relationship between subjective norm and personal norm, the mediating role of personal norm in the relationship between subjective norm and civilized tourism behavioral intention, and awareness of consequences had significant effects on attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioral control, respectively. The findings suggested that tourists' perception of how significant others in their lives viewed civilized tourism behavior activated their moral obligation to behave in a civilized manner and further form the behavioral intention toward civilized tourism. In addition, tourists tend to show a more positive attitude, a lower social pressure from other people and feel civilized tourism behavior is within their power when they believe that performing civilized tourism behaviors can produce good outcomes.

Implications

This paper explored the influencing mechanisms of tourists' civilized tourism behavioral intentions in coastal scenic areas by combining the NAM with the TPB, which not only enriches the theoretical system of tourists' civilized tourism behavior but also makes up for the shortcomings of the current empirical research on the influencing mechanisms of tourists' civilized tourism behavior. First, attitude, subjective norm and personal norm play important roles in the formation of civilized tourism behavioral intentions, which verified that civilized tourism behavior is not only a behavior motivated by self-interest but also a pro-environmental behavior (Qiu et al., 2018). Second, subjective norm not only has a direct impact on civilized tourism behavioral intention but also an indirect influence on it via personal norm, which is a useful attempt to reveal the proposition that "how subjective norm contributes to environmentally friendly behavior" (Park and Ha, 2014). Finally, this study clarified that civilized tourism behavior is a relatively complex behavior, and the superposition of multiple factors promotes the intention of civilized tourism behavior better, which provides a theoretical basis for taking reasonable measures to motivate tourists to behave in the civilized way.

Furthermore, this study also provides effective practical implications for the management of coastal destinations in China. It is extremely necessary to create a sound social atmosphere for tourists to behave in the civilized way. Government agencies and social communities could organize civilized propaganda activities, civilized etiquette training and other activities in order to form a harmonious civilized tourism atmosphere. Furthermore, strengthening tourists' responsibility increases their motivation to behave in a good way. Coastal scene managers can display the shocking pictures that depict the bad consequences that result from not adopting civilized tourism behaviors (e.g., the sea is filled with garbage and the beach is full of food residue) in order to promote tourists fully understanding the importance of civilized tourism and behaving in a civilized manner as a result of their own motivation. The third method is to enhance the awareness of civilized tourism. Only when tourists believe that civilized tourism is a meaningful thing from the bottom of their hearts

will civilized tourism behavior be practiced in the actual traveling process. To this end, school education can be used to cultivate students' good habits of civilized tourism and promote the development of civilized tourism habits of family members, thus guiding the practice of civilized tourism behavior.

Limitations

Despite the theoretical and methodological contributions of this present study, several limitations need to be acknowledged. As every tourist has different education levels, regional cultures and social backgrounds, the applicability of these findings could be aligned with the most previous studies. Future research should enlarge the sampling frame and apply the conceptual model to tourists from different countries or cultures in order to determine whether the model is equally valid. In addition, considering that the types of civilized tourism behaviors are diverse, the influencing mechanisms behind each behavior may be different. Future research could focus on a certain subset of behavior and reveal the influencing mechanism behind it, paving the road for further research on civilized tourism behavior.

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EXAMINING THE ROLE OF TRAVEL FUTURE TIME PERSEPECTIVE, HEALTH CONDITION, CHRONOLOICAL AGE, BASIS PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS ON OLDER ADULTS' TRAVEL INTENTION

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INTRODUCTION

Although general travel desire and benefits are relatively universal regardless of age, older adults' travel behavior is not always like those of their younger counterparts due to decreased physical function and changes in psychological state as individuals age (Anderson & Langmeyer, 1982; Jang & Wu, 2006; Kim, 2009; Patuelli & Nijkamp, 2016; Sardinha, Santos, Silva, Baptista, & Owen, 2015). In this context, many tourism scholars have exclusively studied older adults' travel behavior separate from the younger generation, such as travel behavior based on different lifestyle groups with sociodemographic variables (Hildebrand, 2003), travel constraints and coping strategy (Kazemina, Del Chiappa, & Jafari, 2015; Gao & Kerstetter, 2016), and risk analysis during and after travel (Alon, Shitrit, & Chowers, 2010).

In particular, in the aging population, because older adults are much closer to the end of their life, and due to the inextricable connection between time left in life and chronological age, knowing older adults' psychological state, which concerns their remaining future time and travel intention based on different age groups and their health condition might play an important role in understanding older adults' travel behavior. Therefore, this study examines to identify the role of travel FTP controlling for the effects of other independent variables (i.e., demographic information, health condition Basic Psychological Needs) on older adults' travel intention.

LITERATURE REVIEW

As chronological age is accompanied with many individual and social changes such as dysfunction of physical condition, retirement from work, and loss of spouse which are especially meaningful for older adults as markers of transition, older adults' travel behavior can be different by these factors (Ahn & Janke, 2011; Mathur & Moschis, 2005). In addition, since health is directly associated with older adults' travel behavior since chronological age is accompanied by physical and mental health decrease (Kim, 2009). According to Sarkisian, Shunkwiler, Aguilar, and Moore (2006), older adults have low expectations with physical and mental health, as well as cognitive function as they age. Although social systems (e.g., pension, retirement polices, medical coverage) and cultural perception (e.g., ageism, elderly oriented culture) are important indicators for determining the concept of chronological age, health condition (i.e., physical, mental) is also a core feature to predict subjective age (Barak, 2009). When older adults have poor health condition, older adults consider their age older than real age and have strong feeling close to mortality (Hubley & Russell, 2009; Uotinen, Rantanen, & Suutama, 2005). With good subjective health condition, older adults perceive their future as more positive while older adults who perceive their health as poor showed that they have less future plans and hopes (Kotter-Grühn & Smith, 2011). Since travel activity requires better health condition than normal everyday activity, older adults are reluctant to travel when they have pathological issues (e.g., diseases, disabilities) due to time for preparation, mobility issues and anxiety regarding

health (Sardinha et al., 2015).

Regarding the perception of remaining future time, Carstensen, Isaacowitz, and Charles (1999) defined future time perspective (FTP) as an individual's awareness of having limited time to live and asserted that perceived remaining time affects an individual's behavior. Indeed, as people age, the perceived remaining time in life becomes smaller (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). FTP can be viewed in two ways: (1) future as a time of opportunities or (2) future as a time of limitations (Kochoian, Raemdonck, Frenay, & Zacher, 2016). Although awareness of time is omnipresent and affects individual behavior regardless of differences in culture and ethnicity, subjectively perceived time can differ depending on age because older adults are more sensitive to their remaining future time than younger age groups, even within the same elderly population (Carstensen, 2006).

METHOD

The survey was collected from May 6 to June 3, 2017, using the paper Survey. A cross-sectional paper survey was conducted with older adults over 60 years old. A total of 577 older adults were included in the study who reside in Midwestern, USA. A hierarchical regression analysis was performed to identify the role of travel FTP controlling for the effects of other independent variables (i.e., demographic information, Basic Psychological Needs) on older adults' travel intention. In the first step, age, gender, education level, household income status, employ status, and physical and mental health status were analyzed to predict travel intention. In the second step, basic psychological needs were added. In the third step, travel FTP was added in this study. All the analysis was performed using the SPSS 24 software package.

FINDINGS

The table 1 shows the summarized results. At the step 1, results showed that only chronological

age ($\beta = -.195$, $t = -4.458$, $p < .001$) was negatively associated with travel intention. All other control variables gender, education level, employ status, and income level were unrelated to travel intention. At the step 2, health condition were added and results showed that chronological age ($\beta = -.093$, $t = -2.094$, $p < .05$) and physical health condition ($\beta = .275$, $t = 3.812$, $p < .001$) were significantly associated with travel intention. However, mental health condition was not associated with travel intention. At the step 3, basic psychological needs were added and relatedness ($\beta = .153$, $t = 3.648$, $p < .001$), competence ($\beta = .120$, $t = 2.781$, $p < .05$), and autonomy ($\beta = .074$, $t = 1.705$, $p < .01$) were positively significant on travel intention. Besides basic psychological needs, physical health condition ($\beta = .171$, $t = 2.381$, $p < .05$) was positively related to travel intention while chronological age was not statically related to travel intention at this stage. At the step 4, travel FTP added and results show that OFTP ($\beta = .154$, $t = 2.518$, $p < .05$) is statistically significant while LFTP ($\beta = .059$, $t = 1.043$, $p = .297$) is not significant on travel intention. All the basic psychological needs (relatedness: $\beta = .121$, $t = 2.879$, $p < .05$., competence; $\beta = .121$, $t = 2.852$, $p < .05$., autonomy; $\beta = .080$, $t = 1.892$, $p < .01$) were also positively significant on travel intention.

In summary, at step one, chronological age was negatively related to travel intention. At step 2, although age was still negatively related to travel intention, the association with travel intention was decreased and physical health was positively related to travel intention. At step 3, all the basic psychological needs and physical health were positively related to travel intention while chronological age was no more related to travel intention. At step 4, among travel FTP, only OFTP was positively related to travel intention as well as basic psychological needs. However physical health is unrelated to travel intention at this step. The final model R^2 was .203 ($p < .001$) with whole variables which explain 20.3% of the variance in travel intention.

Table 1. Summary of hierarchical regression results: Travel intention as an outcome variable

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	B	SE B	β	SE(B)	SE(B)	β	B	SE(B)	β	B	SE(B)	β
Constant	2.141	.531		-.314	.613		-.251	.597		-.480	.592	
Age	-.031	.007	-.195***	-.015	.007	-.093**	-.009	.007	-.059	-.001	.007	-.005
Gender	-.054	.084	-.027	-.065	.081	-.033	-.046	.079	-.023	-.032	.077	-.016
Education	.005	.049	.006	.053	.048	.063	.028	.047	.034	.024	.046	.028
Employ	.036	.053	.029	.011	.051	.009	.020	.050	.016	.008	.049	.006
Income	.002	.057	.002	-.054	.055	-.055	-.067	.053	-.069	-.075	.053	-.077
Physical health				.319	.084	.275***	.199	.083	.171**	.129	.084	.111
Mental health				.044	.080	.040	.073	.078	.065	.061	.077	.054
Autonomy							.074	.043	.074*	.080	.043	.080*
Competence							.120	.043	.120**	.121	.042	.121**
Relatedness							.153	.042	.153***	.121	.042	.121**
OFTP										.154	.061	.154**
LFTP										.059	.057	.059
R^2	.036			.120			.175			.203		
F	4.325*			11.038**			12.010**			11.972**		
ΔR^2				.083**			.055**			.028**		

Note. *p < .01. **p < .05. ***p < .001.

OFTP: open-ended future time perspective, LFTP: limited future time perspective

CONCLUSION

The present study examined which predictable variables (i.e., chronological age, physical and mental health, travel FTP) are associated with older adults' travel intention with hierarchical regression analysis. The results suggest that chronological age and physical health condition are not consistent when other variables were considered together. Therefore, it can be misjudged and prejudiced when predict older adults travel behavior only based on chronological age or health condition. Furthermore, as expected, since aging is not the critical predictor on travel intention and how older adults perceive their travel future time and basic psychological needs for travel strongly related to travel intention, more future study recommended with other variables to avoid misjudgment of older adults' travel behavior.

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HOW DOES RELATIONSHIP QUALITY INFLUENCE CUSTOMER LOYALTY IN A GROUP PACKAGE TOUR? AN INTERACTIVE ANALYSIS

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INTRODUCTION

The increasing demand for group package tours (GPTs) from Asia is attracting considerable attention from outbound tour operators (TO) in Asia (Tsauro, Cheng, & Hong, 2019; Wang, Ma, Hsu, Jao, & Lin, 2013; Wong & Wang, 2009). However, only a few studies (excepted some research conducted on Chinese travelers) have covered outbound tourism and GPT (Tsauro et al., 2019). Surprisingly, no in-depth studies into outbound tourism and GPT have been conducted in emerging outbound tourism countries.

Relationship quality (RQ) and customer loyalty (CL) have been widely applied in various disciplines, but they remain largely unexplored in GPTs. Therefore, developing stable relationships with customers and providing them with memorable experiences will ensure long-term success for TOs. This study aims at filling the research gaps in the literature on GPT by examining the effects of RQ between stakeholders on CL in GPTs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

RQ is an interrelationship between a firm and its customers on a continuous basis to help them achieve their expected results (Hennig-Thurau & Klee, 1997). Satisfaction, trust, and commitment are three elements of RQ (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002).

Loyalty is “a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product or service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause

switching behavior” (Oliver, 1999, p. 34). Recommendations to others or repeat purchases are usually referred to as CL (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Loyal customers constantly purchase products from a particular brand (Yi & Jeon, 2003). Loyal customers act as ambassadors who introduce more customers to the organization, resulting in higher revenues (See-To & Ho, 2014).

RQ is a key antecedent of CL in the tourism sector (Hoang & Swierczek, 2008; Moliner, Sánchez, Rodríguez, & Callarisa, 2007). Because tourists interact not only with a TO and a tour guide (TG), but also with other service providers (OSP) in GPTs so their loyalty is influenced by the quality of these relationships.

METHOD

A quantitative research was performed to test six hypotheses. Data were collected from Vietnamese outbound tourists with the great support of TSTtourist TO. Indeed, according to Euromonitor, the number of outbound travelers from Vietnam is growing at an annual rate of 10% to 15% (Victor, 2018). To analyze data, we first assessed the reliability and validity of the measurement model. Next, we did regression to investigate the effects of three types of RQ with the tour operator (RQTO), with the tour guide (RQTG), and with other service providers (RQOSP) on CL. The PROCESS macro was applied to clarify interactions between these three types of RQ and examine their interactive effects on CL. This study followed the regression-based approach using PROCESS (Hayes, 2018).

FINDINGS

A detailed analysis of the regression and interaction models was carried out to test the hypotheses. The direct and interactive effects of three independent variables, namely RQTO, RQTG, and RQSP on CL were shown in Table 1. The results point out that RQTO ($b = 0.3667$, $p < 0.05$) and RQTG ($b = 0.5150$, $p < 0.05$) directly and positively

affect CL. The two-way interaction of RQTO and RQTG ($b = 0.8325$, $p < 0.05$) and the three-way interaction of RQTO, RQTG, and RQSP ($b = 0.2551$, $p < 0.05$) also have positive effects on CL. Thus, the hypotheses H1, H2, H5, and H6 are accepted. Nevertheless, the direct influence of RQSP and the two-way interactive influence of RQTO and RQSP on CL are not found, rejecting the hypotheses H3 and H4.

Table 1. Direct and interactive effects.

Predictors	CL			Conclusions
	Coefficient (b)	S.E	T	
RQTO	0.3667**	0.0878	4.1770	H1 supported
RQTG	0.5150**	0.0923	5.5822	H2 supported
RQSP	0.0360	0.0782	0.4607	H3 rejected
RQTO x RQSP	0.2193	0.1300	1.6865	H4 rejected
RQTO x RQTG	0.8325**	0.1330	6.2583	H5 supported
RQTO x RQTG x RQSP	0.2551**	0.1283	1.9889	H6 supported

** p -value < 0.05 .

The interactive effects of the three types of RQ on CL in GPTs were investigated, helping understand whether those effects are different or not (Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). In line with published studies (e.g., Pham et al., 2019; van Esch & Mente, 2018), we deeply explored these interactive effects using the PROCESS macro.

To further support H5, we explored the moderating influence of RQTG on the RQTO–CL relationship. The significant and positive effects at

two levels (average and high) of RQTG on the RQTO–CL relationship are found (Table 2). More specifically, at a high value of RQTG ($b = 0.8313$, $p < 0.05$) the positive effect of RQTO on CL is the strongest. Similarly, a positive influence of RQTO on CL at an average value of RQTG ($b = 0.4277$, $p < 0.05$) is found. Nevertheless, at a low value of RQTG ($b = 0.0241$, $p < 0.05$) the effect of RQTO on CL is not significant (Table 2).

Table 2. Conditional influences at the values of RQTG.

Moderators	The focal predictors				Conclusions
	Coefficient (b)	T	LLCI	ULCI	
RQTO					
LOW	0.0241	0.2646	-0.1550	0.2031	RQTO does not predict CL
AVERAGE	0.4277**	5.2633	0.2678	0.5276	RQTO predicts CL
HIGH	0.8313**	8.1122	0.6296	1.0330	RQTO predicts CL

** p -value < 0.05 . LLCI: lower limit confidence interval. ULCI: upper limit confidence interval.

To further analyze H6, we examined the conditional influences at the values of RQTG and RQSP on the RQTO–CL relationship. The results also indicate the important role of RQTG in the RQTO–CL relationship. At a confidence level of

95%, RQTO's effect on CL is significant when RQTG is at the high and average values regardless of any conditions of RQSP (with an exception at the average value of RQTG and low value of RQSP). Specifically, RQTO has a strong and

positive influence on CL at a high value of RQTG regardless of the values of RQSP. The effect of RQTO on CL is also positive at an average value of RQTG and a high value of RQSP ($b = 0.5086$, $p < 0.05$). Moreover, when RQTG and RQSP are

at their average values, there is a weaker effect of RQTO on CL ($b = 0.3367$, $p < 0.05$). By contrast, if RQTG is at a low value, the influence of RQTO on CL will not be supported regardless of any conditions of RQSP (Table 3).

Table 3. Conditional influences at the values of RQTG and RQSP.

Moderators		The focal predictors				Conclusions
RQTG	RQSP	Coefficient (b)	T	LLCI	ULCI	
LOW	LOW	-0.1993	-1.7302	-0.4261	0.0274	RQTO does not predict CL
LOW	AVERAGE	-0.1623	-1.2720	-0.4135	0.0888	RQTO does not predict CL
LOW	HIGH	-0.1253	-0.6713	-0.4927	0.2421	RQTO does not predict CL
AVERAGE	LOW	0.2247	1.8161	-0.0188	0.4683	RQTO does not predict CL
AVERAGE	AVERAGE	0.3367**	4.1770	0.1939	0.5395	RQTO predicts CL
AVERAGE	HIGH	0.5086**	4.2585	0.2735	0.7437	RQTO predicts CL
HIGH	LOW	0.6488**	3.9122	0.3224	0.9752	RQTO predicts CL
HIGH	AVERAGE	0.8957**	7.7320	0.6677	1.1237	RQTO predicts CL
HIGH	HIGH	1.1415**	7.4928	0.8424	1.4427	RQTO predicts CL

** p -value < 0.05 . LLCI: lower limit confidence interval. ULCI: upper limit confidence interval.

CONCLUSION

This is the first research which examines interactive effects of RQ on CL in GPTs. It also enriches the existing literature in the tourism sector by highlighting the effects of the three types of RQ on CL in GPTs. Moreover, it is among the rare empirical studies looking into the outbound tourism in emerging countries in the Asia Pacific area, which is well-known for the potential tourism development. Findings from this study can provide tour operators with valuable strategies of improving their services as well as winning their customers' loyalty. Finally, this study employed a conditional process analysis to better investigate various moderating effects, methodologically contributing to a better understanding of how the three types of RQ can shape tourists' loyalty in GPTs.

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RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CUSTOMER VALUE, SATISFACTION, AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTION OF HOT SPRING TOURISTS: THE GENERATIONAL DIFFERENCE

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INTRODUCTION

Taiwan has plentiful hot spring resources and enjoys a good reputation for hot spring tourist. Taiwan is ranked among the world's top 15 hot spring sites, possessing a great variety of springs, including hot springs, cold springs, mud springs, and seabed hot springs (Tourism Bureau, 2019). With the exception of Changhua, Yunlin and Penghu counties, almost every city and county in Taiwan can find hot springs, and so it is well to see that by some tourists name Taiwan "the Hot Spring Kingdom". Taiwan can be considered as one of the regions with the highest concentration and greatest variety of hot springs in the world. Hot spring in Taiwan thus attracts a great amount of domestic and international tourists.

Customer value can be divided into utilitarian and hedonic values (Babin, Daren, & Griffin, 1994). Utilitarian value is defined as that value that a customer receives based on a task-related and rational consumption behavior (Babin et al. 1994). Experiential value is defined as "a perceived, relativistic preference for product attributes or service performances arising from interaction within a consumption setting that facilitates or blocks achievement of customer goals or purposes" (Mathwick, Malhotra, and Rigdon, 2002, p. 53). Relationships between customer value, satisfaction, and behavioral intention have been well-demonstrated in the tourism context. However, the difference across the generation on these relationships is still wanting. The purpose of this study is thus to demonstrate and examine these relationships and its difference across

generation.

METHOD

The scale of customer value proposed by Babin et al. (1994) was utilized to measure customer value (Utilitarian value and hedonic value). The scale of satisfaction proposed by Bigné, Sánchez, and Sánchez (2001) was used to measure satisfaction. The scale of behavioral intention proposed by Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) was employed to measure behavioral intention. Each item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Convenience sampling and structural self-administrated questionnaire were used to collect data. Hot spring tourists in Taichung City were invited to participate in this study.

FINDINGS

A total 405 usable questionnaires were achieved after the effort of data collection. A total of 232 respondents were aged 55 years old and above. On the other hand, a total of 173 respondents were aged below 55 years old. The former is named as "senior hot spring tourists" and the latter is named as "junior hot spring tourists". Structural equation modeling was used to test our hypotheses. The results for senior hot spring tourists are shown as Figure 1. On contrary, the results for junior hot spring tourists are shown as Figure 2. According to these results, all the hypotheses are established across the groups.

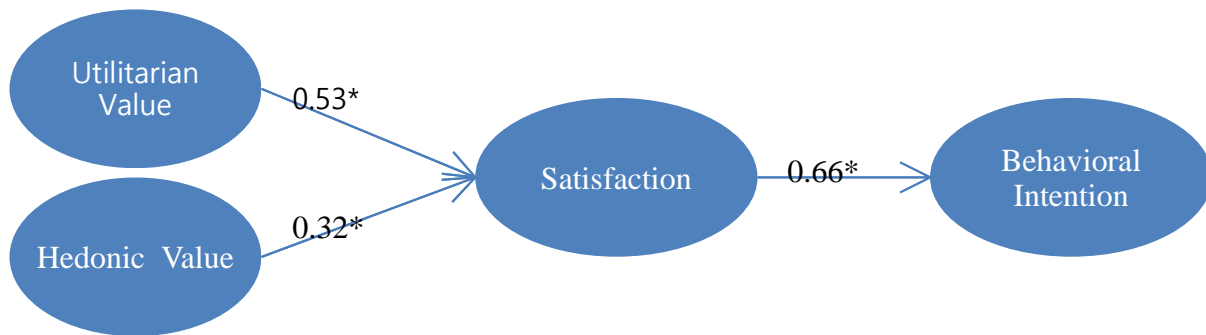


Figure 1. Results for Senior Hot Spring Tourists

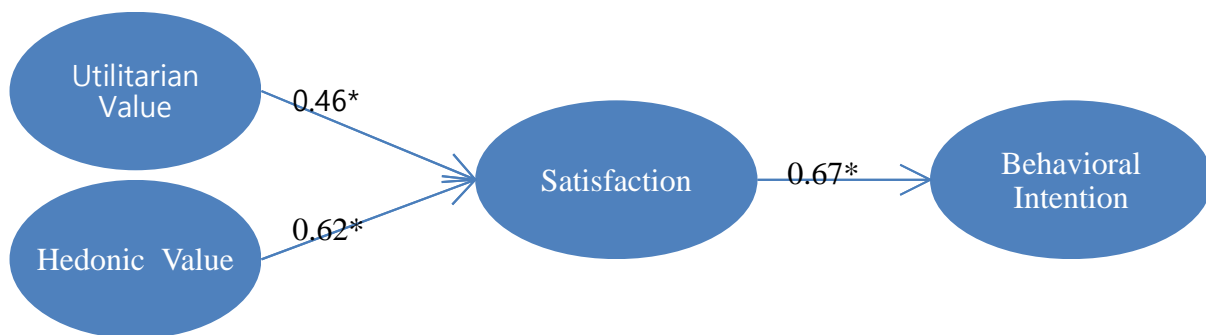


Figure 2. Results for Junior Hot Spring Tourists

IMPLICATIONS

According to the results of this study, the hypotheses of this study were all established for two different generations. The results of this study indicate that the effect of utilitarian value on the satisfaction is greater than the effect of hedonic value on the satisfaction for the senior hot spring tourists. In contrast, the effect of hedonic value on the satisfaction is higher than the effect of utilitarian value on the satisfaction for the junior hot spring tourists. Hot spring marketers or operators may draft different marketing strategies to meet the need for these different generations.

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EFFECTS OF MEMORABLE TOURISM EXPERIENCES ON WELL-BEING VIA DAILY RECOVERY EXPERIENCES

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INTRODUCTION

People go on a journey in search of special and valuable experiences that cannot be experienced in daily life. A unique experience can be regarded as a memorable experience. It has been recently suggested that “memory of travel” may become a future keyword of the travel industry. As Pizam (2010) argued that creating memorable experiences is the essence of the hospitality industry and the reason for its existence, the positive customer experience has become fundamental to marketing, hospitality, and tourism. Moreover, there is growing interest among tourism scholars to examine the mentality behind tourists’ experiences, and more importantly, to understand how tourists’ experiences can be converted into more memorable experiences (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015).

Based on such circumstances, this research intends to integrate relationships between memorable tourism experiences (MTEs), recovery experiences and vacationers’ well-being. The main purposes of the present study are twofold. Firstly, as the first step of research, we examine the validities of the two scales of MTEs developed in the previous research (Kim, 2014; Kim, Ritchie & McCormick, 2012). Secondly, we propose a structural model to assess both direct and indirect effects of MTEs on vacationers’ well-being. Regarding the indirect effect, we examine the possibility that MTEs exerts on well-being via daily recovery experiences.

This research has the potential to contribute to the literature on tourism and well-being. Although previous studies have mostly examined the beneficial effects of single travel (Chen & Petrick 2013), this research further investigates whether the accumulation of tourism experiences would lead to improved subsequent well-being. Moreover, several studies using pre-post design (e.g., Nawijn, 2011;

Nawijn, Mitas, Lin & Kerstetter, 2013) indicated that most people would feel happier before and during a vacation, while they are not happier after a vacation. However, our study challenges this established notion that the vacation effects seem to be short-term by conducting hypothesis that experiences and memories during vacation would support the well-being of subsequent daily life. If our hypotheses are supported, this will highlight the importance of experiences during vacation as a predictor of well-being to further enhance the contribution of tourism to well-being. At the same time, such relationships would give suggestive clues to tourism practitioner for creating a tourist destination that provide a better travel experience.

Literature Review

Travel experiences and memories

The concept of experiences has long received attention from scholars of multiple disciplines. Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre (1989) were in discussing the notion of experience from a psychological perspective. They expressed it as “flow,” on the optimal psychological state that individual experiences when the environment presents a level of challenge to match one’s skill. Flow experiences occur when an individual engages in a specific activity that provides persistent but not overwhelming challenges to his/her capability. During flow experience, they quickly lose track of time and get absorbed in that activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

Csikszentmihalyi and LeFevre (1989) explained that the outcome of the experience was due to what the experience was or was perceived by the person. That is, when a person perceives that both the opportunities for action and the skills in the situation are high, then the quality of experience is likely to be highly positive, regardless

of whether the activity is labeled work or leisure. Conversely, when both challenges and skills are low, then the experience tends to be very negative both in work and in leisure.

In the tourism field, discussions on the importance of travel experience and its outcomes are underway. At the same time, a memorable experience has also surfaced as one of the important subjects in tourist experience study (Kim & Chen, 2018). For example, memories of positive vacation experiences affect the intention to revisit (Woodside, Caldwell & Albers-Miller, 2004), selection of destinations and activities (Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon & Diener, 2003). Notably, Wirz et al. (2003) suggested that remembered experiences directly predict the preference to repeat the same experience in the future.

Knobloch, Robertson, and Aitken (2014) showed that although respondents associate different meanings with each term and types of experiences might stand out in the minds of respondents for different reasons, tourists mostly perceived a memorable experience as something enjoyable and that they would talk about in the future. Moreover, Tung and Ritchie (2011) investigated the memorable tourism experiences of the senior market using the qualitative research method. In-depth interviews with 42 respondents revealed five characteristics: identity formation, family milestones, relationship development, nostalgia reenactment, and freedom pursuits. They argued that the importance of understanding the characteristics of experiences that tourists found as memorable are twofold: first, it could create opportunities for marketers to facilitate the kinds of experiences that seniors yearn to relive; and second, it provides marketers with insights into the experiences that they could facilitate for younger travelers when they create their own experiences.

In these such circumstances, MTEs has become famous as a result of the phenomenal growth of destination competition. To maintain and increase competitiveness in the fierce marketplace of international tourism, destination managers must provide their visitors with genuinely memorable experiences (Kim & Ritchie, 2014). According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003), every destination manager must attempt to view his/ her destination not merely as a place to visit and a place, but more importantly, as the provider of memorable

experiences that will generate high levels of visitor satisfaction. At the same time, such high satisfaction with the destination leads to the subsequent word-of-mouth advertisement that is essential to both competitiveness and sustainability.

MTEs were mostly attributed to places, sights, and people that tourist connected or shared experience and even though people could not vividly recall their experiences (i.e., where they went and when they returned home), they remembered both positive and negative emotions about a trip (Kim, 2012). To measure MTEs, Kim et al. (2012) identified seven components, which could result in positive tourists' experiences and significantly affect their memorability.

The above seven dimensions include the following; (1) Hedonism: the pleasurable and emotional components to tourism products and services; (2): Novelty: Something new and different from daily routine in a tourism experiences; (3): Local culture: the social engagement with local people, their life and their living environment;(4): Refreshment: the sense of relaxation and renewal; (5): Meaningfulness: the physical fulfillment and emotional/spiritual meanings derived from a tourism experience;(6): Involvement: an experience that is closely related to tourist' personal interests. (7): Knowledge: intellectual development and insights gained. This scale to measure MTEs further confirmed both construct and predictive validity and reliability (Kim & Ritchie, 2014). At the same time, the memorable tourism experiences concept has been applied in tourism studies (e.g., Kim, 2018; Lee, 2015; Tsai, 2016; Zhang, Wu & Buhalis, 2018; Zhong, Busser, & Baloglu, 2017) and examined in conjunction with other variables.

The antecedents of memorable tourism experiences

Destinations are comprised of several attributes that significantly affect visitors at different stages (Kim, 2014). For instance, a favorable image of a destination formed by a combination of the destination's attributes (e.g., magnificent landscape, shopping opportunities, cultural exchange, infrastructure, local cuisine, safety, and activities) significantly affects the decision making of destination (e.g., Kim, Hallab, & Kim, 2012). Moreover, the destination attributes determine visitors' overall satisfaction and destination loyalty (e.g., Chi & Qu, 2008).

Kim (2014) developed an instrument to measure the attributes of destinations associated with MTEs to facilitate a better understanding of how destination environments can help visitors gain memorable experiences. His results suggested that ten constructs (i.e., local culture, the variety of activities, hospitality, infrastructure, environment management, accessibility, the quality of service, physiography, place attachment, and superstructure) were crucial destination attributes that were likely to facilitate a person's MTEs. The 10 dimensions could be viewed as the antecedents of MTEs and, directly linked to visitors' memorable experiences. Thus, in the present study, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: Destination attributes will exert a positive influence on MTEs.

Recovery from vacation experiences

Recovery can be defined as a process during which individual functional systems that have been called upon during a stressful experiences return to their initial, pre-stressor level (Meijman, & Mulder, 1998). In the present study, to examine the links between MTEs and the recovery from vacations, we put its focus on the recovery experience during a vacation.

Recovery experiences could be considered as individual strategies devoted to restoring peoples' energy resources and maintaining their psychological and subjective well-being, which could be helpful in stressful situations (Lee, Choo, & Hyun, 2016). Although individuals pursue different activities to overcome fatigue, the underlying attribute contributing to recovery, relaxation, could be the same across activities (Binnewies, Sonnentag & Mojza 2010). There are four types of recovery experience: "control," "detachment," "mastery," and "relaxation" (e.g., Shimazu, Sonnentag, Kubota & Kawakami, 2012).

Control during off-work hours is defined as the extent to which people believe that they can decide on something to do on their days off without being concerned about problems related to work and the household (Lee et al., 2016). The experience of control during leisure time could serve as a resource that enhances recovery from work while off duty.

Several studies have highlighted the concept of psychological detachment as a critical dimension of recovery experiences in different organizations

(Lee et al., 2016). Those who feel a strong sense of psychological detachment tend to avoid work-related tasks and activities (e.g., reading e-mail messages) that could impede the detachment process. However, it is not useful to take too much distance from work.

Mastery refers to the extent to which people experience new and challenging events during their free time and gain a sense of achievement. Mastery experiences challenge individuals without overtaxing their capabilities but are not necessarily effortless as they require some level of self-regulation (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Relaxation relates to the extent to which individuals relax during their free time (e.g., relaxing at home with friends or relatives). Relaxation experiences aid in stress reduction by decreasing negative affect (e.g., anger and sadness) and increasing positive affect (e.g., playfulness and energy) in the short term (Stone, Kennedy-Moore, & Neale, 1995).

If the vacation is a meaningful and memorable experience for the vacationer, the vacation is expected to be more recoverable. Accordingly, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 2: Destination attributes will exert a positive influence on recovery experiences during vacation.

Hypothesis 3: MTEs will exert a positive influence on recovery experiences during vacation.

Further, the above recovery experience does not occur only during long vacations. Many individuals use their weekend as an opportunity to recover from stress experienced at work. During weekends, they typically do not face their daily job demands, which allows for regeneration and the regain of resources. These replenished resources will then have short-term effects on individual health and job performance at the beginning of the following work week (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). This study aims to track the well-being of people after vacation. Therefore, we measure not only the recovery experience during long winter holidays but also the weekend recovery experience after returning to daily life. Since general well-being returns to baseline levels rapidly after a vacation, memories of a vacation may have the power to increase well-being again (de Bloom, Geurts & Kompier, 2013), we can presume that MTEs and

recovery experience during vacation may support daily recovery experience after returning to everyday life. This study, thus, proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 4: MTEs will exert a positive influence on daily recovery experiences.

Hypothesis 5: Recovery experiences during the vacation will exert a positive influence on daily recovery experiences.

Moreover, previous studies identified the relationship between recovery experiences of holidays and vacationers’ senses of well-being (e.g., Chen, Huang & Petrick, 2016; Chen, Petrick, & Shahvali, 2016). The four types of recovery experiences make it possible for people not only to return to their pre-stressor levels but also to maintain and improve their levels of subjective well-being (Siltaloppi, Kinnunen & Feldt, 2009). Given this context, it is postulated:

Hypothesis 6: Recovery experiences during the vacation will exert a positive influence on well-being after vacation.

Hypothesis 7: Daily recovery experiences will exert a positive influence on well-being after vacation.

Connecting memories during vacation with well-being

Travel during vacation has been generally regarded as beneficial for individuals in terms of both physical and mental health. Taking vacations

can help to relieve stress in people and contribute to their overall life satisfaction (e.g., Chen, Huang et al, 2016). Various researchers assessed the effects of tourism experiences by comparing two measures of perceived health and wellness measured before and after leisure travel. Their results suggest that people often feel happier, healthier, and more relaxed after leisure travel (Chen, Petrick, et al., 2016). Therefore, we can speculate more impressive and memorable vacation may be more likely to promote well-being after the vacation.

Moreover, it is known that there is connecting between memories and well-being. According to Bluck and Alea (2011), recalling memories of an event experienced has the following three functions: (1) self-definition and continuity; (2) creating, maintaining, and representing social connections; and (3) directing future behavior. Also, Waters (2014) pointed out the relationship between such functions of memories and psychological well-being. Individuals who use their memories to serve the self, social, and directive functions reported higher levels of well-being. Thus, we hypothesis that:

Hypothesis 8: MTEs will exert a positive influence on well-being after vacation.

In sum, MTEs could enhance recovery experiences including both during vacation and daily, which may lead to improve vacationers’ well-being after the vacation. The resultant overall proposed model is displayed in Figure 1.

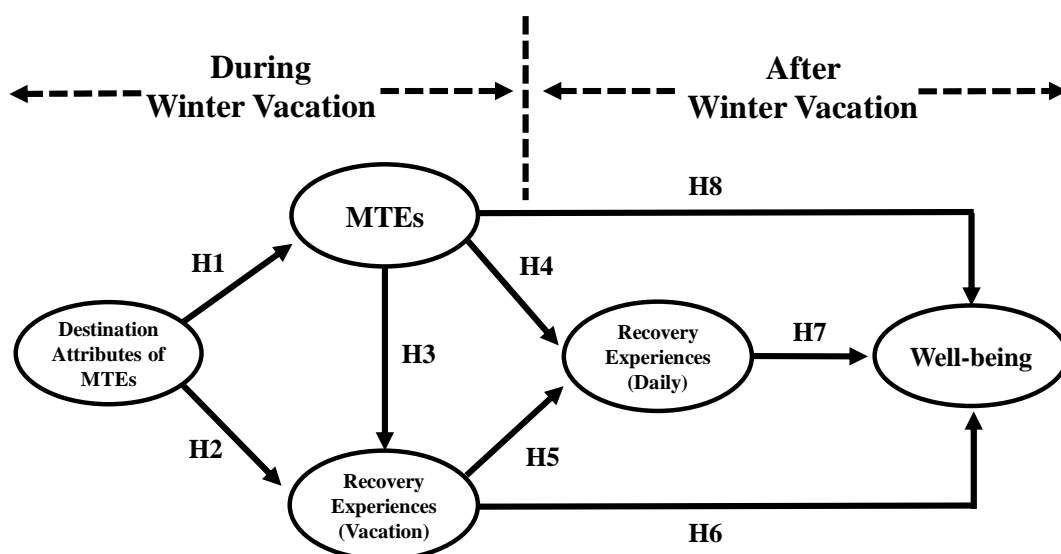


Figure 1. Proposed model with hypothesized paths.

METHOD

Participants and procedure

To achieve our goals, we carried out longitudinal surveys including the winter vacation period. When conducting the surveys, we observed the following points. All data were collected after receiving an approved status from the Institutional Ethics Board of a university. We collected a standard sample to ensure sufficient power and established a predetermined criterion for excluding participants. Only after completing the data collection, we started to analyze them.

Current research employed an online survey, which enabled recruitment of participants from a variety of regions (i.e., urban and local areas) and age groups. We recruited all participants via one of the principal online marketing research companies (Rakuten Insight, Inc.) that hold approximately 2.3 million Japanese enrollments. Participants completed the questionnaires four times. They answered them according to instructions on the computer or smart-phone screen. To capture data from as many people as possible, we conducted on the following schedule. We conducted the first survey at the end of December 2017 (Time 1), the second survey immediately after the end of the winter vacation in early January 2018 (Time 2), the third and fourth survey in early and end of February (Time 3 and Time 4).

We randomly distributed the questionnaires to the participants who planned to travel during the winter vacation through the research company. They were controlled to stratify across ages (i.e., the 20s, 30s, 40s, 50s, and 60s) and be equally portioned. There were 641 respondents in the first survey and 463 (72.23 %) in forth survey. However, among respondents who answered to plan to go travel during their winter holiday for the first survey, 230 participants answered that they went travel on schedule in the second survey. Since eligibility requirement for participation in the study were: (a) participation in all four surveys and (b) went to domestic or foreign travel during winter vacation, we analyzed data of 230 participants (114 females and 116 males), representing an overall response rate of 35.88%.

Measurement

Questionnaires consisted of items to obtain

demographic information including sex, age, education status, household income, and details of winter vacation plan and experience, number of visits to the destination, followed by several psychological scales.

Memorable tourism experiences: We adopted the Memorable Tourism Experience Scale (MTES; Kim et al., 2012), and the scale to measure the destination attributes associated with memorable experiences (Kim, 2014). These scales were used in the second survey immediately after the vacation (Time 2).

Regarding MTES, participants were asked to recall the travel they had in the last winter vacation and to subsequently evaluate 24 items on a 7-point Likert-type scale, on which 1 represented "I have not experienced at all" and 7 represented "I have experienced very much." The scale was composed of seven sub-dimensions: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, involvement, meaningfulness, and knowledge.

The participants were also asked to recall the destination of their travel and to evaluate 33 items on a 7-point Likert-type scale in which 1 represented strongly disagree, and 7 represented strongly agree. The scale had a 10-dimensional construct (i.e., local culture, activities and special events, hospitality, infrastructure, destination management, accessibility, quality of service, physiography, place attachment and superstructure) that affected MTEs.

Recovery experience: Respondents' recovery experiences during both the winter vacation and daily lives were assessed using the Recovery Experience Scale (Sonnetag & Fritz, 2007). The 15-item, 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) has four dimensions: (1) psychological detachment, (2) relaxation, (3) mastery, (4) control. Recovery experiences during the winter vacation were measured in the second survey and those of daily lives were measured in the third survey. The former asked about "experience during winter holidays" and the latter asked about "how to spend time after day work and housework are over".

Well-being: We adopted PERMA-profiler (Butler & Kern, 2016) to measure changes in participants' well-being through the winter vacation in terms of five pillars: positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and

accomplishment. PERMA-profiler was developed to apply measurement changes in well-being at the individual, community, and national levels (Butler & Kern, 2016). The measure consists of 23 items: 15 major questions (three for each domain) and another eight questions; health, negative emotion, loneliness, and overall happiness acted as filler items. Questions were on an 11-point scale ranging from 0 to 10 with the endpoints labeled. The main five domains measured from 15 items were separate but also composed correlated construct as overall well-being. Since a single overall score provides a global indication of wellbeing (Butler & Kern, 2016), we used the total score of 15 items as indicators of participants' general well-being. We used PERMA-profiler for all four surveys to capture changes in the well-being of participants.

FINDINGS

The present study conducted series of analyses by the following procedure: (a) presenting

descriptive statistics of participant's demographic profile, (b) conducting confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) on two scales of MTEs, (c) examining the validity of model between MTEs, two kinds of recovery experiences (i.e., vacation and daily) and subsequent well-being. The subsequent analyses were conducted using SPSS and AMOS for Windows, version 23.

Descriptive statistics

Table 1 presents the profile of the respondents. The sample was split half in terms of gender, with an average age of 44.48 ($SD = 13.38$). Most respondents had completed higher education (college: 54.3%; graduate school: 9.1%). Financially, the sample was almost evenly distributed by household income, with 29.5% respondents earning under \$20,000; 21.8% earning between \$20,000 and \$39,999; 17.0% earning between \$40,000 and \$59,999; and 27.9% earning \$60,000 or more. In our sample, respondents had visited the destination approximately three times.

Table 1. Demographic information

Categories	Percentage ($N = 230$)	M (SD)
Gender		
Female	50.4	
Male	49.6	
Education		
Junior high school	2.2	
High school	17.4	
Junior college	17.0	
College	54.3	
Graduate school	9.1	
Household Income		
Under 20,000	29.5	
20,000–39,999	21.8	
40,000–59,999	17.0	
60,000–79,999	13.1	
80,000–99,999	7.4	
More than 100,000	7.4	
Refused to answer	3.8	
Age		44.48 (13.88)
No. of visits to the destination (range 1-5 times)		3.40 (1.65)

Note. The currency denomination is US dollars.

Confirmatory factor analyses

We ran two CFAs to ensure the constructs of MTES (Kim et al., 2012), and the scale to measure the destination attributes associated with memorable experiences (Kim, 2014). We used three measures of goodness-of-fit to assess how well each CFA model fit the data. As a measure of relative fit, we used the comparative fit index (CFI), which indicates how much better a particular model fits compared to a null model that assumes there is no common variance among the items being analyzed, with larger values reflecting better model fit. As measures of absolute fit, we used the following indices. (1) The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), which indicates the average discrepancy in model fit per degrees of freedom, with smaller values reflecting a better model fit. (2) The standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), which indicates the absolute value of the average size of the standardized fitted-residuals, with smaller values reflecting better model fit. In assessing goodness-of-fit, we considered $CFI > .90$ (Bentler & Bonett, 1980), $RMSEA < .08$ (Browne & Cudeck, 1993), and $SRMR < .08$ (Hu & Bentler, 1998) as representing acceptable model fit.

Firstly, the present study conceptualized memorable tourism experiences, which consisted of seven sub-dimensions: hedonism, novelty, local culture, refreshment, involvement, meaningfulness, and knowledge. Result of CFA showed that the measurement model fit the data well and goodness-of-fit indices were in line with the established criteria ($CFI = .993$, $RMSEA = .053$, $SRMR = .026$).

The scale items and CFA result present in

Tables 2, all regression weights in the measurement model were significant ($p < .01$). Cronbach's α ranged from .85 to .92. Therefore, all scales demonstrated excellent reliability. The composite reliability of the constructs ranged from .85 to .92, exceeding the recommended threshold of .80 (Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). Moreover, the average variance extracted estimated for all constructs exceeded the recommended threshold of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). These results validated the convergent validity of the scales.

Further, the validity of the 10-dimensional construct of destination attributes associated with MTEs was also tested by a CFA. The initial analysis did not show a good fit of the data ($CFI = .936$, $RMSEA = .104$, $SRMR = .075$). A further examination of factor loadings and variance explained revealed that three sub-factors (i.e., activities and special events, destination management, accessibility) should be eliminated. Accordingly, we excluded 11 items from the analysis. The modified measurement model was improved with reasonable goodness-of-fit indices ($CFI = .984$, $RMSEA = .068$, $SRMR = .033$). Table 3 presents the measurement items, their respective loadings, Cronbach's α , composite reliabilities and average variance extracted in the modified measurement model. All regression weights in the measurement model were significant ($p < .01$). Cronbach's α ranged from .71 to .89. Although two of the seven latent variables (i.e., Infrastructure and Physiography) do not slightly meet the criteria of CR and AVE, the above findings generally indicate adequate internal consistency and convergent validity.

Table 2. Scale items and CFA results of MTEs

Factors/items	Factor loadings	CR	AVE
Hedonism ($\alpha = .85$)		.85	.58
Thrilled about having a new experience	.75		
Indulged in the activities	.75		
Really enjoyed this tourism experience	.74		
Exciting	.81		
Novelty ($\alpha = .92$)		.92	.74
Once-in-a-lifetime experience	.77		
Unique	.83		
Difference from previous experiences	.91		
Experienced something new	.92		
Local culture ($\alpha = .88$)		.88	.71
Good impressions about the local people	.89		
Closely experienced the local culture	.79		
Local people in a destination were friendly	.85		
Refreshment ($\alpha = .91$)		.91	.72
Liberating	.84		
Enjoyed sense of freedom	.87		
Refreshing	.86		
Revitalized	.82		
Meaningfulness ($\alpha = .87$)		.88	.71
I did something meaningful	.86		
I did something important	.92		
Learned about myself	.73		
Involvement ($\alpha = .91$)		.91	.78
I visited a place where I really wanted to go	.91		
I enjoyed activities which I really wanted to do	.94		
I was interested in the main activities of this tourism experience	.80		
Knowledge ($\alpha = .86$)		.86	.68
Exploratory	.73		
Knowledge	.87		
New culture	.87		

Note: CR = composite reliabilities; AVE = average variance extracted

Table 3 Scale items and CFA results of the scale to measure the destination attributes of MTEs

Factors/items	Factor loadings	CR	AVE
Local culture ($\alpha = .82$)		.82	.60
A variety of opportunities to experience local way of life	.72		
Programs to learn about local history	.71		
Experience local culture	.88		
Hospitality ($\alpha = .84$)		.84	.64
Local people in the destination were friendly	.74		
Local people were willing to help me/us	.80		
Local people were willing to share information about the destination	.86		
Infrastructure ($\alpha = .79$)		.76	.46
Uniquely designed infrastructure	.79		
High quality of infrastructure	.77		
Good signage/directions	.52		
Good availability of tourism information	.58		
Quality of service ($\alpha = .89$)		.89	.73
Service staff were courteous and friendly	.78		
Offered highly customized service	.90		
Service staff provide impressive service	.88		
Physiography ($\alpha = .71$)		.72	.46
Difference ecology zones	.67		
Well preserved areas	.77		
Awe-inspiring landscapes	.58		
Place attachment ($\alpha = .77$)		.80	.57
The destination has an ethnic tie	.76		
The destination had a cultural bond with me/family	.89		
The destination has many places where I have been interested in visiting	.59		
Superstructure ($\alpha = .89$)		.87	.70
Unique architectures	.88		
Special cuisines	.75		
Interesting building	.87		

Note: CR = composite reliabilities; AVE = average variance extracted

Structural model and hypotheses testing

Table 4 shows the construct intercorrelations in this study. All correlations are significant at $p < .01$. Subsequently, the structural model was applied to estimate the causal relationships based on our hypotheses. Path coefficients and R-square

(R^2) were used to measure the strength of relationships among variables. Destination attributes of MTEs, MTEs, two types of recovery experiences, and well-being after winter vacation (Time 3 and Time 4) are represented as latent variables in the structural model (Figure 3).

As a result, destination attributes of MTEs had a positive influence on MTEs ($\beta = .64, p < .001$). Also, MTEs had positive influences on both recovery experience (vacation: $\beta = .45, p < .001$; daily: $\beta = .18, p < .01$). However, we confirmed that MTEs ($\beta = .07, ns$) and the recovery experience during vacation ($\beta = -.06, ns$) had no significant effects on subsequent well-being. On the other hand, daily recovery experiences had significant effects

on well-being Time 3 ($\beta = .60, p < .001$) and Time 4 ($\beta = .24, p < .01$). The results of hypothesis testing are summarized in Table 5. In sum, hypothesis 6 (Recovery experiences during the vacation will exert a positive influence on well-being after vacation) and hypothesis 8 (MTEs will exert a positive influence on well-being after vacation) were not supported.

Table 4 Construct intercorrelations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 DA of MTEs	—					
2 MTEs	.61 *	—				
3 RE (vacation)	.46 *	.55 *	—			
4 RE (daily)	.26 *	.30 *	.37 *	—		
5 Well-being (Time 3)	.21 *	.26 *	.27 *	.52 *	—	
6 Well-being (Time 4)	.25 *	.30 *	.30 *	.57 *	.78 *	—

Note: * $p < .01$; DA = destination attributes; MTEs = memorable tourism experiences; RE = recovery experiences

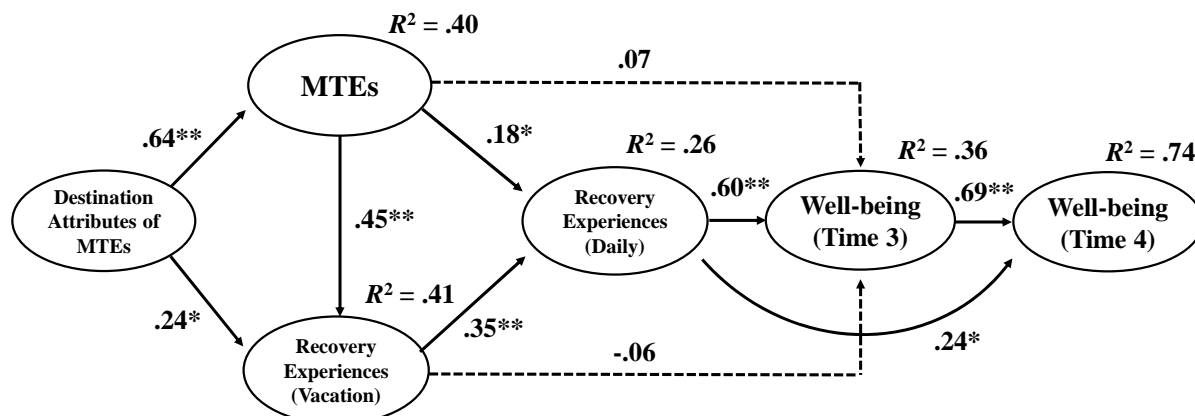


Figure 3. The model between MTE, recovery experience and subsequent well-being (N = 230).

Note: * $p < .01$, ** $p < .001$. CFI = .853, RMSEA = .093, SRMR = .083. Numbers indicate standardized path coefficients and dotted lines show non-significant effects. The measurement variables constituting the latent variables are omitted from the model.

Table 5. Results of Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Supported?
Hypothesis 1: DA of MTEs → MTEs	○
Hypothesis 2: DA of MTEs → RE (vacation)	○
Hypothesis 3: MTEs → RE (vacation)	○
Hypothesis 4: MTEs → RE (daily)	○
Hypothesis 5: RE (vacation) → RE (daily)	○
Hypothesis 6: RE (vacation) → Well-being	×
Hypothesis 7: RE (daily) → Well-being	○
Hypothesis 8: MTEs → Well-being	×

Note: DA = destination attributes; MTEs = memorable tourism experiences; RE = recovery experiences; ○ = supported; × = not supported.

CONCLUSION

Discussion and implication

The primary goal of this study reported here was to examine the structure of MTEs and its role on subsequent well-being. Our findings indicated that having a memorable experience during a vacation had a positive influence not only on the recovery experience at that time but also on the subsequent it. Although the recovery experience during and after the vacation was profoundly involved, it should be noted that only recovery experience after returning to everyday life was associated with individuals' well-being. On the other hand, unexpectedly, MTEs had no significant influence on subsequent well-being.

Current findings replicate, extend, and refine previous findings concerning the over-estimating impact of vacationing on well-being (e.g., Nawijn, 2011; Nawijn, Marchand, Veenhoven & Vingerhoets, 2010). First, since the recovery experience during vacation and MTEs did not affect future well-being, our research replicated the positive effects of vacation tend to be short-lived, and vacationers' happiness does not increase long-term wellbeing. In that sense, the fact that most people would feel happier before and during a vacation, while they are not happier after a vacation may be true. However, as described below, it does not conclude that travel experiences have only a short-term effect on vacationers.

Secondly, Our resulted confirmed that MTEs had a positive influence on the vacationer's recovery experience. As Park and Santos (2017) suggested, recalled unique and unexpected travel experiences occurred after the vacation allowed their current experiences to be differentiated from other previous experiences. The present result showed that valuable experiences that people cannot be experienced in daily life change not only their future behavior (e.g., revisit intention, destination or activities choice) but also affects the recovery experience that influences their well-being.

Finally, and most importantly, our findings supported connecting memorable travel experiences to our daily lives. Our research has revealed that what people experienced during the travel is a significant factor to support the subsequent daily recovery. From the latter two points, the current work newly demonstrated the importance of how

extraordinary experiences during vacations contribute back to commonplace activities.

As international tourism is more prosperous than ever, tourism destinations are currently experiencing a fiercely competitive climate. Therefore, gaining a better understanding of what drives tourists' loyalty that leads to revisit the destination is essential. For example, as Kim (2018) suggested, destination managers should carefully develop programs and manage their environments so that they are perceived as exciting, refreshing, and unique. A memorable experience that combines such elements not only attracts tourists but also enhances their well-being.

There is an opportunity to advance the study of travel experiences and behavioral outcomes by examining the mediation role of personal memories. Not only academic contributions, but understanding MTEs is crucial for exploring new avenues for tourism product development from an industry perspective. Jorgenson, Nickerson, Dalenberg, Angle, Metcalf, and Freimund (2019) suggested that academic and practical benefits exist through frameworks between tourism and memory by (1) having a deeper understanding of the tourism experience, and (2) identifying the best approaches toward providing transformative experiences. With these thoughts in mind, integration of memory and tourism research will advance the field of experience research and provide useable data for marketers.

Limitations and future directions

Some limitations of the current work should be noted. First, the results of this study were all derived by quantitative analyses from self-report questionnaires. Qualitative methods generally aim to understand the experiences and attitudes of people. Since our core interest was to explore the individual's vacation experience, we used the former. In future research, it is better to consider to analyze data from interviews or free descriptive answers in parallel with quantitative ones.

Regarding the recruiting method of participants, we collected research data using online panel respondents chosen from the survey company's database. Therefore, the results of the study have constrained generalization. Since tourism and well-being are important topics worldwide, future work should examine the robustness of these results in different participant samples. Moreover,

the concurrent study measured only the tourist perceptions of memorable experiences shortly after them. Since the concept of memorable tourism experiences is relatively new, whether the perceived memorable experiences will last and the relationship between memories and elapsed time remain still unclear. Thus, long-term follow-up study will be needed.

Lastly, the final participation rate in the analysis was lowered (i.e., 35.88%), and accordingly, we analyzed domestic and foreign travels without distinction. Relatedly, we had not demonstrated how and what kind of memorable experience alter peoples' daily recovery experiences. Therefore, future work can explore how various factors that we could not control play a role in influencing the relationship between MTE and vacationers' well-being.

In summary, this research examined the relationships among MTEs, recovery experiences, and well-being by conducting longitudinal surveys during winter vacation. The study results suggest travel experiences have not only the short-term effects but also the possibility of supporting the long-term well-being of vacationers. Further, we showed that the memorable experiences during vacation support daily well-being. These results highlight the crucial role of experiences during travel, that is what to see, what to do and what to learn while traveling, as a predictor of daily well-being. To conclude, we hope that our research goes beyond mere academic reporting, to give managers of tourism destinations chance to convey the importance of the travel experience.

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INTERETHNIC RELATIONS AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS ETHNIC NEIGHBORHOOD TOURISM: THE CASE OF MINORITY RESIDENTS IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION

The presence of ethnic neighborhoods had long been considered a “problem” in Japanese society (Chapman, 2006). However, since the 2000s, such neighborhoods have increasingly been preserved for ethnic neighborhood tourism (ENT). Research (see Maruyama et al., 2017; Palmer, 2007) has revealed that the initiation of ENT may potentially have a positive or negative influence on interethnic relationships.

The common in-group identity model (Dovidio et al., 2009) suggests that if members of different social groups interact in a way that they are re-categorized into and represented as a single group, they may develop favorable attitudes towards former out-group members, which leads to development of a sense of closeness and solidarity between them. Such intergroup solidarity motivates individuals to endorse inclusive representation and cooperative behavior (e.g., Beaton et al., 2008; 2012;).

ENT can be a case of a common in-group representation because it re-categorizes members of dominant ethnic and ethnic minority groups into members of “a local community.” Indeed, previous studies (Woosnam et al., 2016a; b) suggest that residents in an ENT destination, particularly members of an ethnic dominant group, can improve their attitudes towards ethnic minority residents, develop emotional solidarity with them, and endorse the development of ENT.

However, a common in-group representation may be refused by members of disadvantaged groups (i.e., ethnic minority groups) (Dovidio et al., 2009). This may be because in one-group representation, distinctions between subgroups

become merged by focusing on commonality, and the members of less-advantaged groups are suspicious that the positive distinctiveness of their culture are relinquished. Therefore, for members of lower-status groups, a dual identity form of representation that focuses on maintaining the distinctiveness of each group may be a suitable option (Dovidio et al., 2009). However, few studies have explored how ethnic minority residents in ENT destinations prefer or refuse a common in-group representation.

The goal of this study is to explore how interethnic relationships with members of a dominant ethnic group influences a sense of solidarity with their ethnic counterparts, and attitudes towards ENT among the members of ethnic minority groups. This study focuses on Korean and Brazilian immigrants and their descendants in Japan. Specific research questions include: 1: To what extent do ethnic attitudes of minority residents influence their levels of emotional solidarity towards Japanese residents? 2: To what extent do the minority residents’ levels of emotional solidarity with Japanese residents influence the formers’ attitudes towards ENT?, and 3: Do the influences of ethnic attitudes and emotional solidarity on the attitudes towards ENT differ between Korean and Brazilian residents?

Research context

Most of Korean residents in Ikuno, Osaka, were descendants of the colonial migrants who migrated around 1920 (Maher & Kawanishi, 2012). The Korean town in Ikuno became a popular tourism destination due to the arrival of the “Korean Wave,” the global popularity of South Korean pop culture

that swept Japan at early 2000s. Currently, in addition to the traditional Korean shops, a number of new, modern stores that target female fans of “K-pop” have opened. Brazilian residents in Oizumi, Gunma, began to immigrate to Japan around 1990 with economic motives (Ishii, 2008). They are descendants of Japanese immigrants who immigrated to Brazil before WWII. In Oizumi town, ethnic neighborhood tourism centered on Brazilian culture was launched in 2007 by the local government in an attempt of revitalizing the town’s declining economy. The town has become known as a “little Brazil” along with the two main events held in Brazil (FIFA World Cup in 2014 and the Olympics in 2016).

METHODS

Data for this study were collected from Brazilian residents ($N=183$) in Oizumi and Korean residents ($N=160$) in Ikuno, Osaka. To measure the attitudes towards Japanese residents, Ethnic Attitudes Scale (EAS) (Pizam et al., 2002) with two factors (*character and intelligence* and *social evaluation*) was employed. To examine solidarity, the Emotional Solidarity Scale (ESS) (Woosnam, 2012) with three factors (*welcoming nature*, *emotional closeness*, and *sympathetic understanding*) was also employed. Lastly, to assess the attitudes towards ethnic neighborhood tourism, the ENT scale (Maruyama & Woosnam, 2015) with one factor was employed.

RESULTS

To examine the relationship between EAS and ESS as well as between ESS and ENT, a series of a multi-group structural equation modeling (MGSEM) was used (Maximum Likelihood estimation method) to test the hypothesized structural relationships between EAS, ESS and ENT (Table 1) and whether they vary across Brazilian and Korean residents. Results indicated that among Brazilian residents, the first factor of EAS explained all three factors of ESS ($p<0.05$) and the second factors of EAS predicted two of the three ESS factors ($p<0.1$). In addition, all three factors of ESS predicted ENT ($p<0.1$). On the contrary, among Korean residents, both the first and second factors of EAS explained two factors of ESS ($p<0.05$), and

only one factor of ESS predicted ENT among Korean residents ($p<0.001$).

DISCUSSION

This study explored how interethnic relationships with members of a dominant ethnic group influence a sense of solidarity with their ethnic counterparts and attitudes towards ENT among members of ethnic minority groups. Results indicated a relatively strong relationship among EAS, ESS, and ENT among Brazilian residents. Such a finding runs parallel to previous studies (Woosnam et al., 2016a; b) that focused on members of a dominant ethnic group. On the contrary, the results among Korean residents indicated weaker relationships. Arguably, these findings indicate that, while Brazilian residents prefer a common in-group representation, Korean residents disapprove of the type of representation (Dovidio et al., 2009; Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000). Korean residents are less likely to place value on solidarity with their ethnic counterparts and are more inclined to keep the duality in the tourism representation more than Brazilian residents (Dovidio et al., 2009).

The differences in preference of representation between the two diasporic groups may indicate the disparity in social status and power between them. Dovidio et al. (2009) claim that members of a high-status group typically prefer a one-group form of representation while members of disadvantaged groups tend to refuse it. Arguably, the findings of this study indicate that Korean residents perceive the disadvantaged status even in ENT destinations where members of ethnic minority groups have a privileged access to resources. They may feel anxious about the cultural representation being controlled by the Japanese residents and distinctiveness of their culture being merged by focusing on the interethnic commonality. On the contrary, Brazilian residents may feel empowered through ENT (Maruyama et al., 2016) and thus perceive the value, rather than threat, of interethnic solidarity and the common in-group representation of the neighborhood. Each group’s unique history and motivations of immigration and settlement, intercontinental relationship between the immigrants’ sending and hosting countries, and strategies to improve their socioeconomic status have contributed to the differences (Kim, 2007; Levitt & Waters, 2002).

Table 1: Standardized regression weights for structural model

Paths	Pooled Sample (n=343)		Brazilian (n=181)			Korean (n=162)			Model differences (Brazilian vs Korean)	
	β	t-Value	β	p-value	t-Value	β	p-value	t-Value	$\beta \Delta$	p Δ
CAI (Character and Intelligence) →WN (Welcoming nature)	0.147	2.533*	0.186	0.025	2.242	0.119	0.141	1.473	0.067	0.896
CAI →EC (Emotional closeness)	0.454	6.309***	0.487	0.000	5.022	0.442	0.000	3.875	0.064	0.690
CAI →SU (Sympathetic understanding)	0.268	3.785***	0.259	0.008	2.649	0.233	0.021	2.306	-0.104	0.385
SE (Social evaluation) → WN	0.487	7.505***	0.408	0.000	4.497	0.562	0.000	6.131	-0.154	0.052
SE → EC	0.105	1.645 ^{ns}	0.156†	0.100	1.800	0.044	0.635	0.475	0.112	0.362
SE→ SU	0.168	2.449*	0.130	0.171	1.370	0.234	0.019	2.344	-0.104	0.385
WN →Ethnic neighbourhood tourism(ENT)	0.468	7.743***	0.417	0.000	5.219	0.505	0.000	5.661	-0.088	0.751
EC → ENT	0.089	1.675 ^{ns}	0.207	0.009	2.608	-0.048	0.486	-0.697	0.256	0.019
SU → ENT	0.066	1.347 ^{ns}	0.118†	0.068	1.825	0.041	0.556	0.589	0.076	0.364

Note: ns = not significant; † p < 0.100; *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001 (Two-tailed test).

Overall, the findings of this study reveal that the degree to which residents prefer or resist a form of a common in-group representation may differ even among minority groups depending on each group's socioeconomic conditions. Therefore, tourism planners and authorities need to carefully evaluate each group's social status and power hierarchy in a community to make ENT more beneficial to different ethnic groups.

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VISITOR EXPERIENCE MODEL AT MARIAN SHRINE OF LA VANG

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INTRODUCTION

Sacred sites have gradually become tourism destinations for visitors (Vukonić, 2002) because they have been consumed for visitors' authentic experiences (Vukonić, 2006). To experience the holiness and peaceful environment of the sacred sites is valuable for spiritual growth (Vukonić, 2006). Today, the sacred sites attract visitors not because they are seen as sacred religious sites but because they are significant cultural tourism resources (Shackley, 2001). A journey to the sacred places is a growth market (Bywater, 1994; Holmberg, 1993; Oslen & Timothy, 1999; Post, Pieper, & van Uden, 1998; Russell, 1999; San Filippo, 2001; Singh, 1998; Shackley, 2001). Since the sacred sites attract classic, traditional believers, as well as other visitors (Inskeep, 1991; Middleton, 1994), such tourism tends to be relatively recession-resistant (Boniface, 1995).

Travelling towards sacred destinations is fueled by people's dissatisfaction with life, growing stress levels, and troubles with the fast pace and unpredictability of contemporary society (Aldred, 2000; Lengfelder & Timothy 2000; Reisinger 2006). The sacred places such as Marian shrines tend to draw hundreds of thousands of visitors (Sallnow, 1987: 3). As a result of marketing and a growing general interest in cultural tourism, the sacred sites are frequented more by curious tourists than by spiritual pilgrims, and are thus commercialized and packaged for tourists (Vukonić, 1996; Shoval, 2000; Shackley, 2001; Olsen, 2003).

Even though there exist arguments about the authenticity of the sacred sites (Carroll, 1985), sacred sites such as Marian shrines tend to attract a large number of visitors and thus they have been changed from a completely anonymous place to a world-famous destination (Vukonić, 1992). For example, Medjugorje has attracted an impressive number of pilgrims from inside Bosnia and all around the world: according to rough estimates, almost 10 million (Bax, 1990). The large volumes

of visitors tend to visit Medjugorje in organized trips from Italy, France, Spain, Ireland, Germany, Austria, Holland, United Kingdom, United States, Japan, and other countries (Vukonić, 1992), changing from the poor hamlet with a larger karst landscape to a world-famous pilgrimage destination. The visitations have impacted Medjugorje in tourism infrastructure (Vukonić, 1992). Many tourist accommodations have been built in Medjugorje, as well as in the nine neighboring villages and towns, supporting the view that Medjugorje has become a well-established tourist destination (Vukonić, 1992). A similar thing happened in Lourdes of France. Lourdes has developed into huge religious tourism attractions and highly developed commercial centre (Eade, 1992) with 370 hotels and 200 shops (Shackley, 2001), attracting very large volumes of visitors that have been increasing at a rapid rate rather than diminishing (Kosti, 1998). Lourdes, since its beginning as pilgrimage site (1858), has experienced a constant population growth (Rinschede, 1992) from 4,000 to 15,250 residents, by contrast with other neighbouring Pyrenean cities whose population are declining (Shackley, 2001). The population growth stems mainly from the arrival of workers from the surrounding area of Lourdes (Rinschede, 1986). Other shrine destination such as Fatima (Portugal) has also grown from village to city as a result of the pilgrimage trade (Shackley, 2001). The economy of the entire city of Fatima and its surroundings is influenced by the pilgrim stream (Rinschede, 1992). Such a small town Fatima has 37 hotels (Shackley, 2001).

As Vukonić (1998) insisted, despite the fact that the huge number of visitors towards Marian shrines contribute to the huge growth of religious tourism destinations, it is one of the most understudied areas in tourism research. Among Marian shrines, except Fatima and Lourdes, the great majority of Marian shrines are unknown and thus the experiential aspects of religious tourists at

Marian shrines are still veiled. For the management of religious tourism destination, understanding visitors' authentic experiences in sacred sites are necessary. This research therefore aims to identify and evaluate visitors' experiences at Marian shrine through the case study of La Vang of Vietnam as one of the Marian shrines authorized by the Vatican. In previous tourism research, the Grounded Theory approach has been used to discover social and psychological processes (Gibbs, 2010) and the meaning of spirituality, and offers tourism studies the potential to generate holistic theories (Tan, Kung, & Luh, 2013), improving understanding of human attitude and behavior (Jennings & Junek, 2007). Since visitors' experiences at Marian shrines are rarely placed within an applicable theoretical framework in the tourism literature, this study employs the Grounded Theory approach to identify visitors' experiences at the Marian shrine of La Vang. The generated themes by the Grounded Theory approach will be useful to identify the nature of Marian shrines. Furthermore, the results of this study might contribute to the development of scale to measure visitors' experiential aspects at Marian shrines because religious places authorized by the Vatican tend to attract huge number of visitors.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In the Grounded Theory approach, the literature review is conducted after generating themes in order to reveal and identify phenomena which are not governed by previous studies. Thus, the literature review has been conducted after sorting all the codes, comparing with what has already been coded and generated through this study.

Spiritual tourism

Happiness, well-being, self-realization, and self-enhancement are heavily questioned in stressful environments under time pressure (Norman, 2011). Thus, many people try to travel to sacred places to find themselves, to think about their life and to solve the conflicts with their social environments.

Spiritual tourism tends to be related with the self-seeking process for self-enhancement. Self-enhancement is fulfilled by the spiritual tourism

which is regarded as an emerging market. The self-enhancement through travelling might be related with the satisfaction of the need of self-actualization suggested by Maslow (1976, 19). According to Norman (2011), spiritual tourism is identified by an intentional search for spiritual benefit such as self-improvement through self-realization, self-improvement and self-examination, and spirituality is important for solving problems in spiritual tourism. King (2008) and Norman (2011) argue that spiritual benefit can be also gained by religious practice. Accordingly, the definition and concepts related to spiritual tourism are still vague.

Self-discovery

Self-discovery means finding oneself (Wikipedia, 2018). When people are exposed in stressful environment, self-discovery is likely to be a motivation for trip planning. Religious tourism is described as journey of self-discovery (Dienst, 2006). Singh and Singh (2009) insisted that the journey to a religious place is a way of finding oneself from suffering. In terms of the concept of self-discovery, Kohlberg and Gilligan (1971) insisted that it implies egocentrism. However, self-discovery can be also related to others such as family or community. For example, according to De Bary (1997), self-discovery is linked with social responsibility with others such as family or social group by the influence of Confucian ethics because Confucianism emphasizes social or group ethic. In addition to this, self-discovery provides a fundamental basis for forming culture because the discovery of self of teenager leads to the enactment of the adolescent culture (Kohlberg & Gilligan, 1971). As religious tourism and spiritual tourism are defined as trip of self-discovery (Dienst, 2006; Norman, 2011), spiritual and religious tourists tend to concentrate on themselves in religious sacred sites from their stressful daily environment. However, the association between self-discovery and the religious sacred place received limited scholarly attention in tourism field, remaining under-researched area. Hence this study identifies how religious sacred sites influence visitors' self-discovery through the case study of the Marian shrine of La Vang.

Self-realization

Self-realization as an experience of the

joyful aspect of reality is internally related happiness (Naess, 1995). Self-realization is used to reveal two types of growth such as growing of awareness and expansion of consciousness (Assagioli, 1961). According to Assagioli, (1961), self-realization connotes psychological growth and maturation, of the awakening of latent potentialities of the human being such as ethical, esthetic and religious experiences and activities. Naess (1995) insists that there is an interaction between the type of self and self-realization. According to Naess (1995), self-realization might be reached through "selfless action" which means through a diminishment of the dominance of the narrow self or ego. For example, if people recognize themselves with their neighbor and society which means the widened and enlarged self, those people can increase their self-realization by the happiness of the enlarged self such as neighbor, society, and world, which may result in non-violence. Since religiosity emphasizes self-realization (Luckman, 1967) and spiritual benefit by self-realization is gained in spiritual tourism (Norman, 2011), religious tourism and spiritual tourism can help visitors to find themselves while staying in sacred places. Honneth (2004) insists that the demands for self-realization will be increased because the more economic growth, the more self-realization of people. Accordingly, it is expected that the needs for self-realization will be increased in developing countries such as Vietnam. However, even though the needs of self-realization tend to increase due to world economic growth, the association between self-realization and tourism is seldom touched and thus remained under-researched area in tourism field. Hence, this study identifies the relationship between self-realization and tourism through the case of the Marian shrine of La Vang.

Self-transformation

Self-transformation is emphasized by religiosity (Luckman, 1967, p. 85). For example, in Christianity the meaning of resurrection implies self-transformation. The religious creed of Christianity (Romans 12:2; Galatians 5:16, 18, 22) emphasizes to be transformed by the renewing of mind from the life according to the flesh desires (i.e., licentiousness, selfish ambition, drunkenness, passions and revels) to the life according to the spirit

desires (i.e., love, patience, kindness, generosity, gentleness and self-control). Lyon (2000) insists that individuals construct the self with reference to the sacred for seeking self-transformation through spirituality. In spiritual tourism, often the content of spiritual practice is a mirror for such examination of the self and most spiritual tourists tend to feel that the problems of their lives can be solved through spiritual practices such as self-transformation (Norman, 2011). Therefore, it is expected that self-transformation is fulfilled in religious tourism and spiritual tourism. This study identifies how visitor the personal self is transformed at the sacred site through the case of the Marian shrine of La Vang.

Religious tourism at Marian shrines

Since the religions of the world have promised believers that a visit to a holy place will solve some or all of their spiritual or material troubles (Vukonić, 1992), many believers are motivated to participate in the religious ceremonies and conferences held in sacred places. The sacred sites tend to be located in the periphery of society away from secularism (Tuner, 1973).

Previous studies tend not to distinguish between pilgrims and tourists because a pilgrim is a tourist who is motivated by spiritual or religious factors (Olsen & Timothy, 2006). Rather, pilgrimage is typically accepted as a form of tourism (Fleischer, 2000), for it is similar to the same general characteristics of tourism in terms of travel patterns and the use of transportation, services, and infrastructure. For example, pilgrimage involves sightseeing, travelling, visiting different places, consuming hotel service and buying the local souvenirs (Gupta, 1999).

Marian shrines such as Guadalupe (Odem, 2004), La Salette (Zimdars-Swartz, 2014), Lourdes (Eade, 1992), Medjugorje (Vukonić, 2006; Skrbiš, 2005) and Fatima (Rinschede, 1992) are visited by a large number of religious tourists, and the huge visitor flows affect the sacred sites and their surrounding areas. In Catholicism, the Virgin Mary is the symbol of the utmost care for family, the sick, the poor, and the weak, and is believed to bring peace to every home and every region (Vukonić, 2006). In the history of Christianity, such Marian shrines serve as a kind of tool for strengthening and dissemination of Christian beliefs

(Vukonić, 2006), attracting a large number of religious tourists. On another level, while Marian shrines have served as pivots of nationalist sentiment, the same shrines become international tourism destinations, attracting believers or non-religious tourists from all around the world (Orsi, 2008). Accordingly, managing such great volumes of visitors to Marian shrines is immense challenges, not least in balancing the need to conserve the environment of site with provision of authentic experience for the visitor (Shackley, 2001). The majority of Marian shrines tend to be visited by a large volume of visitors during the period of religious events. Therefore, to understand the experiences of visitors is prerequisite for the management of Marian shrines and improving the quality of visitors' experiences. However, the visitors' experiences in Marian shrines are seldom touched in tourism research field. Accordingly, to identify tourists' experiences at Marian shrines is essential for understanding the visitors and managing the sites.

Emotional release

Religious travellers tend to go on pilgrimage to the sacred sites to reduce the level of anxiety. For instance, according to Eade (1992), to gain emotional release from the world of everyday structure is main motivation for religious travellers to go on pilgrimage to the religious sites such as the Marian shrines of Lourdes. Since the basic message underlying all the Virgin Mary's visitations is a call for peace, prayer, conversion, and penitence, which are of a universal character (Vukonić, 1992), emotional security is the main reason why religious tourists visit the sacred sites where the Virgin Mary appeared, such as Lourdes and Medjugorje (Eade, 1992; Vukonić, 1992). La Vang located in the central of Vietnam was authorized as Marian shrine by the Vatican in 1999. However, the visitors' experiences in La Vang are veiled. Therefore, this study unveils the nature of visitors' experiences, revealing how visitors gain emotional release at Marian shrine of La Vang.

Sacred experience

Sacred sites are often accomplished by miraculous healings and events (Vukonić, 2006). Sacred experience tends to make sacred site an appealing attraction for traditional tourists (Bremer,

2006). The sacred experiences are unique characteristics for the sacred sites like Marian shrines. As previous studies (Eade & Sallnow, 1991; Shackley, 2001; Vukonić, 2006) revealed, the miraculous events related to cures and sun tend to have taken place during the religious ceremonies at the Marian shrines. For example, in terms of the miraculous cures by the water of Marian shrines, the intensity of relations between helpers and the sick pilgrims is indeed a prominent feature of Lourdes (Eade & Sallnow, 1991). In addition, the long lines of visitors queuing at the taps which pipe water from the spring to one side of the grotto witness to another momento can be seen in Lourdes of France authorized as Marian shrine by the Vatican (Eade, 1992; LeBlanc, 1995). Regarding the miracle of the sun, De Marchi (1956) wrote a book "the true story of Fatima", which includes descriptions by witnesses who experienced the miraculous sun in Fatima where the Virgin Mary appeared in 1917. According De Marchi (1956), many witnesses of Fatima described the sun's disc as being opaque, silvered, or like mother-of-pearl. However, not all participants experienced the miracle of the sun in Fatima. According to Jaki (1999), among the visitors of Fatima some people only experienced the dance of sun like spinning disc in the sky, the other visitors saw nothing at all.

The aspects of the sacred experiences might function in multiple ways. Firstly, the sacred experiences by visitors are likely to be evidences for the Vatican to judge and authorize Marian shrines. Secondly, it might help to heal people and integrate a critical self-reflexive consciousness with a deep experience of the sacred, and would thus help to satisfy self-actualization needs (Reason, 1993). Thirdly, it makes visitors have 'geopietty' invented by Wright (1966), which refers to the recognition of certain areas as sacred, meaning devotion and loyalty towards a perceived sacred space (Shackley, 2001).

METHOD

The Grounded Theory approach was used to develop themes in terms of the experiences of visitors at the Marian shrine of La Vang of Vietnam. In total, 36 respondents who stayed in temporarily-erected tent camp in the open air of La Vang were interviewed during the feast period

for the Assumption of the Virgin Mary from August 12, 2017 to August 16, 2017. The feast day of the Assumption ranks third, after Christmas and Easter in Catholicism (Vukonić, 2006). Since the great majority of visitors were domestic Vietnamese, the interviews were conducted in Vietnamese with well-trained Vietnamese research assistant.

The respondents were asked their experiences and their sense of place at the Marian shrine of La Vang, Vietnam. The interview started with question about their motivation to visit the Marian shrine of La Vang. The respondents were then asked whether they found themselves and the solutions to the problems of their social environment while staying at the Marian shrine of La Vang. Later, the respondents were asked how they gained spiritual benefit and how to seek their self-transformation. Next questions were about respondents' spiritual activities, experiential aspects and sense of place at La Vang. The additional opinions of respondents about the Marian shrine of La Vang were also noted. During the process of interviewing, the author realized that some of respondents experienced the miraculous sun such as colorful sun or the spin of sun at La Vang. Thus, the author asked whether the respondents experienced the miracle of the sun or other sacred aspects at the Marian shrine of La Vang.

The data of interview record were encoded. While the encoded data were re-viewed, the interview transcripts were grouped into 22 concepts for qualitative analysis. The texts of the data of interviews were coded by the open coding technique (Daengbuppa, Hemmington, & Wilkes, 2006) which aims to identify the concepts with a focus on the phrases and nouns used to describe the experiences of respondents. In total, 22 concepts were generated to represent the thoughts, feelings, and opinions of respondents in terms of the experiences of visitors at the Marian shrine of La Vang, Vietnam. The 22 concepts were not set up in advance (Glaser, 2007) and were developed as a result of checking the data. Next, the 22 concepts were subjected to the process of axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998) to organize the 22 concepts into 7 categories of related

ideas and were examined for themes in the interviews data by the selective coding which could be done by going over old field notes (Maguire & Redman, 2007), computing with pre-existing theory (Morrison, 2014). Several significant themes were generated in terms of the experiences of visitors at the Marian shrine of La Vang authorized by the Vatican: self-discovery, self-transformation, self-realization, spiritual tourism, religious tourism, emotional release, worship, religious practice, and sacred experiences.

Instead of validity, fit, relevance, workability, and modifiability should be judged in the Grounded Theory approach (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Glaser 1978; Glaser, 1998). Accordingly, for the fitness of interview data, unrelated items among all data items which did not fit with the experiences of visitors at Marian shrine were deleted. As for the relevance, this study dealt with only the interview data in terms of the feelings, sense of place and experiences of visitors who visited to see Our Lady of La Vang. Regarding the workability, this study revealed visitor experience model at Marian shrine of La Vang since the nature of visitor experience has been veiled. For this, the author participated in local anniversary event (La Vang) for the assumption of the Virgin Mary from August 12, 2017 to August 16, 2017, collecting only one sample from each of tents provided by local organizers. The samples are similar to the visitor population of La Vang: entirely Vietnamese domestic visitor. In terms of the modifiability, the Grounded Theory can be altered when new data are compared to existing data (Glaser & Strauss 1967; Glaser 1978; Glaser, 1998). While interviewing with the Vietnamese respondents, the author realized that one female respondent with her grandson saw the colorful sun with the image of the Virgin Mary on August 14, 2017. Thus, the author asked whether respondents have the sacred experience from August 14, 2017 to August 16, 2017. Finally, this study revealed that slightly more than half of respondents had sacred experiences at Marian shrine of La Vang.

Table 1. Summary table of open coding, axial coding and selective coding

Generated concepts from interview transcripts	Subthemes	Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finding myself • While praying to Our Lady of La Vang, I could understand more about myself and feel everything, which means clear • Closer to the Virgin Mary helps me see myself clearly 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-discovery 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spiritual Tourism + Religious Tourism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeking self-transformation • Attending a local church and listening to the teaching of Father strengthen my belief • Stronger belief after visiting La Vang 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-transformation 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finding peace at the heart of conflict • Finding the solutions to the problems of my home by praying and confessing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-realization 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peaceful • Comfortable • Excited and Happy • Relieved • Like the heaven. • Disappearing of worry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional release 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Religious Tourism: Religious experiences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long journey for seeing the Virgin Mary • Expressing my gratitude to the Virgin Mary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worship 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attending mass • Praying • Practicing of forgiveness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Religious practices 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeing the miracle of the sun: the spin of the sun and colorful sun • Seeing the image of the Virgin Mary on the miraculous sun • Recovery from illness by the water of La Vang 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sacred experiences 	

Case study area: the Marian shrine of La Vang

La Vang is the site of Roman Catholic sanctuary named the Minor Basilica of Our Lady of La Vang located in the middle of Vietnam. La Vang is a small and poor village once unknown even in its own country, set in the rainforest area of the middle of Vietnam. La Vang belongs to the category of the sites of Marian apparitions authorized by the Vatican. La Vang is visited by the sick and the wounded people who are seeking a cure and peace like other Marian shrines such as Lourdes (Eade & Sallnow, 1991) and Fatima (Rinschede, 1992). The statues of the Virgin Mary of La Vang with the traditional Vietnamese dress named *áo dài* are oriental, which are different from the western-style statues of Fatima, Lourdes, La Salette, Medjugorje and Guadalupe. Many visitors tend to drink the herb tea which Our Lady of La Vang informed the Vietnamese Catholics who had been suffered from illness caused by fear of death and starvation due to the prosecution of Catholics in 1798. According to the legend of La Vang, in the late eighteenth Century the king's government wanted to unify Vietnam with Buddhism in order

to make Buddhist country rather than Catholic country. However, the community cohesion of Vietnamese Catholics was very strong, which means that it was an obstacle for achieving Vietnamese national policy. Thus, the king's government tried to get rid of the Vietnamese Catholics. At that time a wave of persecutions in Vietnam caused Christian families to flee their hometowns, and many had taken refuge in the La Vang forest of Vietnam (Rutter, 2017). While the Vietnamese Catholics had hid in the rain forest of La Vang to avoid the king's army, they prayed their safety to the Virgin Mary at the crossroads of life and death. In 1798 the Virgin Mary was finally seen to the Vietnamese Catholics. At that time the Virgin Mary hid them by the rain forest so that the king's army cannot find the Catholics, comforted them, and informed to boil the leaves of the tree of La Vang as a medicine for curing their illness. Because of the legend, the name of La Vang means the tea leaves informed by the Virgin Mary in 1798. The leaves of the tree of La Vang have been consumed as a tea for local people and visitors since the Marian apparitions in 1798.

Through the spread of the story of Our Lady of La Vang, many Vietnamese Catholics or non-believers have visited La Vang during the event to commemorate the Marian apparitions and devotion in the middle of August since 1986. The visitors are mainly Vietnamese domestic visitors who are poor, sick or wounded due to unresolved conflicts with family members. Most visitors are Vietnamese Catholics. Interestingly the behavior of Vietnamese visitors is different between the inside of Marian shrine and the outside of the site. Inside of Marian shrine, the visitors tend to behave gently, smiling to their family even other visitors. They also tend to clean their surrounding area. Even though hundreds of thousands of visitors gather at Marian shrine of La Vang during the special event period, the inside of the sanctuary tends to be kept good atmosphere for praying, whereas outside of the sanctuary the visitors tend to walk faster and to talk to their company with loud voice and argue with the sellers in order to discount the relative price of goods.

As the case of Medjugorje (Rinschede, 1992), the influences of visitations of Vietnamese visitors are likely to be evident during the event period for the assumption of the Virgin Mary, especially in the form of heavy traffic, employment of special buses, and provision of parking places, festival tents, and other necessary facilities. In addition, a large number of travelling salesman try to sell food, water, fan, ice to visitors during the religious events at La Vang as the case of Fatima and Lourdes (Rinschede, 1992).

As pilgrim activities often take place in the open air of the sacred sites (Rinschede, 1992), the visitors' activities of La Vang are occurred in the open space where the Virgin Mary appeared to the Vietnamese Catholics in 1798. The priests of La Vang also offer religious services during the event period.

FINDINGS

Characteristics of respondents. The data were obtained from a sample of 36 respondents who visited La Vang as one of Marian shrines with a bias in favor of females, which is similar to the case of Lourdes of France (Eade, 1992). Regarding nationality, the whole respondents were Vietnamese domestic visitors. In terms of educational level, slightly more than half of respondents (55.6%) graduated from elementary school or middle school, followed by high school (27.8%), college (13.9%) and university (2.8%). Middle-aged and older people tended to visit La Vang as the cases of other Marian shrines such as Lourdes (Eade, 1992) and Medjugorje (Vukonić, 1992). The majority of the sample were married with children and belonged to low class or middle-low class. Few visitors travelled alone and most Vietnamese respondents came to La Vang by family group or the unit of village. The visitations tended to be bound to certain seasonality (August) as the pattern of religious tourism (Rinschede, 1992). Based on the classification of Rinschede (1992), the case of La Vang is regarded as long-term tourism.

Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of respondents (n=36)

Variable		Percent
Gender	Male	33.3
	Female	66.7
Age	18-25	19.4
	26-35	11.1
	36-45	16.7
	46-55	19.4
	56 or above	33.3
Nationality	Vietnamese	100.0
Education level	Middle school or below	55.6
	High school	27.8
	College	13.9
	University	2.8
Marital status	Single	19.4
	Married with no children	5.6
	Married with children	75.0
Social status	Low	11.1
	Middle-low	58.3
	Middle	25.0
	Upper-middle	5.6

Theme 1: Spiritual tourism and religious tourism. In terms of visitors' experiences at La Vang as one of the Marian apparition sites, the three subthemes such as 'self-discovery', 'self-transformation', and 'self-realization' were generated. Those subthemes are in line with the

spiritual tourism and religious tourism because spiritual tourists can gain spiritual benefits through 'self-discovery', 'self-transformation', and 'self-realization' (Norman, 2011) and the three subthemes are emphasized by religiosity (Luckman, 1967, p. 85).

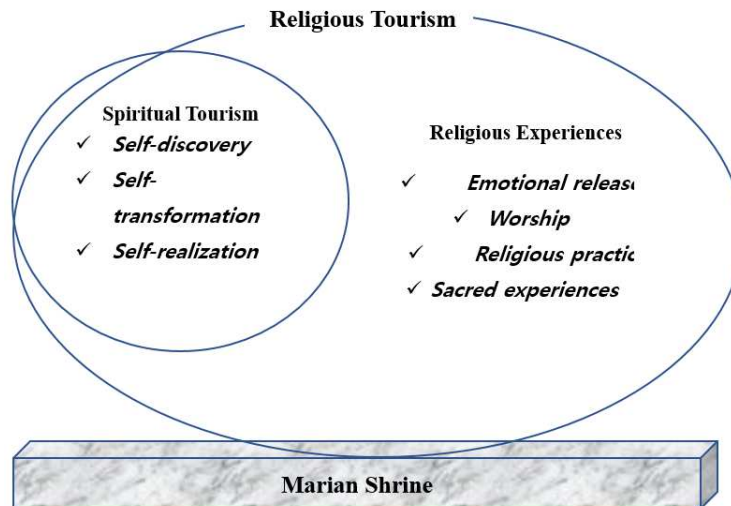


Figure 1. Visitor experience model at the Marian shrine of La Vang

Subtheme 1: Self-discovery. In relating with the sacred environment, Vietnamese visitors tended to secure an intensified awareness of their inner being. The great majority of respondents (83.3%) had a tendency to find themselves through praying the Rosary, prayers, and confessing their thoughts, attitude and behaviors to Our Lady of La Vang. For example, R19 stated that

While praying to Our Lady of La Vang, I could understand more about myself and feel everything surrounding me is clear.

Vietnamese visitors experienced to be aware themselves through religious engagement and by the sacred landscape of Marian shrine of La Vang. This result is in line with Singh and Singh (2009) who insisted that sacred sites provide an atmosphere to concentrate on the personal self and Dienst (2006) who defined that religious tourism is a journey of self-discovery. The phenomenon of self-discovery tends to be occurred in both religious tourism and spiritual tourism because religiosity emphasizes self-discovery (Luckman, 1967, p.85) and religious tourism is defined as a journey of self-discovery

(Dienst, 2006) and self-discovery is fulfilled by spiritual tourism (Norman, 2011).

Subtheme 2: Self-transformation. Self-transformation is also occurred in religious tourism and spiritual tourism. The majority of respondents (63.8%) tended to experience their self-transformation through visiting La Vang. When they visited La Vang with their family members and friends first time, they were not Catholics but they had a strong belief through frequent visits. Interestingly the children who visited La Vang with their parents tended to change their attitude. For example, R 21 mentioned that

My son tends to be picky for eating at home, which causes my troubles, but he changed his attitude here and he has now good eating habits.

This result is in line with Lyon (2000) who insisted that religious tourists tend to experience self-transformation in sacred sites. The evidence of self-transformation is reflected in authorizing Marian shrines in Catholicism because self-transformation is regarded as an indicator for

evaluating Marian shrines. According to Naess (1995), people tend to see themselves in others. Thus, from the point of view of Naess (1995), it is inferred that the visitors who found peace with solutions to their problems at the Marian shrine of La Vang might help other's self-transformation.

Subtheme 3: Self-realization. As MacWilliams (2000) mentioned that when people are spiritually exposed they experience joy with gentle minds, the majority of respondents (72.2%) gained spiritual benefit and found peace at their hearts of conflicts through the achievement of self-realization at Marian shrine of La Vang. When they had family conflicts, they tended to visit La Vang to see the Virgin Mary and then tried to realize themselves through self-examination based on prayers, finding the solutions to the problems of their home in order to make a better situation. For example, R 18 said that

I feel self-confident, happy and peaceful here by my prayers to the Virgin Mary of La Vang. The environment of La Vang makes me forget all my problems and difficulties in my life by my family members, relatives, neighbors and colleagues.

Norman (2011) mentioned that religion is able to support spiritual tourists to aware themselves. Thus, self-realization is regarded as a phenomenon which occurs in both religious tourism and spiritual tourism.

Theme 2: Religious tourism - religious experiences. The theme of religious tourism related to religious experiences was emerged, which includes four subthemes such as 'emotional release', 'worship', 'religious practices' and 'sacred experiences'.

Subtheme 1: Emotional release. The great majority of respondents (95%) tended to gain emotional security and release through healing while staying at the Marian shrine of La Vang. This result is in line with Shackley (2001) who insisted that visitor's emotional attachment to the sacred site influences the nature of visitors' experiences. The sense of place of respondents was described by emotional words such as peaceful (58.3%), happy

(38.8%), excited (38.8%), relieved (13.8%), comfortable (13.8%), warm (8.3%), consoled (8.3%), sympathy (8.3%), confident (5.5%), healthy (2.7%), like the heaven (2.7%) and calm (2.7%). For example, R 18 stated that

Since I am very old and weak, I cannot live at home without many medicines. My home is far away from La Vang. It does take nearly two days from my home to La Vang. So my family members asked me not to go to La Vang, but I came to La Vang to see the Virgin Mary by my strong willingness. As you can see me, I am very happy and peaceful here. While staying at Marian shrine of La Vang, I stopped to eat the medicines because I do not feel painful anymore here. Thus, La Vang is like the heaven to me.

According to Singh and Singh (2009), emotional release to develop the meaningful understanding of life can be gained by hierophanic experiences of spiritual sojourn in sacred place. Hence, the Marian shrine of La Vang might enable visitors to experience the hierophanic phenomenon which is helpful to gain emotional release.

Subtheme 2: Worship. In terms of the worship through a tangible experience, which means that visitor can only experience in specific site, slightly more than half of respondents (55.5%) had a long journey to see the virgin Mary of La Vang and express their gratitude to our lady of La Vang during the feast days for the assumption of the Virgin Mary (August 12-15, 2017) at Marian shrine of La Vang. For the Vietnamese visitors, physical journey (Andriotis, 2009) is secondary to their inner ones. R 29 said that

Even though my home is far away from here, I came to La Vang to show my gratitude and give thanks to Our Lady of La Vang because she listened to my voice and granted my wishes when I came to La Vang last year.

Subtheme 3: Religious practices. As for the third subtheme religious practices, the great majority of respondents (86.1%) tended to attend the mass of local church near the tree where the Virgin Mary appeared in 1798, praying for their family health, luck, peace and happiness. According to Vukonic

(2006), the religious ritual such as the church mass contributes to keeping some degree of credibility of the sacred site because the ritual represents faith in action. Respondents have also practiced the philosophy of forgiveness which is regarded as another expression for love in Christianity. For example, R 14 mentioned that

When I had the fifth child who was only one year old, my husband left our family without saying. So, I had worked at farm to survive with my five children. Several years later my husband came back to home, asking for forgiveness. Since I realized the importance of forgiveness for our life while staying at La Vang, I had tried to forgive my husband. In fact, forgiving my husband was not easy to me. Now I got another two children more.

Subtheme 4: Sacred experiences. Concerning the fourth sub-theme sacred experiences, half of respondents (52.7%) had a tendency to experience the sacred aspects such as the miracle of the sun and recovery from illness by the water of La Vang. In terms of the miracle of sun, R 27 stated that

I have visited La Vang every year since four years ago. Each year I saw the moving and colorful sun. In this morning around 5-6a.m. when the Catholic priest of Marian shrine of La Vang preached a sermon, the weather was very hot but suddenly it became cooler. My relatives also could feel the cooler air at the same time and then we looked directly the colorful sun, which did not hurt our eyes.

Interestingly, the miracle of the sun tended to be experienced differently by visitors like the case of Fatima (Jaki, 1999). For example, R 35 mentioned that

Whenever I come to La Vang, I can feel peaceful but I cannot see the moving sun and the colorful sun. However my wife saw the spin of the sun and the dark blue colored sun in this morning. When my wife asked me to see the miraculous sun, I tried to see it, but the sun was normal to me.

Regarding the recovery of illness, as the case

of Lourdes (Eade, 1992; LeBlanc, 1995), slightly less than twenty percent respondents felt reduced pain at Marian shrine of La Vang. R 12 said that

The water of La Vang is medicine to me. In fact, I have been suffering from articular rheumatism. While staying here, I try to rub the water into my knee. It is amazing that I do not feel painful.

As Shackley (2001, 2002) mentioned, visitors tend to visit sacred sites in order to seek authentic experiences. The majority of respondents of La Vang had authentic experiences by the program provided by the priests of La Vang and by experiencing sacred atmosphere such as the peaceful environment and the miracle of the sun. The respondents' authentic experiences are similar to the cases of the Marian apparitions sites authorized by the Vatican such as Lourdes (Eade, 1992) and Fatima (Shackley, 2001) in terms of the sacred aspects such as the miracle of the sun and the recovery from illness by the water of Marian apparitions sites. According to Reason (1993), the sacred experiences can help to heal people and integrate a critical self-reflexive consciousness. The respondents' experiences of miraculous healings at La Vang may contribute to the religious revival among the inhabitants of Vietnam as the case of Medjugorje (Bax, 1990).

DISCUSSION

Vietnamese visitors are religious tourists or spiritual tourists? The Vietnamese visitors are similar to religious tourists rather than spiritual tourists since spiritual tourists are relatively young and are not entirely dependent on religion (Norman, 2011). As the typical type of religious tourists of other Marian shrines such as Medjugorje (Vukonić, 1992) and Lourdes (Rinschede, 1992), the majority of visitors of La Vang are middle-aged or older, and there is an exception- many disable children accompanied by parents (Photo 1). The main reasons of the disability in the young Vietnamese children are the aftereffects of war such as the explosion of buried bombs related to the Vietnam war. For instance, while Vietnamese farmers plow up a field, the explosion of bombs tends to be occurred, resulting in people's death or disability.

As individual tourism represents the minority in religious tourism (Rinschede, 1992), the Vietnamese visitors of La Vang tended to travel with groups. Such groups were composed of people from same church or family groups or same village. The gender imbalance with female dominance appears through this research as the same as other Catholic pilgrim sites (Shackley, 2001).

Relationship between spiritual tourism and religious tourism. This study generated seven subthemes by the Grounded Theory approach: self-discovery, self-transformation, self-realization, emotional release, worship, religious practices and sacred experiences. Among the generated subthemes, self-discovery, self-transformation, and

self-realization belong to both spiritual tourism and religious tourism. Since religion is useful for self-enhancement by the three subthemes in spiritual tourism (King, 2008; Norman, 2011) and religiosity emphasizes them as well (Luckman, 1967, p.85), the relationship between spiritual tourism and religious tourism is interactive. The subthemes related to religious experiences belong to religious tourism: emotional release, worship, religious practices and sacred experiences. As shown in Figure 1, this result reveals that both spiritual tourism and religious tourism are available at Marian shrine. In addition, it shows that religious tourism covers spiritual tourism, which means that religious places have a latent capacity to be developed for spiritual tourism destination.



Photo 1. Disable children by the explosion of buried bombs (August 15, 2017)

Why visitors gain a heightened sense of their inner being at Marian shrine? There are two reasons. The first reason is the sacred environment. This study revealed that visitors experienced self-enhancement at Marian shrine of La Vang as a sacred site, focusing on their personal self. In other words, it means that the Marian shrine influences visitors' self-discovery, self-transformation and self-realization. This point is in line with Tuan (1986) and Singh and Singh (2009). According to Tuan (1986), the spiritual journey of visitors at

sacred sites tends to make tourists release from trials of everyday life. Singh and Singh (2009) insisted that the contemplation of the surrounding landscape of the sacred site can help visitor's self-discovery. The second reason is religious engagement. As this study showed that Vietnamese visitors experienced to be aware themselves through religious engagement at Marian shrine of La Vang, the religious faith of visitors related to the sacred sites has an influence on their self-enhancement. This view is supported by King (2008) and Norman

(2011) who mentioned that the intensified sense of spiritual tourists' inner being is gained by the intentional search for spiritual benefits which coincides with religious practices.

Whether every visitor can have sacred experiences? This study generated the subtheme of sacred experiences. The sacred experiences of visitors at Marian shrine of La Vang are similar to the cases of other Marian apparitions sites such as Fatima (Rinschede, 1992; Shackley, 2001), Lourdes (Eade, 1992), and Medjugorje (Vukonić, 1992). This study showed that slightly more than half of respondents experienced the sacred aspects such as the miracle of the sun like dancing sun and purple or dark blue colored sun and the rest did not see the miraculous event at all. Based on the saying of R 35, an individual's experience at La Vang tends to be influenced by the degree of religious faith, which is in line with Jaki (1999) and Shackley (2001) who insisted that an individual's view toward sacred aspects is stratified with different levels of perceived sanctity.

CONCLUSION

Marian shrine authorized by the Vatican tends to attract hundreds of thousands of visitors and the huge number of visitors affect the site and its surrounding areas in multi-aspects. According to Timothy and Boyd (2003), many people tend to travel the sacred sites with multiple purposes such as religious purposes and cultural tourism. Thus, understanding visitors' authentic experiences at Marian shrines is very important for site management and tourism development. Accordingly, this study developed visitor experience model through the case of Marian shrine of La Vang located in Vietnam.

This study has academic implications in two points. The first point is that this study identified the association between spiritual tourism and religious tourism, that is, religious tourism covers spiritual tourism. In other words, spiritual tourism belongs to religious tourism, which means that religious places are suitable for spiritual tourism as well. Therefore, it is estimated that Marian shrines have a potential for both spiritual tourism and religious tourism. The second significance is this study unveiled the nature of visitors' experiences in Marian shrine of La Vang. This study revealed

that the Vietnamese visitors' experiences are similar to the cases of Fatima (Rinschede, 1992) and Lourdes (Eade, 1992). The results showed that Vietnamese visitors as religious tourists had religious experiences such as emotional release, worship, religious practice and sacred experiences and gained spiritual benefit such as self-enhancement by self-discovery, self-transformation and self-realization while staying at Marian shrine of La Vang.

This study also has practical implications for medical tourism and authorizing religious places. Regarding medical tourism, this study revealed that the great majority visitors gained emotional release from their stressful environment at Marian shrine of La Vang. Based on this result, Marian shrines have a potential to be used for medical tourism destination related to psychotherapy. As Tuan (1986) and Singh and Singh (2009) mentioned, the landscape of sacred site can help to release visitors from their pressures. Accordingly, it seems that Marian shrines might have a latent capacity to be developed for providing an alternative psychotherapy by its unique landscape. The second thing is that the results of this study might be useful for authorizing Marian shrines. Even though the nature of the experience of visitors cannot be standardized because each visitor comes with his or her own set of prejudices, values, attitudes and expectations (Shackley, 2001), the majority of respondents of La Vang had authentic experiences by experiencing sacred aspects such as the miracle of the sun. The respondents' authentic experiences in terms of the sacred aspects such as the miracle of the sun are similar to the cases of the Marian shrines authorized by the Vatican such as Lourdes (Eade, 1992) and Fatima (Shackley, 2001). Accordingly, sacred experiences such as the miracle of the sun may be regarded as one of scales for evaluating the authenticity of Marian shrines.

Regarding the limitation of research, as Collins-Kreiner (2010) mentioned, the respondents may interpret his or her own experience differently. Accordingly, the data collection with large samples is needed at different times for further study. In addition, this study remains unsolved issues for further study: 1) how visiting Marian shrines affects visitors' lives at the stage of post-trip; 2) which environmental elements of sacred sites influence visitors' self-enhancement?

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DMZ VISITOR'S SUPPORT FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: SIMILARITY, SHARED BELIEF, AND PLACE ATTACHMENT

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INTRODUCTION

The Korean Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) is a symbolic and special place of war and division between South and North Korea. The DMZ has been a unique tourist destination for both domestic and foreign visitors, however, little research has investigated visitors' understanding on the values of the place and their perspectives toward tourism development support. Support for tourism development has been one of the most important topics in tourism research (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Harrill, 2004). There has been increasing evidence that tourists are concerned about environmental and cultural influences of tourism (Cheng & Wu, 2015; Su & Swanson, 2017) and try to minimize negative outcome of their behavior (Chiu, Lee, & Chen, 2014). However, most previous research on tourism development has focused on residents' perspectives but not much on visitors' views yet.

Tourism provides a tourist with an opportunity to create social relationships with other tourists and to recognize some similarity through similar interest and experiences at a particular destination (Joo, 2019, Lum, Keith, & Scott, 2015). Similarity is an essential element in explaining why individuals favor certain social settings over others. The perceived similarity will further stimulate to share common convictions or opinions among tourists, which is referred to as 'shared beliefs' (Woosnam, 2008). Shared belief toward the DMZ can be described in three perspectives: symbolic, touristic, and preservative value. And visitors' shared belief can be an important factor to lead to tourism development support. Thus, this study identifies DMZ visitors' shared belief with the three values to be important to determine their support for tourism development.

When tourists share common understanding

and thoughts toward the destination, they are more likely to develop an affective bond or link to the place, which is called "place attachment." The concept of place attachment has been discussed in the tourism development context. Place attachment is a strong precursor to tourism conservation efforts (Ramkissoon, Weiler, & Smith, 2012; Scannell & Gifford, 2010). That is, individuals who have positive attitude toward a destination are likely to view tourism impacts in a positive way, thereby further supporting for tourism development (Styliadis, Biran, Sit, & Szivas, 2014).

The purpose of the study was to investigate if DMZ visitors' perceived similarity and shared belief will influence their attachment, which will further lead to support for tourism development. In particular, this study examined each value of shared belief has a distinctive role in forming place attachment and determining support for tourism development. Furthermore, this study examined if visitors' place attachment plays a mediator between shared belief and support for tourism development.

METHOD

Measurement

The survey measurement consisted of four constructs: 1) similarity with four-item scale (Bracato, Voorhees, & Baker, 2012), 2) shared beliefs with three items each in symbolic, touristic, and preservative dimensions (Woosnam, 2008), 3) place attachment with three items each in place dependence, identity, affect, and social bonding (Kyle, Mowen, & Tarrant 2004), and 4) support for tourism development with four items (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Wand & Pfister, 2008). All items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree.

Sampling, Data Collection, and Data Analysis

The population of this study included Korean tourists who visited the Korean DMZ in the past. An online survey was conducted on October, 2018 by Embrain, an online survey company in South Korea. This firm runs systematically rigorous procedures to verify the quality of data. An email about the survey was sent to 14,670 panelists and a total of 419 responses were validated for data analysis.

Structural equation modeling was employed to examine the proposed model. First, Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test goodness of fit and convergent and discriminatory validity of the measurement model. The structural model was then estimated for examining causal relationships among constructs in the proposed model. Goodness of fit was measured using Chi-square (χ^2) statistics, comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA).

FINDINGS

Respondents' Demographics and Profile

The sample included 52.3% females and 47.7% males and represented all age groups from 18 years old to 70 years old. About 60% of respondents hold a bachelor's degree or higher and the average monthly household income was about 3 million KRW. Respondents traveled with their family (54.2%), friends (22.9%), or tour groups (27.9%).

Measurement Model

The measurement model specified six factors: similarity, symbolic value, touristic value, preservative value, place attachment, and support for tourism development. Overall, the measurement model showed a good fit to the data: $S-B\chi^2_{(155)} = 316.889$, $p < .0005$, CFI = .953, TLI = .942 and RMSEA = .051 (CI: .043 ~ .058). Table 1 presents the results of descriptive analysis and factor loadings.

Table 1. Results of Descriptive Analysis and Factor Loadings.

Constructs	Loading	Mean	S.D.	Skew	Kurt
Similarity					
I can identify with others visiting DMZ.	.705	3.37	.827	-.413	.031
I am similar to others visiting DMZ	.858	3.47	.810	-.574	.248
Others visiting DMZ are like me.	.562	3.55	.779	-.551	.222
Shared belief - Symbolic Value					
I believe that there is nowhere else like DMZ.	.724	3.85	.802	-.692	.746
I believe that DMZ is a symbolic place.	.807	4.03	.739	-.482	.305
I believe that DMZ is a historical place.	.828	4.12	.671	-.685	1.809
Shared belief - Touristic Value					
I believe that there is a wide variety of amenities in DMZ.	.613	3.16	.891	-.166	-.024
I believe that there is a wide variety of things to see in DMZ.	.829	3.37	.810	-.254	.410
I believe that there is a wide variety of things to enjoy in DMZ.	.805	3.11	.862	.068	.072
Shared belief - Preservative Value					
I respect the nature of DMZ.	.658	3.76	.798	-.593	.688
I believe that preserving the natural value of DMZ is important.	.801	4.10	.750	-.485	.004
I believe that preserving the historical value of DMZ is important.	.807	4.06	.781	-.755	1.019
Place attachment					
Place dependence	.796	2.97	.773	-.067	.068
Place Identity	.880	3.18	.757	-.318	.198
Place affection	.855	3.16	.819	-.267	.217
Social Bonding	.833	3.22	.715	-.448	1.156
Support for Tourism Development					
I support developing the DMZ into a place for exchange.	.707	3.83	.835	-.755	.969
I support developing the DMZ into an international destination.	.885	3.81	.882	-.602	.372
I support developing the DMZ into a sustainable destination.	.905	3.81	.875	-.638	.375
I support developing the DMZ into a place for peace education.	.769	3.90	.809	-.800	1.213

The Cronbach’s Alpha values ranged from .871 to .930, exceeding a cut-off of .70, achieving internal consistency reliability (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). In addition, Composite Reliability (CR) values for all constructs ranged from .757 to .907, exceeding the recommended threshold level of .7, thereby satisfying good construct reliability (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Values in Average Variance Extracted (AVE) ranged from .516 to .708, indicating convergent validity (Hair et al., 2006). AVEs were greater than the squared correlations of corresponding constructs, which suggested satisfactory discriminant validity (Byrne, 2006). Overall, the results confirm a good measurement model for further analysis (Table 2).

Table 2. Results of Measurement Model.

Construct	SIM	SV	TV	PV	PA	SUP
Similarity (SIM)	.516	.390	.365	.268	.398	.290
Symbolic Value (SV)	.150	.620	.303	.458	.625	.314
Touristic Value (TV)	.130	.090	.570	.697*	.298	.498
Preservative Value (PV)	.070	.210	.490	.575	.447	.541
Place Attachment (PA)	.160	.390	.090	.200	.708	.421
Support for Tourism (SUP)	.080	.100	.250	.290	.180	.673
Cronbach alpha	.740	.826	.782	.794	.905	.889
Composite Reliability	.757	.830	.797	.801	.907	.891

Note. * = Highest correlation between pairs of constructs; The values of AVE are bold, along the diagonal; Correlations among latent constructs are above the diagonal; Squared correlations among latent constructs are below the diagonal.

Structural Equation Model

The structural model showed an acceptable fit to the data: $S-B\chi^2_{(160)} = 454.186, p < .001,$ CFI=.914, PLI =.898 and RMSEA=.067 (CI: .060~.074) (Figure 1). The findings revealed that similarity had statistically significant effects on all of the three shared belief values: symbolic, touristic, and preservative. However, only touristic and

preservative values had significant, direct impacts on place attachment while only symbolic and preservative values had significant impacts on support for tourism development. Furthermore, place attachment was a significant full mediator between touristic value and support for tourism development.

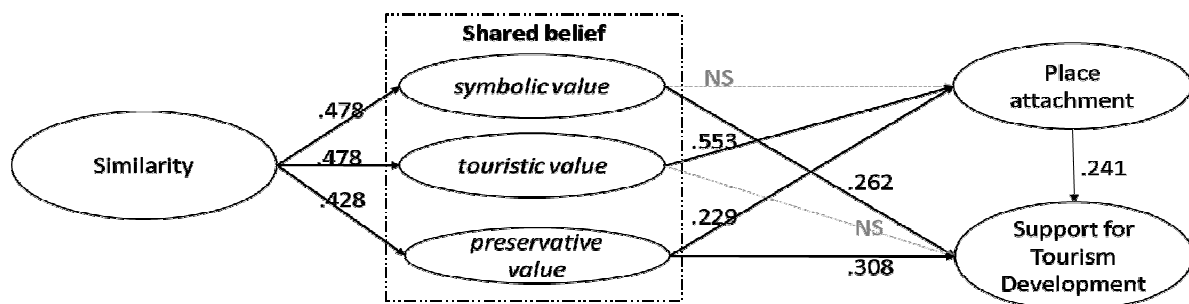


Figure 1. The Final Model

CONCLUSION

This study revealed that DMZ visitors’ perceived similarity and shared belief were

important to develop their attachment to the destination and further support for tourism development. This study differentiated the two concepts of similarity and shared belief and proved

the significant causal relationship between the two constructs. This study further identified that each value of shared belief has a distinctive role; preservative value particularly was important for both place attachment, while touristic value only influenced place attachment and symbolic value only impacted support for tourism development. Furthermore, place attachment was found to be a significant factor in linking shared belief, particularly, touristic value to support for tourism development.

The findings of this study make a significant contribution to the literature by highlighting the important, concrete impacts of shared belief on support for tourism development. This research suggests that the DMZ tourism management organizer consider tourists' perspectives, characteristics, and their common shared values toward the destination when developing its tourism destination as an interactive, sustainable, international, and educational destination.

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THE INTRA AND INTER RELATIONSHIPA AMONG SOCIAL ENTRENEURIAL ORIENTATION AND VALUE CREATION

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INTRODUCTION

Following the sustainability and social responsibility issues that are raised, the requirement of balance between culture, environment, sustainability, economy and consequences has become a serious concern for tourism firms (Hornig, Hsu, & Tsai, 2018). Thus, combining the concepts of social responsibility issues and entrepreneurial orientation into social entrepreneurial orientation (SEO) has become a new trend in business management (Chell et al., 2016; Dwivedi & Weerawardena, 2018). In this study, we aim to discover new phenomena and academic trends of examining how the different attributes of SEO, including the concepts of sustainability and social issues in the intra- and extra environmental requirements of small- and medium-sized enterprise (SME), influence the relationships between a cultural and creative firm's traditional entrepreneurial orientation and the new trend of social issues and connected to a firm's performance and value creation.

METHOD

To test the proposed model, the cultural and creative firm managers and owners were recruited from the regions of northern, central and southern Taiwan. The participants that we selected were appropriate because, as Liu (2018) found, Taiwanese cultural and creative firms are more likely to obtain intellectual capital and have entrepreneurial

orientations that maintain their competitive advantage. During the data collection process, the three research assistants were hired from a pool of MBA students, as they are most likely to understand the research ethic and have the right background for distributing the questionnaire. The questionnaire was done as part of a regional assignment of survey distribution during the two months of data collection from September to November 2018. Each region was distributed 150 surveys. In all, 450 surveys were distributed, and a face-to-face data collection method was used to increase the response rate and to answer any unclear sentences within measured items (Jiang et al., 2017). The final sample comprised 386 cultural and creative firm managers who completed each survey.

FINDINGS

The structural equation modelling (SEM) procedure was adopted to verify the mediating and moderating hypothesis with AMOS 21.0 software. Furthermore, this study utilized the bootstrapping method based on 20,000 re-samplings and conducted a Monte Carlo-style procedure with bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals to assess the mediating effects. The overall model fit for the proposed model is illustrated in Figure 2 ($\chi^2=866.383$, $p<.001$; $\chi^2/df=3.245$; CFI = .917; IFI = .918; TLI= .907; GFI = .843; AGFI= .809; and RMSEA=.076), which showed a good fitness for the hypothesis test.

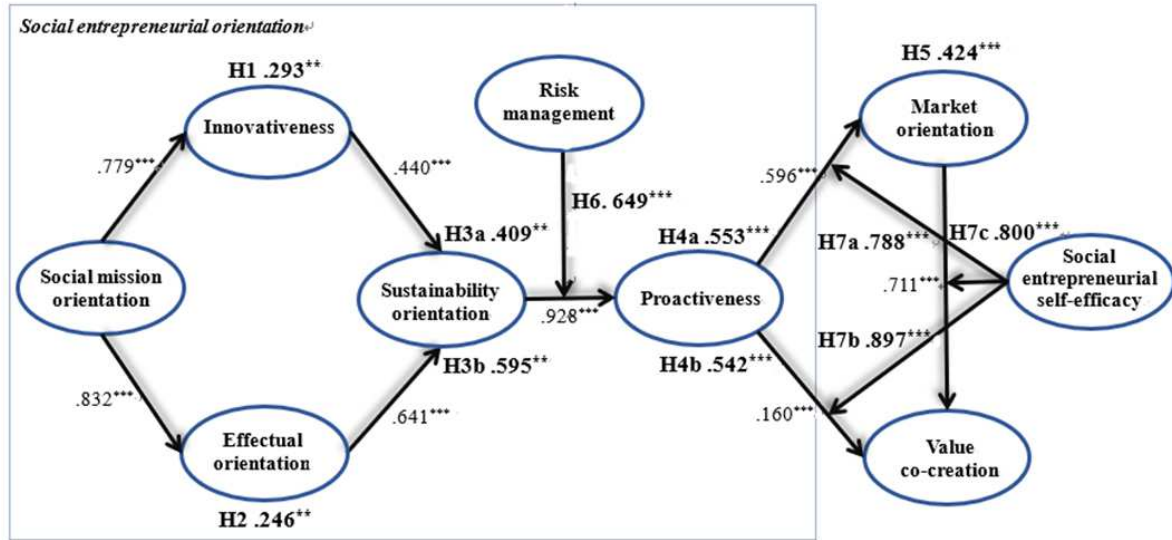


Figure 1. Results of the proposed research framework of this study

This study conducted additional checks to evaluate the robustness of methods, indicators and the single-factor results observed in recent studies (Liu, 2018). According to Dwivedi and Weerawardena’s (2018) research, we integrated six constructs to estimate social entrepreneurial orientation. Next, similar procedures were applied to examine the hypothesis of mediating-moderating models. As shown in Figure 2, the second-order hypothesis models within the range of structural acceptance ($\chi^2=1156.463$, $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df=3.126$; CFI = .909; IFI = .909; TLI= .900; GFI = .826; AGFI=

.796; and RMSEA=.074), and all direct effect paths were positive and significant. In the indirect effect analysis, Hypothesis 1 to Hypothesis 5 in the single-factor structure were integrated, which pointed to the mediator of market orientation in the second-factor model. The results showed the average indirect effects that social entrepreneurial orientation had on co-creation through market orientation ($\beta = .482$; $p < .001$; bias-corrected 95% CI [.407, .568] and percentile 95% CI [.402, .564]), which passed the two-tailed test.

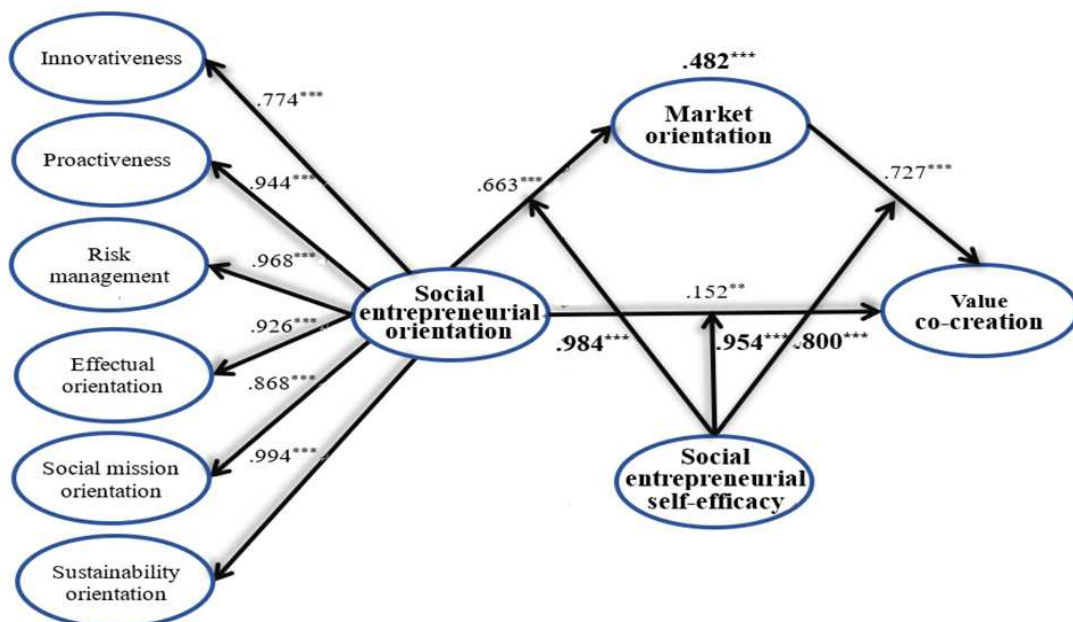


Figure 2. Alternative model of transforming the second order of SEO into the first order model of SEO

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study is to discover *how* the social entrepreneurial orientation (SEO) affects value and market co-creation processes under different levels of self-efficacy in cultural and creative firm settings in Taiwan. A sample of 386 firms was collected to confirm the proposed conceptual model. In the mutual relationships of SEO, the study followed the Dwivedi and Weerawardena (2018) conceptualizations and catalogues of SEO and found that social mission may influence proactiveness through the mediation mechanisms of innovativeness and effectual and sustainability orientations. Specifically, appropriate risk management is more beneficial for strengthening the relationships between sustainability orientation and proactiveness. The findings of the present study also support Kraus et al. (2017): SEO is a critical dynamic capability of firms that guides a firm's strategy for achieving market and value creation. In particular, social entrepreneurial self-efficacy positively moderates the different relationships among proactiveness, market orientation and value co-creation. In sum, the present study highlights the integrated mediation-moderation blended analysis across the domains of SEO and business strategies for value and market creation in the dynamic environment of the cultural and creative industry.

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IS SPAIN AN ALTERNATIVE DESTINATION FOR SOUTH KOREAN TOURISTS? MOTIVATIONS AND DESTINATION IMAGE

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INTRODUCTION

There is a broad consensus regarding the importance of motivation in the behaviour of tourists and their processes of choosing a destination (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Weaver et al., 1994). Tourists may have greater motivation or predisposition for visiting tourist destinations when they consider, *a priori*, that the attributes of the places can meet their needs and make them achieve the desired benefits. This way, the images will be more favourable when the attributes linked to the destinations coincide with the benefits sought by the tourists. Studies have considered the influence of motivations on the affective component of the destination image (Gartner, 1993; Dann, 1996; Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004). Motivations are related to individuals' internal and emotional aspects (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

The goal of the present study was to assess how tourist motivations influence the tourist images created by tourists before visiting the destinations. The novelty of this research is based on the need to analyse culturally distant countries, which, due to their characteristics, constitute a very attractive market with a high level of expenditure. Due to their consumption patterns, tourists from those countries make it possible to fight against the seasonal nature of tourism in Spain.

The country chosen to conduct the present study was South Korea, which is a market with high growth expectations (growth of 41.42% in 2017 compared to the previous one, according to the National Statistics Institute [Spanish: INE]). Therefore, the main goal was to know the image of Spain perceived by South Koreans, whether it is appropriate, and whether Spain can be an

alternative destination for Korean tourists.

METHODOLOGY

The information was gathered by means of a questionnaire administered to university students residing in South Korea. We obtained 307 valid questionnaires. Previous studies were taken into consideration to measure the main variables (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Baloglú & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004). The data were analysed using the SPSS 20.0 and STATA 14 software.

First, we performed an exploratory factor analysis to determine the number of factors that characterised the destination images. From this analysis, we obtained four underlying dimensions that explained 73.072% of the variance. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) index was appropriate, because it indicated values greater than 0.7 (close to 1), and the result of Bartlett's test of sphericity was within the recommended ranges (<0.05).

Subsequently, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (STATA 14), which indicated that all the standardised lambda coefficients were significant, i.e., greater than 0.5 (Steenkamp & Van Trijp, 1991). In addition, no confidence interval of the latent variable's correlations contained the unit. Therefore, the model complied with the discriminative validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). This way, it can be observed that the destination image is a multidimensional construct formed by the infrastructure, the natural environment, the atmosphere, the cultural environment, and the affective image.

Then, we performed a hierarchical cluster analysis and a non-hierarchical cluster analysis (average K-clustering) to identify different segments

of tourists according to their motivations. The analysis included the three motivational factors that were identified in the factorial analysis previously performed, calculated as the average of the items that comprised them.

In third place, once that the three groups or clusters were determined on the basis of their tourist motivations (culture, rest, and socialisation), we assessed whether belonging to one group or another influenced their image of Spain as a tourist destination, and whether the motivations that characterised them were related to each factor that constituted the image of the tourist destination. To

that end, we used the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) method in order to contrast the direct effect of tourist motivations with the perceived images.

FINDINGS

The results indicated significant differences in the assessment of each motivation between the groups. Table 1 shows the means that the three groups of tourists—defined according to their motivations—attributed to each factor of the destination image.

Table 1. Means that each segment attributed to each factor of the destination image.

		Attributes of tourist destination image (average)				
		Infrastructure	Natural environment	Atmosphere	Cultural environment	Affective image
Cluster	Culture	3.85	4.61	4.17	4.62	4.80
	Rest	4.46	5.13	4.93	5.17	5.33
	Socialisation	3.21	3.44	3.13	3.38	3.28

The MANOVA method was considered appropriate to analyse the dependency ratio between the variables. Table 2 shows the results of the MANOVA and specifically confirms that belonging

to a particular cluster had a significant influence on the assessment or perception of the dimensions that constitute tourist destinations.

Table 2. Results of the MANOVA according to the clusters (dependent variables: underlying factors of the tourist destination image)

Effect		Value	F	Degree of freedom of the hypothesis	Degree of freedom of the error	Significance	Partial eta squared	Non-centrality parameter	Observed power
Intersection	Pillai's trace	0.945	1004.648b	5.000	295.000	0	0.945	5023.242	1.000
	Wilks' lambda	0.055	1004.648b	5.000	295.000	0	0.945	5023.242	1.000
	Hotelling trace	17.028	1004.648b	5.000	295.000	0	0.945	5023.242	1.000
	Roy's greatest root	17.028	1004.648b	5.000	295.000	0	0.945	5023.242	1.000
QCL_2	Pillai's trace	0.343	12.251	10.000	592.000	0	0.171	122.511	1.000
	Wilks' lambda	0.668	13.191b	10.000	590.000	0	0.183	131.911	1.000
	Hotelling trace	0.481	14.138	10.000	588.000	0	0.194	141.379	1.000
	Roy's greatest root	0.444	26.301c	5.000	296.000	0	0.308	131.506	1.000

- a. Intersection design + QCL-2
- b. Exact statistic
- c. The statistic is a higher limit for F, which provides a lower limit for the significance level.
- d. Calculated with alpha = 0.05

CONCLUSION

The present empirical study confirmed what

other authors have suggested (Gartner, 1993; Dann, 1996; Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004). South Korean tourists have

a more positive image of attributes relating to their desired benefits. In addition, two of the three groups assessed ('Culture' and 'Rest') had a more favourable 'affective image' in comparison to the other dimensions of the image.

Tourists perceive the destinations unequally, according to their motivations. This way, it is worth considering the different segments in which tourist destinations can be offered. It is also important to know the characteristics and expectations of each segment in order to adapt both the offer and the advertising campaign.

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ANTICIPATING AN UNDESIRABLE FUTURE: A CASE STUDY OF DEVELOPMENT OF A TOURISM PROMOTION MASTER PLAN IN KUMEJIMA ISLAND, OKINAWA, JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION

The recent increase in inbound tourism in Japan is phenomenal. In 2011, Japan welcomed 6.22 million tourists; in 2018, it marked a historical high of 30 million, and even more are expected in 2020 because of the Tokyo Olympic and Paralympic games. This 7-year increase was generally the result of active promotion of tourism led by the Japan Tourism Agency as well as a weaker yen. Although this surge brought economic gain to popular destinations, some areas started to suffer from overtourism. But many places had experienced this before. The rise of domestic tourism in the 1960s caused overtourism in the 1970s in various places across Japan. In the 1980s, as Japanese tourism opted for destinations overseas, overtourism in

domestic destinations was mitigated. However, since the 2000s, in response to the aging population and weakening local economy, inbound tourism has been widely promoted. As a result, although regional destinations saw economic success, overtourism became a major issue again. The biggest difference between now and then is the spread of the knowledge and concepts of tourism among not only municipal government and local economic organizations but also members of the community. In this study, we looked at the background of how the well-informed community of Kumejima is developing tourism promotion plans and dealing with mixed reactions of some members by utilizing the study of tourism and experiences of neighboring islands.

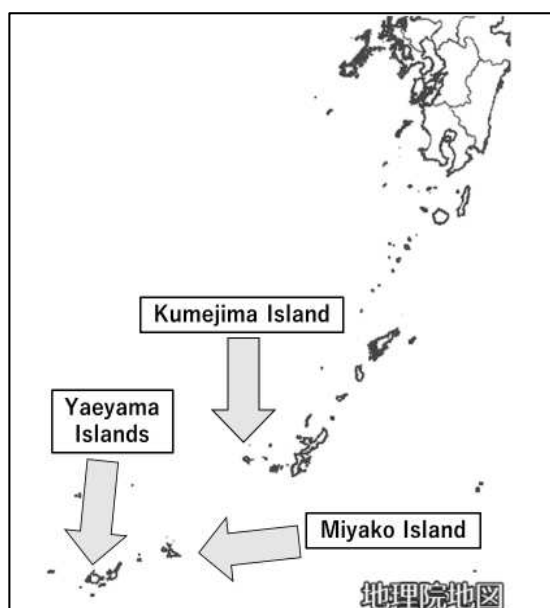


Figure 1. Kumejima island and other major remote islands

RESEARCH CONTEXT

Kumejima island and other major remote islands in Okinawa Prefecture. Kumejima island, part of the Okinawa prefecture, is located southwest of the Japan archipelago (see Figure 1). It is the fifth biggest island in Okinawa, after the main island, Okinawa; Iriomote Island and Ishigaki Island, which constitute the Yaeyama Islands; and Miyako Island. Besides grants from central and prefectural governments, the economy of the island is led by five key stakeholders, all of which are

local economic organizations.¹⁰⁾

Okinawa is not an exception with regard to recent concerns about overtourism. Although Kumejima island appreciates its gradual increase in tourism, Miyako Island and Yaeyama Islands already suffer from overtourism (Department of Tourism, Culture and Sports, Ishigaki City Office., 2019). Figure 2 shows the increase of visitors to the three islands since 2008. Multiple resort hotels are under construction in both Yaeyama and Miyako islands, and a new airport is opening in Miyako 2019.

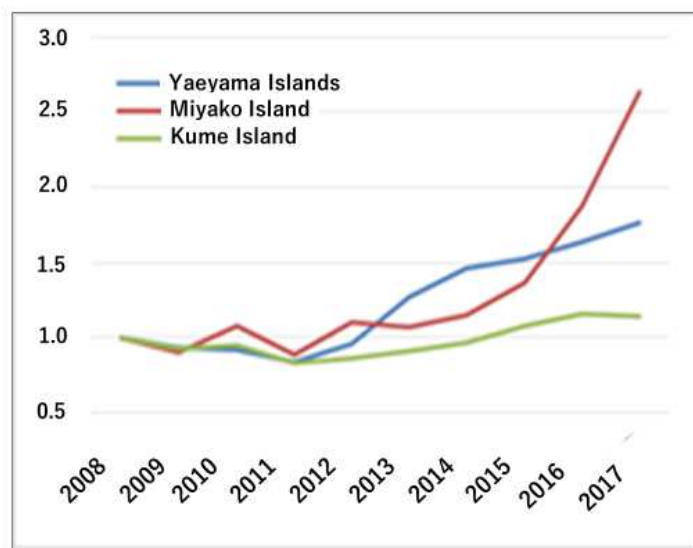


Figure 2. Visitors to three islands (since 2008)

METHOD

We used mixed-methods research to gain a more complete understanding of a specific field (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). A sequential approach was adopted: Phase 1 was the qualitative portion to comprehensively identify themes and patterns (2018), and Phase 2 was the quantitative portion to confirm the findings of the qualitative study by conducting a new set of surveys (2019). For Phase 1, individual interviews with stakeholders and focus group discussions with local community members were conducted. Purposive sampling was employed for key informant interviews from five key local economic organizations. Focus group discussions were attended by members of the

community who are mostly not in business, such as students, the elderly, and housewives. A questionnaire ($n = 238$) based on findings from Phase 1 was administered for Phase 2. The secondary data, composed of previous reports by the Kume-Jima Town Office, economic organizations, and relevant literature, were also analyzed.

FINDINGS

The exploited or beneficiaries? “Failure” of Yaeyama and Miyako.

Throughout the interviews, the experiences of Miyako Island and Yaeyama Islands were often mentioned. Interviewees were well informed about

10) Japan agricultural cooperative, Kumejima branch; Kumejima Fishery cooperative; Kumejima Tsumugi silk craft cooperative; Kumejima Chamber of Commerce; and Kumejima Tourism Association

their financial gain from tourism but also felt they were “being used by mainland corporations.” Some interviewees mentioned that mainland resort developers are inquiring about available properties in Kumejima island, which worries residents, who see signs of impending change. Our survey results showed that out of 10 worrying aspects of tourism promotion, 33.2% of respondents chose “introduction of mainland corporation weakens local industries,” after “security may be compromised by many and unspecified persons” (45.8%) and “how to receive foreign visitors” (38.2%).

Community participation in the destination management organization.

As the government intended, Kumejima town office is taking advantage of the destination management organization (DMO) scheme to restructure a rigid tourism promotion system (Nicolas, 2018). Establishing a DMO is a determined course by the town office and key stakeholders and is endorsed by the overwhelming majority of Kumejima islanders (82.0% agree or strongly agree with tourism promotion; Commerce and Tourism Department, Kumejima Town Office, 2014). However, our study participants are skeptical about how well their voice will be heard in light of past unfavorable public hearing experiences. One participant said, “We often answer questioners. But we never see the result, or how our opinion is reflected in actual action. Meanwhile, we get another questionnaire. It is so absurd!” Besides tourism promotion, many other projects concerning the island’s welfare, education, community safety, and so on require residents’ participation.

Two discourses used to include unwilling residents.

Although most residents agree with reshaping the islands’ tourism through DMO, some people, such as pensioners and small business owners who are satisfied with the current level of business, distance themselves from further development of tourism. In the interviews, we identified two discourses that are circulated by supporters of tourism promotion to convince and include those people.

(1) ***“Developing tourism means making jobs for our children and grandchildren to come back and work here”***: This statement casts tourism as

a countermeasure to decreasing population by vitalizing the local economy. The declining population in Japan is often understood as due to low birthrate, but according to the Vital, Health and Social Statistics Office (2014), the total fertility rate (TFR) of Kumejima island is 2.31, which is higher than the population replacement level of 2.07 and the average TFR of Japan (1.42) in the same period. Clearly, the depopulation is caused by movement after birth, suggesting lack of job opportunity.

(2) ***“I’m just making my silk, but time to time, I am reminded by visitors that I’m doing something special about Kume. That makes me feel really good”***: The other discourse attempts to raise civic pride through positive recognition from visitors and prefectural and central governments. Our survey indicated that while 90.8% of respondents agreed with the statement “They feel happy when visitors get to know and understand about Kumejima island” and the majority of residents show interest in communicating with visitors, including foreign ones, only 37.0% were confident in having enough knowledge to tell the visitor about Kumejima island. There is a clear need to learn about their own community. In the 1970s, community learning in a Japanese context was developed in response to social issues, such as pollution, and helped raise civic pride (Sato, 2012). Participants often mentioned that they need to take every opportunity to rebuild the community. This result suggests tourism promotion can be understood better by residents within a community-building framework.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

Kumejima island has a unique status: They expect an ever-increasing number of incoming tourists and have time to prepare. Their experience of overtourism on their own island in the 1980s and the current experience of neighboring islands motivate them to prepare to control future tourism. Although Kumejima town office and key economic organizations use DMO as a tool to overcome segmented business practices, the town office uses different discourses to include and persuade residents that tourism is about not only business but also community building. However, there is a list of issues to be settled, such as selecting features they can benchmark from neighboring islands; establishing the framework of steering DMO,

including key personnel; and ensuring the system reflects residents' voices.

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FAMILIARITY OF TOURIST ATTRACTIONS IN JAPAN AMONG VIETNAMESE AND CHINESE NATIONALS

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INTRODUCTION

In the years since the Great East Japan Earthquake (2011) the profile of Japanese inbound tourism has changed significantly. While inbound tourist numbers have grown four-fold to 28.7 million in 2017 (JNTO, 2018), 86% of all international visits to Japan now originate in Asia (up from 75% in 2011). Some source countries such as China and Vietnam have grown at even greater rates during this time and their nationals are highly visible at Japan's key visitor destinations. As a result of these changes, Japanese inbound tourism is facing new challenges including, the need for better, strategic tourism planning (Kobayashi, 2018; Russell, 2017), and the consequences of over-tourism (Palmqvist, 2017).

The rapid expansion of inbound tourism to Japan in recent years can be attributed to the economic development of China (Dichter, Chen, Saxon, Yu, & Suo, 2018), more liberal intra-Asia visa regulations (Mori & Yabuta, 2017), and contemporary Japanese government policy (MLIT, 2016). The broad aim of the lattermost being to invigorate Japan's stagnant economy, in part through the promotion of new hinterland destinations where it is expected tourism - and its socioeconomic benefits - can help tackle the negative consequences of Japan's aging society and rural depopulation. A new spatial distribution of international visits and some relief for Japan's core tourism hot spots are anticipated outcomes of this policy.

There is however a major obstacle to such a redistribution of international visits: the lack of awareness among international visitors of Japan's tourism assets. A study by Andonian, Kuwabara, Yamakawa, and Ishida (2016) found that foreign tourists ascribed awareness values of only 20% or more to just *three* of Japan's top 36 tourism assets. Although a desire to visit a given asset was triggered among visitors if they were provided with a relevant photographic image, linking asset names to places

was poorly cognized. It would therefore seem that an understanding of the awareness and familiarity of Japan's tourist destinations among visitors is key to ensuring the success of the Japanese government's tourism policy and its broader socioeconomic goals.

The role of awareness and familiarity in developing destination image, selecting a destination, and encouraging a propensity to visit a destination has been examined in a number of studies over the years (Baloglu, 2001; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012; Milman & Pizam, 1995; Prentice, 2004; Toyama & Yamada, 2012). While destination familiarity has been described as the polar opposite of novelty (Cohen, 1972), previous visit experience is a key driver (Milman & Pizam, 1995). Other studies show familiarity to be a multidimensional construct (Baloglu, 2001) dependent on destination knowledge (Hu & Ritchie, 1993). More recently, destination familiarity has been defined as a construct distinct from novelty (Toyama & Yamada, 2012), composed of seven attributes including "informational", "experiential", "proximate" and "educational" aspects (Prentice, 2004), which can inform destination familiarity across different cultures (Baloglu, 2001; Cohen & Cooper, 1986). Of direct relevance to the current research, the role of "language proficiency" and "cultural acquaintance" (Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012, p.138) played a part in Korean visitors' familiarity with Japan, with those having greater Japanese language knowledge and deeper cultural associations to Japan being more familiar with the country's tourism assets. As this study was undertaken in 2009 it was unable to consider the contemporary circumstances of inbound tourism to Japan, which currently finds Korean visitors less numerically dominant and/or less commercially attractive than Chinese, Vietnamese and other nationals (MLIT, 2019). It is therefore the aim of the current research to develop and complement Lee and Tussyadiah's study by investigating destination

familiarity among visitors to Japan from two new source markets, namely China and Vietnam, and to offer new observations in light of the findings.

METHOD

To explore the cultural and experiential aspects of destination familiarity, the method adopted by the current research is informed by the need for a multidimensional (Baloglu, 2001), and hybrid (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003) approach that incorporates “cultural acquaintance” considerations (Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012) within a factor analysis procedure (Toyama & Yamada, 2012). Subjects are 30 Chinese and 20 Vietnamese tourism studies students at a private university in Japan. The research is to be carried out in 2 phases.

In the first phase subjects are shown a stratified sample of 20 images (photos) from the

30 most visited tourist sights in Japan derived from the Trip Advisor platform (2018). This sample comprises different environments including urban and rural settings, as well as specific cultural and religious tourism assets frequented by international tourists. For each image, subjects will be asked to name the asset, provide its location (city or prefecture), indicate any previous visits, and respond to six 7-point Likert items (see Table 1) based on those developed by Toyama & Yamada (2012) as a means to generate data on destination familiarity suitable for statistical analysis. The use of photos as a research tool in this phase is informed by the “intimate” link between tourism and photography (Urry, 1990, p.140), the successful use of photos in previous tourism research (Garrod, 2008; Kaewnopparat, 2017), and the understanding that destination image recognition can be indicative of destination knowledge (WTO, 1979).

Table 1. Items to measure destination familiarity

“This destination offers an unusual experience.”	<i>Items emphasizing destination novelty</i>
“This destination offers new experiences.”	
“This destination is new for me.”	
“I know a lot about this destination.”	<i>Items emphasizing destination familiarity</i>
“I know more about this destination than others.”	
“This destination feels familiar to me.”	

Note: Adapted from Toyama and Yamada (2012)

The second phase comprises a questionnaire instrument in the subjects’ mother tongue, which gathers socio-demographic data on gender, age, visit experiences to Japan (including period of stay), and Japanese “language competence” (see Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012). In addition, to reveal subjects’ tourism “cultural acquaintance”, sixteen statements linking common tourist activities to the location where each activity is most frequently carried out are presented. These statements are written in the form “*place name (x) is a good place for activity (y)*” with each having two “expected” responses and two “unexpected” ones (Figure 1). These statements

were developed from the Tokyo Metropolitan Government Survey into foreign visitors’ behavior, which detailed the most frequent locations for 24 common tourist activities based on visitors’ self-reported responses (Tokyo Metropolitan Government, 2018). Results are analyzed using one-way ANOVA, two-way MANOVA and chi-square tests to identify relationships and differences between familiarity, social cultural acquaintance (e.g. language competence) and tourism-related cultural acquaintance in and between the two national groups.

Figure 1. Tourism cultural acquaintance item (question 4)

(_____) is a good place to buy electrical goods.
 (a) Shinjuku (b) Harajuku (c) Akihabara (d) Roppongi

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Understanding the needs of Japan's new inbound tourism profile is vital if the country is to maximize tourism's benefits and respond to new tourism-related challenges. In offering new insights into Japanese destination familiarity in two nationality groups (China and Vietnam), the current research will contribute to the body of similar studies previously undertaken (Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012; Prentice, 2004; Toyama & Yamada, 2012).

The findings of the current research can also be of value to local and national promotional bodies in Japan and can help direct tourism promotion to different nationality groups in a more strategic manner prior to, and after, arrival in the country. The mechanisms of visit propensity and repeat visitation can also be better understood, which can be of great benefit to destinations with limited international recognition (Andonian et al, 2016). Moreover, the results can add to the understanding of the relationship between language and other cultural information, or "informational familiarity" (Baloglu, 2001) and destination familiarity itself. This can assist tourism practitioners on the ground in Japan, and elsewhere, by improving visitors' *in situ* destination experience (i.e. satisfaction) and more closely aligning policies to visitors' specific cultural sensibilities and individual levels of informational familiarity.

The value in the findings presented here should however be balanced against the limitations inherent in the research. While building on the broad aims of previous research into visitors' familiarity with a destination, the current research may be seen as more exploratory in nature due to both the size and characteristics of the sample, which may not be fully representative of *bonafide* tourists of the two countries under study. The use of photos to elicit familiarity is also trialed here and it is recognized that refinements to the questionnaire instrument employed may be necessary to bring greater relevancy to the results. The current research also makes no attempt to consider how Chinese or Vietnamese visitors' familiarity with Japan's tourism assets compares to nationals from other source countries. More country pairings are thus recommended in similar, future research and this may help shed light on how Japan might best

diversify its inbound market currently dominated by China. These arguments notwithstanding the current study flags up the degree of familiarity (or lack thereof) of visitors with Japan's destinations in two of Japan's important, contemporary source nations. In this way, it may offer us some indication of the course Japan inbound tourism should take to ensure the goals of its broad-based tourism policy are realized.

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THE POSSIBILITY OF ENHANCEMENT OF CIVIC PRIDE THROUGH TOURISM

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INTRODUCTION

Japan, is facing to a declining population, aging society with fewer children and long-term national debt equivalent to 170% of the GDP, local cities are in an exhausted condition. Therefore, there is an increasing need for boosting the transient population to vitalize local communities in regions. It is therefore important that the government makes effective use of their assets, such as human, technological and tourism resources, to ensure a sustainable future. Therefore, building a tourism nation with its capacity to revitalize regional economies, create job opportunities and increase bilateral international understanding, is a key component of Japan in the 21st century, and will only grow in importance as a national strategy. But, making use of tourism for boosting the transient population is unstable, because the changes in economic and social circumstances and customer's preference affect tourism so much. So, in regions, which was over dependent on tourism, it was forced to suffer from financial collapse.

In Japan, tourism-based community development (*kanko machizukuri*) is a trendy expression. The role of city planning had been building the nucleus society infrastructures mainly by powerful bureaucrats in postwar Japan. But the two oil crises in the 1970s caused a paradigm shift in city planning, for example, from hardware to software, from industrial development to human development, from centralization to decentralization, and from "city planning" to "community-based development".... This paradigm shift falls in with the change from modernization theory to alternative theory of development. And today, tourism-based community development has high expectation as a mean of local revitalization.

Although it is often noted that tourism is a leading industry in the 21st century, there are surprisingly few examples bringing tourism-based community development in a sustainable way.

Recently, the focus of the tourism impacts literature has shifted from seeking to understand how tourism affects attitudes toward tourism and support for tourism to exploring the implications tourism has on residents' quality of life (QoL) (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011; Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Kerstetter & Bricker, 2012; Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013).

"Civic pride" closely relates to the residents' QoL. "Civic pride", the pride and affection that citizen have towards the city, is considered an important factor as sustainable community development to prevent population outflow, increase the number of active citizens and promote local autonomy. In Japan, the concept of "Civic pride" has attracted attention in recent years, because of the occurrence of interurban competition due to decentralization. In the decentralization that started full-scale in the mid-1990s, cities have become more conscious of being chosen by people as places to live, work and learn, clarifying their individuality and aiming direction of their development. Therefore, not only the love of the people who were born and raised in the city, but also more people must become fans of the city from various standpoints. The importance of civic pride is increasing in order to turn around these contemporary cities (Civic Pride Research Group, 2008).

The purpose of this study is to demonstrate whether tourism is effective for enhancement of civic pride.

METHOD

Study region

This study was conducted in Saitama Prefecture, because Saitama is required to enhance the civic pride compared to any other area. There is a survey result that the civic pride of Saitama is the nation's lowest (see Table 1) (Brand Research Innstitute Inc., 2018). Saitama is located next to the capital Tokyo, the night-time population is

higher than the day-time population (so-called “Bed Town”), the mobility of the population is high,

therefore the civic pride is low and difficult to enhance.

Table 1. Civic Pride Ranking in Japan: Top 5 and Bottom 5

Rank (Top 5)	Prefecture	Rank (Bottom 5)	Prefecture
1	Kyoto	43	Ibaragi
2	Hokkaido	44	Tottori
3	Nagasaki	45	Akita
4	Kagoshima	46	Wakayama
5	Okinawa	47	Saitama

(Source; Brand Research Innstitute Inc., 2018)

Data for the study were drawn from questionnaire survey to the participants of tours in Saitama. The tours were approximately three hours walking tour of downtown in each city in Saitama, and the participants are all citizen in Saitama, except in the destination city. The questionnaire survey was carried out toward a total of 168 tour participant on seven tours from October to December in 2018, to examine the change of civic pride before and after the tour. Although none of the seven cities where the walking tour was conducted is famous tourism destination, it was an attractive tour to visit the several sights known to special people, guided by citizen guide.

FINDINGS

The questionnaire to the participants showed

that all of them were satisfied with the walking tours. They felt that it was easy to understand the cultural background of the destination cities as it offer the opportunities to be explained by and talk with local citizen guide and go to the places where it is hard for them to find.

Moreover, it is also important that the questionnaire showed that it was demonstrated that participants of the tour deepened their understanding of the destination, had a higher affection for the destination than before, and their pride as citizen of Saitama was enhanced.

A paired t-test was conducted on the results of pre- and post-tours for Understanding of the Destination, Affection for the Destination, and Civic Pride in Saitama. All categories analyzed showed a significant difference. See table 2 below for a detailed breakdown.

Table 2. Results of Pre- and Post- Tours (n=168)

	Pre-tour		Post-tour		t	p
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Understanding of the Destination	1.92	0.894819273	3.58	0.734606772	20.89901153	0.00000**
Affection for the Destination	2.14	1.094137646	3.54	1.010713585	15.7625206	0.00000**
Civic Pride in Saitama	3.01	1.10194633	3.69	0.944611163	10.16513669	0.00000**

Note. Paired T-Test. ** $p < .001$

IMPLICATIONS

The results of this case study indicate that the tour participants showing statistically significant improvement of civic pride. Tourism promotion in Saitama would be effective not only for economic boosting, but also for enhancement of civic pride and residents' QoL.

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STAR WARS: MEASURING IMPORTANCE–PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS IN THREE, FOUR, AND FIVE STAR HOTLES

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INTRODUCTION

Portugal now stands as a top tourism destination in Europe winning the World's Best Destination award. In addition, its capital, Lisbon, was chosen as the World's Leading City Break Destination and Europe's Leading Cruise Port in 2017 (World Travel Awards, 2017), as well as Europe's Leading City Destination in 2018 (World Travel Awards, 2018). The recent boom means that Lisbon is experiencing one of the highest tourism growth rates in Portugal, it has benefitted the local luxury hotel industry.

Lisbon hotels have also earned accolades such as when Readers' Travel Awards (Condé Nast Traveller, 2017) ranked the Four Seasons Hotel Ritz, Lisbon, as the fourteenth best hotel in Europe. This shows that the Portuguese capital's hotel industry can pride itself on its fine dining and trendy decor. Three hotels in Lisbon have also recently been named Best Business Hotel, Best Green Hotel in Europe, and Best Landmark Hotel by PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) (2016).

The significance of service and product quality is also established by the fact that it positively impacts customers' loyalty and their opinion towards the service providers (Anton et al 2007; Bell et al., 2005; Aydin & Ozer, 2005). Service quality has been determined as a key factor in influencing customers' brand loyalty with the lodging industry in developed countries (Suhartanto (2011). Salomon back in 1994 had stated in his findings that if hotels failed to understand and meet customers' service standards, the hotel is unlikely to survive its business beyond 7 to 9 years (Salomon 1994). Recently Wu et. al. (2012) established that if the quality of a hotel does not meet customer expectations, perceived quality may be lowered, and

perceived risk may be raised automatically (Wu et al 2012).

The prospering tourism industry has had implications for construction of new hotels and transportation systems in Portugal. Every year, the number of inbound flights have increased to all of this country's major airports. A record 44 million air passengers entered Portugal in 2016, which was an almost 50% rise over 2011 statistics (Eurostat, 2017).

The present study is based on importance-performance analysis (IPA) theory (Martilla and James, 1977). The notion of actual performance in relation to the perceived importance of specific measures of quality is now considered a determinant of service quality. Measuring service quality must be a continuous process to ensure consistency and suitability. The level of importance guests give to different service quality measures is linked to the star ratings given to hotels, which has implications for service quality outcomes (Huang et al., 2018).

The IPA has been validated across multiple fields of research (Lai and Hitchcock, 2016). The IPA is practical to apply when management seeks to sustain consistency in hotel service quality and, hence, their establishments' competitive advantages (Chen, 2014).

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The present research has two principal objectives:

- To evaluate service quality with an IPA scale developed for Lisbon hotels

- To measure and compare the level of importance-performance implications for guests of three-, four-, and five-star hotels

The current study thus extends the research on service quality applying the IPA theory and contributing to the literature on hotel service quality by adding new insights based on data from an under researched region of the Europe Union. Past studies using IPA theory within the context of hotel service quality have been limited to specific geographical areas, such as luxury hotels in India (Mohsin and Lockyer, 2010), hotel lodges near hot springs in Taiwan (Deng, Kuo and Chen, 2008), hotel lodges in the United States (US) (Beldona and Cobanoglu 2007), and the lodging industry in New Zealand (Mohsin, 2007). The present study provided a fresh opportunity to compare the commonalities and variations of different geographic regions with regard to hotel service quality and its assessment based on the IPA.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the past decades, various studies have confirmed that service quality is a key determinant of competitive advantage in the hospitality industry and that service quality enhances customer retention (Callan and Kyndt 2001). Customers do not buy services but instead buy offers that provide services and create value for consumers (Gummesson, 2006). Hotels' service evaluations depend on both tangible and intangible measures of service quality, for example, price versus quality or location, courtesy of personnel, safety, and security (Lai and Hitchcock, 2016). Zhang and Mao (2012) report that comfortable, clean accommodations; hotel location; and efficient staff are the main hotel attributes that influence service quality and thus customer loyalty.

Previous studies' results have emphasized that service quality dimensions in the accommodation industry may differ according to the service under analysis (Brochado and Rita, 2018, Luo and Qu 2016). It is argued that service quality assessment might vary with the country, time, and levels of accommodation services. Hence, star ratings in hotels are globally used and validated to evaluate service quality (Huang et al., 2018). However, the fierce competition among booking platforms has put further pressure on hotels to provide outstanding

services to attract and retain customers. Customers' evaluations support potential guests' decision-making processes, but, most of all, reviews encourage hotels to improve their service quality (Schuckert, Liu and Law, 2015).

METHODOLOGY

Theoretical background and research instrument

This study uses survey technique and evaluates hotel guests' service quality perceptions and their actual experiences in Lisbon using the IPA to determine service quality standards for business success (Chu and Choi, 2000).

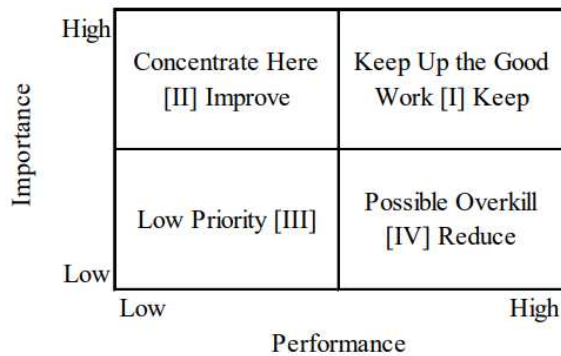
The questionnaire had two main sections. The first section comprised 15 hotel attributes of reception and room facilities, 6 attributes of room service, and 6 attributes of restaurant services. The scale items were developed with input from local hotel managers and with measures adapted from Lockyer (2000), Mohsin (2003), Mohsin and Lockyer (2010), and Mohsin and Ryan's (2005) studies. The questionnaire measured how guests ranked the importance of each attribute in their selection of a hotel and performance as their actual experience of each attribute when they last stayed in a Lisbon hotel. The responses used a 7-point Likert scale (1 = "Extremely unimportant"; 7 = "Extremely important"). The second part of the questionnaire was designed to measure the hotel's star rating and the respondents' demographic and travel information.

The respondents were tourists visiting Portugal and staying in hotels in Lisbon from October 2017 to February 2018. The questionnaire was printed in English, so its targeted visitors who were comfortable communicating in English. The respondents were from the United Kingdom, France, Italy, Germany, Holland, United States of America, Spain, Brazil, and other nations. The list of countries in our survey were based on the official numbers from Statistics Portugal (INE) and they represent the top 8 nations (guests) that stayed in Lisbon Hotels. A convenience sample was used that ensured the respondents had stayed at least one night in a hotel in a 3-, 4-, and 5-star in Lisbon. The sample size was determined by Lohr (2010) method and the questionnaire generated 730 valid responses after 38 incompletes were eliminated.

The IPA results (Martilla and James, 1977)

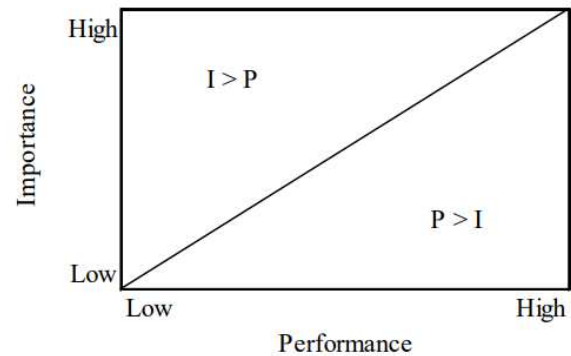
are usually interpreted based on importance-performance (i.e., two-dimensional) maps that classify the importance and performance values on a scale running from low to high scores. The selection of crosshairs is thus a critical decision that allows researchers to identify into which

quadrant attributes will fall. The current study employed a hybrid approach that combined crosshairs centered on data points and a 45° diagonal isoline representing the points at which importance and performance scores are equal (Ka et al., 2015).



(a) data-centered

Figure 1: IPA mapping



(b) diagonal (45°)

Figure 2

FINDINGS

Interpretation of IPA results by hotel star group

The segmentation analysis based on hotel star ratings highlighted some similarities and a few differences. In Quadrant I, 9 similarities exist across 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels, including bathroom cleanliness. The main differences appear in 3-star hotels, which received the best appraisals for helpful and friendly staff, while 4-star hotels are the best in terms of first impressions of the hotel and room cleanliness. Five-star hotels present strong performance for three attributes: bed comfort, standard of fixtures and fittings, and range of complimentary services.

Quadrant II's 3- and 5-star hotels have in common good quality restaurant food. Differences can be seen in 3-star hotels' food quality and the staff's product knowledge, but 4-star hotels are differentiated by their prompt confirmation of

reservations, guests' first contact with the hotel staff, and helpful and friendly staff. Five-star hotels stand out for their restaurants' value for money, service quality, and handling of complaints.

For Quadrant III hotels, the main similarities are prompt room service if used and the overall selection of beverages. Three- and 4-star hotels show similarities in having a variety of items in their menu. The main differences for 3-star hotels are related to their room service value for money and handling of complaints, while the major differences for 5-star hotels are Internet access, television screen size, hotel value for money, food quality, timely service, and the staff's product knowledge.

Four- and 5-star hotels in Quadrant IV have in common good restaurant ambience and their staff's appearance. The main difference is the television screen size in 3-star hotels and the 4-star hotels' timely service (see Figures 3, 4, and 5).

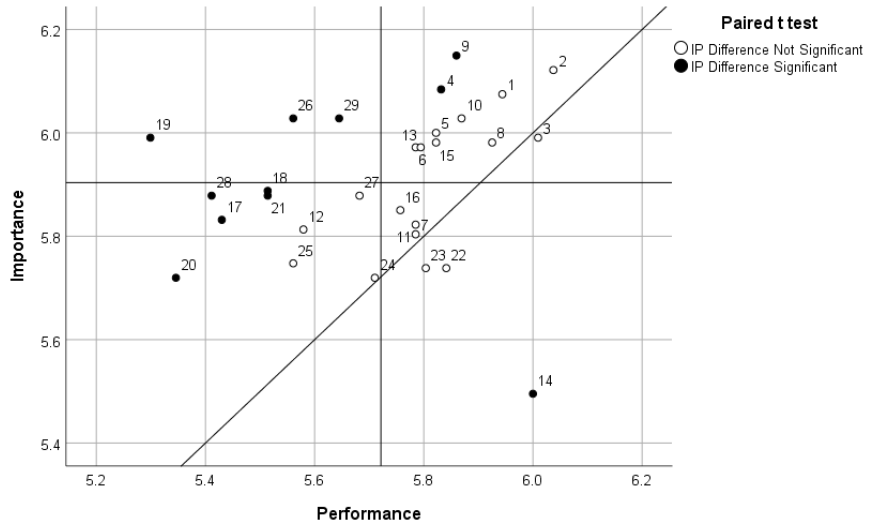


Figure 3: Importance-performance mapping for three-star hotels

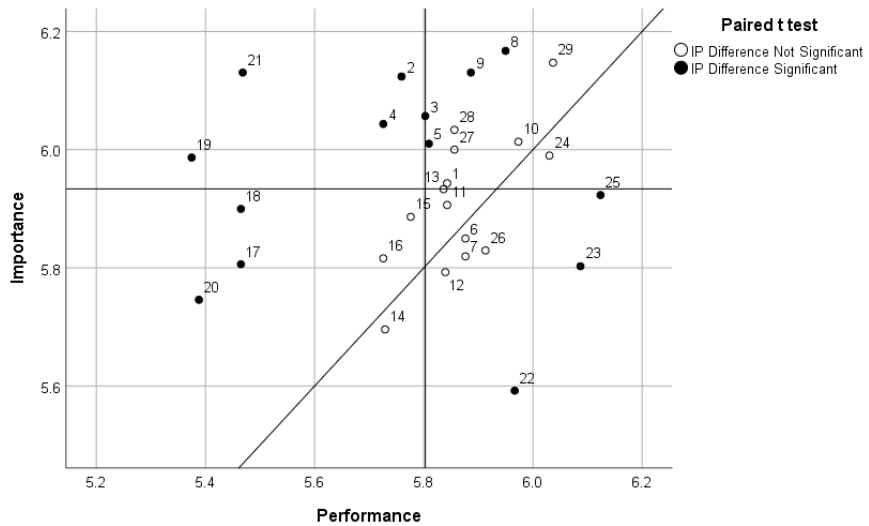


Figure 4: Importance-performance mapping for four-star hotels

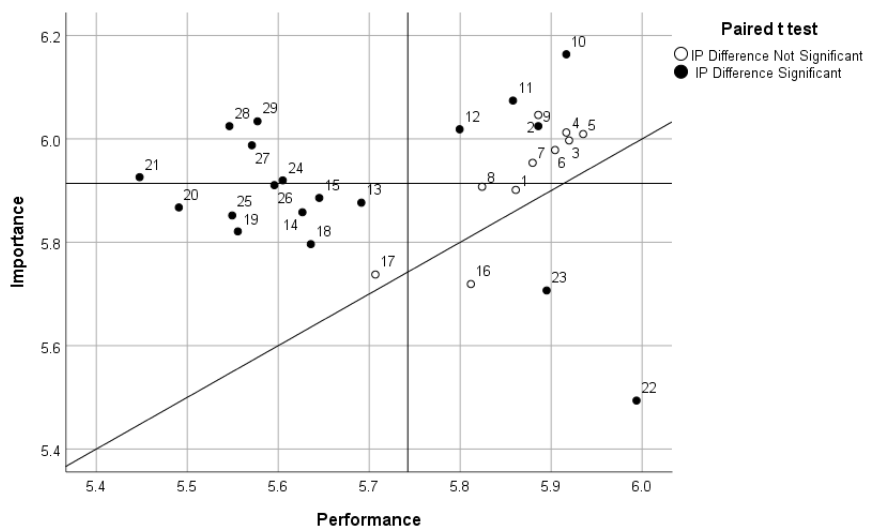


Figure 5: Importance-performance mapping for five-star hotels

The results of the paired sample *t*-test reveal a significant gap between importance and performance for 11 items for 3-star hotels, 14 for 4-star, and 19 for 5-star hotels. The most significant gaps include performance rated higher than importance for 1 item in 3-star hotels, 3 for 4-star lodgings, and 2 for 5-star accommodations.

The segmentation analysis based on hotel star ratings highlighted some similarities and a few differences. In Quadrant I, 9 similarities exist across 3-, 4-, and 5-star hotels, including bathroom cleanliness. The main differences appear in 3-star hotels, which received the best appraisals for helpful and friendly staff, while 4-star hotels are the best in terms of first impressions of the hotel and room cleanliness. Five-star hotels present strong performance for three attributes: bed comfort, standard of fixtures and fittings, and range of complimentary services.

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Four- and 5-star hotels in Quadrant IV have in common good restaurant ambience and their staff's appearance. The main difference is the television screen size in 3-star hotels and the 4-star hotels' timely service.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The current research has clear theoretical implications. First, the results contribute to a better understanding of the service quality offered by

Lisbon hotels, thereby targeting an under researched geographical area that is becoming increasingly popular. This study's findings further contribute to the validation of Mohsin and Lockyer's (2010) scale for a different research context. Second, in answer to calls in previous studies (Lai and Hitchcock, 2015), the present hotel service quality results were not only discussed in terms of the overall sample but also segmented by hotel star ratings (Huang et al., 2018). Last, from a methodological perspective, the application of IPA to tourism proposed by Ka et al. (2015) was extended by adding Boley et al.'s (2017) steps to facilitate analysis by star rating.

The current study also has managerial implications. The measurement of service gaps provided significant conclusions for management in hotels of different categories. First, the results indicate that guests perceive that importance is higher than performance and that the greatest differences appear in the price and/or value for money of upscale facilities, including 4- and 5-star luxury hotels. These findings emphasize the need to strengthen customer loyalty. Decreases in price elasticity for this type of hotel is irrelevant since loyal customers are less likely to switch brands if the price rises. Most of all, loyal customers rely on their positive interaction with hotels (Lai and Hitchcock, 2016), so efficient price management could improve revenue.

The current results underline the importance of food and beverage in all hotel categories, especially food quality, the overall selection of beverages, restaurants, and restaurant food quality. Food quality, varied beverages, and restaurant ambience can positively affect guests' satisfaction (Han and Hyun, 2015).

So, what is the significance of the current study?

From a theoretical perspective, despite decades of research and published literature, service quality still poses a challenge for the hotel industry (Bhavani and Pawar 2013, Soriano 2002, Torres et al. 2014, Chen and Chen 2014, Anton et al 2007, Bell et al. 2005, Aydin & Ozer 2005, Suhartanto 2011). Using the IPA, a validated technique (see table 1), the current study, through its investigations adds new insights by explaining the emerging trends and customers' quality perceptions based on star grading of hotels. This not only contributes to the service quality literature, it also helps the hotel

management to develop service strategies to delight their customers and retain loyalty.

From a managerial perspective, the study provides an opportunity to recognise in a ranking order attributes considered important by hotel customers. By comparing their evaluation of actual experience with what they considered important, service gaps are identified. It helps the hotel management to take a targeted approach to address the issue. The study also provides an opportunity to compare and benchmark results with other studies done globally.

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THE PERCEIVED VALUE AND IMPACTS OF ASIAN PARADIGM TO MODERN HOSPITALITY BUSINESS

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INTRODUCTION

The interest in Asian management and business paradigm was originated with the strong economic success in the 1980s (Hunter 2012). Since the rapid development and economic booming of the 4 tigers of Asia, viz., Taiwan, Singapore, Hong Kong and S. Korea, between mid-1950s and early 1990s, the myth of Asian paradigm, cultures and management styles were further promoted and received a lot of attentions from different disciplines including business management, governance, entrepreneurship and leadership. Some researches, for example Liu (2016), argued that there is a significant difference between the Asian concepts and their western counterparts. Liu contented that the fundamental differences have their root in the diverse of their value system. The Asian emphasizes on attachment, honour, harmony and holistic thinking. The western culture, on the other hand, stress on independence, materialistic success, individual rights and analytical thinking. The difference in the value concepts also affected their thinking mode and judgments, which in turn affected the behaviours and decision mechanism. Liu (2016) in his conclusion made a very important remark suggest that the Asian concept are more applicable and suitable to the context of Asian societies. In other words, the so-called Asian paradigm might have a contextual delimitation. What is appropriate and effective in Asia might not be as usable as in the west.

Hunter (2012) cornered about whether specific Asian paradigms exist. In his study, he concerted that there is prima facie evidence that the modern Asian business success has received stronger influences from the western management thoughts than the traditional Asian management

thinking, except Confucianism. His study, however, suffered the deficiency that the observations were focused on the Asian business in western localities. As Liu's (2016) argument that the Asian paradigm takes the specific local context to flourish and function, therefore the investigation should include the applications of Asian paradigm in oriental domains. Besides, the stage of development of a business and the paradigm paralysis of the foreign context should be considered as well.

In recent years, the development of Asian markets has picked their pace so as their influence on the global market. It is, therefore, critical conduct a new round of the study on the development and application of Asian paradigm in pragmatic situations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Paradigm is the basic set of value and the modeling of judgment, which constituted a critical part of decisions. It is a distinct set of concepts or thoughts patterns, theories, research methods and standards (Blackburn 2008). "A paradigm does not impose a rigid or mechanical approach but can be taken more or less creatively and flexibly" (Blackburn 2008). Paradigm is the foundation of major cultural themes and prescribe behaviours (Benedict 1971). It governs the government policies and development of the society and economy concerned.

Paradigm can be modified, changed, shifted and even flapped. These changes, however, is delimited by inertia such as the paradigm paralysis, which is defined as the resistance and/or inability to think beyond the current model(s) of thinking (Gelatt 1993; Merrifield 1992). In other words, once the paradigm is formed, it might be

difficult to reformulate.

There was serious debate on whether there exists the so-called unique Asian paradigm, which differentiate itself from its westerners' counterpart. And if it does exist, will it be applicable to the non-Asian context.

In 1993, World Bank proposed two models of development trying to explain the rapid economic development of East Asian countries (World Bank 1993). Terry (1996) argued that the so-called East Asian paradigm was among the critical factors that contribute to the economic success of the region. He also discussed the transferability of paradigm from one domain to another, and from one locality to another.

According to Chen and Chon (2016), the Asian paradigm has a strong impact on the formulation of business strategies and the repeated purchase behaviours of hospitality customers. The paradigm will constitute a solid foundation for understanding of value, judgments, management philosophies and marketing strategies for the hospitality industry. It also facilitates the derive learnings from the cases of Asian success.

Asian hospitality service has its unique features, which were driven by socio-cultural and historical reasons. These features created "Asian-ness". (Chon, 2017) In other words, the development of the unique Asian-ness in hospitality was related to its contextual environment. This concerted Liu's (2016) and Mills' (2005) argument that paradigm has to be locality-specific. And adaption of a paradigm to an operation might require some alternations in the settings.

Mills (2005) and Liu (2016) concerted that the Asian paradigm and leadership styles have a strong linkage to their contextual background. Mills argued that political connections and family control are much more dominating in Asia than in the United States, for example. Furthermore, most of the Asian economies is still in the development stage, which have critical impacts on the requirements of leadership, management styles and operational modes. For example (Li 2016), researches have indicated that the lower labour cost

have constitute to the labour intensiveness of the services industry and redefined the customer's expectation and the paradigm of services management in Asia.

Labour intensiveness and relatively low labour cost of many developing countries in Asia, however, may not be all that beneficial to the hospitality industry. Service quality in daily operations of the staff cannot be disregarded, apart from the number of staff. (Bradley, 2000) The quality of manpower and their productivity could be more critical concerns.

Mills (2005) laid down important cornerstone on the differences between Asian and western leadership. He argued that the American business leaders, for example, tends to adopt one of the five common styles, viz., directive, participative, empowering, charismatic or celebrity. The Asians, on the other hand, were flourishing in a different playing field with unique characteristics. For example, the family and political connection amongst Asian business leaders are much stronger than the westerners. This would empower the Asian leaders with more flexibility in decision making and nurture a more decisive and even dictated rulership style. The domination of family clan was still very common in Asia whereas in the west, professional management has taken the core of enterprises. For example, the Sino group, one of the leading property and hotel developers in Hong Kong, was founded by Ng Family. Their business has been passed to the third generation over the decades. (Sino Group, 2017)

In terms of styles, the east and the west have embarked on a different journey and at different stage of development. Figure 1 below summarized some of the arguments of Mills (2005) and observations from the hospitality industry. Leaders' style was correlated with roles to play. In America, the most common role model for corporate leader is professional CEO. It remains the military general in France and coalition builder in Germany. In China and Chinese-related businesses, it will be the head of the family. In Japan, it is the consensus builder (Mills 2005).

Figure 1. Leadership styles and Applications (Mills 2005)

	Western	Asian
Directive	Directions to be given from the top and executed by operational level without much questioning. Gradually declining	Very common
Participative	Involve close teamwork More common in Europe	Also common in a variant coloured by national cultural norms as in Japan and large organization such as Hong Kong Jockey Club
Empowering	Delegation of responsibility and empowered with authority. Young but gaining popularity	Only found in a few young Asian business leaders such as the CEO of Banyan Tree Resorts
Charismatic	Look upon senior executive as leader and follow. Quality is more important	Position is more important
Celebrity	CEO as star Situational and can change quite quickly	Develop as it goes and tends to stay on for longer period

Other than situational factors, personal characteristics also constituted an essential of leadership. The nine key qualities include passion, decisiveness, conviction, integrity, adaptability,

emotional toughness, emotional resonance, self-knowledge and humility (Mills 2005). The summary is in figure 2.

Figure 2. Personal Qualities for Effective Leadership

	Western	Asian
Passion	More common in America but suspicious in Europe. Emerging in Asia, especially in mainland China.	
Decisiveness	Common among all. European and Japanese chief executives are the most consensus-oriented. Chinese and American top executives are more likely to make decisions personally and with their own accountability.	
conviction	Common to all.	
integrity	Vary from one culture to another.	
Adaptability	Pronounced characteristic of American leadership generally. It is less common and less valued in Asia and Europe.	
emotional toughness	Common to all.	
emotional resonance	Common in the west and gaining popularity in the east.	
self-knowledge	Gradually declining in the west but still dominating in the east.	
humility	Uncommon in the west but sometimes found in Asia.	

The New Marketing Era

The traditional management cultural and paradigm were under challenge of rapid contextual development. The modern consumer market has marked a new marketing era that is featured with higher diversity, higher mobility, more severe competition and greater difficulties in retaining

customers for both new brands and mature brands. Customers are becoming more difficult to satisfy and retain (Riebe, et al., 2014). They are more knowledgeable, better informed, extend more critical influences on others, require more personalized products and less brand loyal (Lowenstein, M. (2015). The traditional marketing

tools such as mass media advertising and distribution through traditional retail channel might no longer work. Although some researchers argued that marketing would demand for a new paradigm many years ago (Gronroos, 1994), it was yet being formulated. The situation was further complicated by the uprising of new markets. And among which, the greater China market has come under the limelight. Gilbert and Tsao (2000) contended that in the wake of the rapid development of new marketing / relationship marketing, the expanding of the Chinese market has redefined the marketing landscape and demand for new tactics.

The Chinese Paradigm – Subject for investigation

While Asian culture and their paradigms do share some commonality, they are still much diversified. Given the diversity would imply operational barriers to this investigation, the researcher further defined the subjects for investigation to Chinese paradigms and its impacts to hospitality management, in particularly the design of product and customer relationship marketing.

Chinese paradigm was selected for investigation owing to a list of reasons. First and foremost, Chinese cultural was the strongest among the various influences for the development of Asian Paradigms. Chinese being the largest share of population and its aggressive expansion magnitude has extended the most critical influences on the development of other Asian culture both in the ancient history and in modern times. In recent years, the Mainland Chinese capital has been actively and aggressively going aboard to expand their business. The development and the interaction with foreigners have triggered an intensive process of cultural assimilation. The same token applies to the demand size as well. The number of outbound Chinese tourists has increased to create a critical mass. According to China Tourism Academy (CTA), the official tourism research institute of CNTA, outbound from the Mainland in 2016 reached 122 million who has spent US\$109 billion. Without a good understanding of these customers' value and preferences, marketers and destinations would find difficulties in securing good business.

Second, the Chinese paradigm can be regarded as relatively stable despite of the circumstantial changes. Chinese culture was an effective melting pot which brings the essence of

others such as Buddhism, literature and gastronomy into its own usage. Its development and metamorphosis of the Chinese culture has been rapid. Another critical event on its development is the Cultural Revolution, which took place during 1966 to 1976 with the intention to purge remnants of capitalism and traditional Chinese elements. Nonetheless, some of the traditional doctrines of the Confucianism have survived to remain as the backbone of the Chinese paradigms in nowadays. It served as a stable platform for the analysis and discussion.

Third, both Taiwan and the Mainland have strong determination and devotion in developing their tourism and hospitality economy. Taiwan, for example, has launched its active tourism agenda since 1956. Since then, the number of hotels has increased drastically (Gilbert and Tsao 2000). The number of rooms has increased from 736 in 1965 (TNTA, 1996) to 154,302 in 2017. (Tourism Bureau, 2017)

Last but not the least, owing to the cultural background of the researcher and the familiarity of the Chinese paradigm facilitated the study and the interpretations of findings. The researcher also embedded with industrial experience which enable her to generate some insider views on the subject.

This paper intended to investigate the Asian paradigm and the impact of which on the development of modern hospitality business management in Asian. The author utilized Mainland Chinese as the subject for investigation and foci were given to the hybridizing of different cultures in practical grounds. The working definition of hybridization refers to the cultural interaction between foreign and local stakeholders, which included investors, management, professionals and consumers.

The research methodological design adopted multiple methods featuring case studies, key informant interviews and observations. The data collection was taken place in August 2017. Data, verbatim and other materials were transferred and translated into research text for analysis.

The researcher tried to discern a few critical social movements, which have been argued to be forces that redefined the marketing landscape. They included the one-child policy and the subsequent relaxation, the millennials, the new economic order and the underlying political paradigm shift in China.

METHOD

This is an exploratory study attempting to investigate the formation and adaptation of the Asian paradigm in hospitality industry. Owing to the abstract nature of the subject, the researcher decided to utilize a qualitative approach for investigation. Key informant interviews, case studies and Delphi method were capitalized as core methodological tactics. The data collected in the form of unstructured responses made critical analysis and critical thinking to be the guiding research approach and research paradigm of this accord.

In view of generating a concerted view amongst the respondents, the research incorporated the Delphi method. Inputs and comments from the respondents were summarized and sent to other respondents for comments and responses. Agreements so as disagreements will be reported as findings of the study. In order to ensure the interpretation of the findings are righteous, the researcher invited a critical reviewer to follow through the analysis of the data and the generation of insights.

FINDINGS

Xing (1995) defined culture as a shared pattern of being, thinking and behaving, which was adopted through personal development in a specified society. Hofstede (1984) argued that different cultures has different mentality and judgment, which governs activities, motivation and value. In other words, culture and cultural rituals can be more pragmatic aspects for studying and measuring paradigm for this study.

Chinese culture permeates in the famous oriental hotel brands. Management is trying hard to create a harmonious environment. The words "care", "family" and "love" are the core value of people management. For example, The Peninsula Hong Kong, the annual "Family Open Day" is created, which allows the employees' family members to visit the hotel and be familiar with the working environment. Furthermore, to treasure its 900 family-like staff who dedicated their life with passion to the hotel, a 40-minute documentary film was produced to memorize the effort every staff put on the extravagant 85th anniversary gala party

in 2013. Family friendly policies such as the kids' hall of fame. A big group photo of many staffs' children was posted at the back area of the hotel. In the Peninsula Hong Kong, the longest serving employee, Mr. Johnny Chung Kam-hung who's the Senior Bartender has worked for more than 50 years (The Peninsula, 2014). In addition, there are 50% of the employees have been working at the hotel from 5 to 19 years, while 10 % of the employees work from 20 to 60 years. There were employees who have served the establishment for three generation. These are critical evidence that reflect the utilities of family as a tactic for promoting staff loyalty.

Gilbert and Tsao (2000) argued that the Chinese are extremely sensitive to issues including "face", human obligation, and personal relationship (guanxi). A human resources manager in the L'hotel Group cares about the personal relationship with her subordinates. She would celebrate her subordinates' birthdays with her whole team by treating them nice meal and a present. A human resources manager from the Harbour Plaza Hotel Management sometimes would arrange the family outing with their team during the weekend. These are the ways to develop the personal relationship. Author also found that the Chinese concerns the face issue very much such as respecting each other by "face giving" and avoid losing "face" by doing some disgraceful behaviours. From the interviews, some food and beverage managers replied that if the subordinates make some mistakes, they tended not to issue warning letter. Instead, they would be verbally warned in a private area. It was because they concerned the "face" issue as well as the career prospect of the staff. They had the sense of responsibility to protect the subordinate under the team. Both China and Hong Kong had the same culture that subordinates usually call the manager as "big brother" or "big sister", which also reflects how they respect the senior and develop the family-like relationship.

The arguments regarding the effectiveness of Chinese paradigm in Hong Kong hotels were valid and observed in this study. Key informants generally agreed that these values would sustain for a long period of time. They, however, cannot come to an agreement on whether these values can be disseminated to other establishment in foreign localities.

The Chinese paradigm, on top of its application in human resources management and leadership, is critical for marketing. Gilbert and Tsao's (2000) development a list of four dimensional aspects which are critical and unique to the Chinese hospitality market. They included universalism versus particularism (rules versus relationships); collectivism versus individualism (group versus individual); neutral versus emotional (range of feelings expressed); diffuse versus specific; and achievement versus ascription. They concerted that these differences called for unique marketing strategies for cultivating the Chinese market.

Staff is the core asset in hospitality industries, not only because of the staff attitudes, skills and knowledge, but also the networks with the customers. As the first contact of the customers, it is easy for staff to retain the customers by developing good relationship with them. Many frontline staff responded that they are very delighted to serve the repeated customers. Some of the customers would gradually become their friends. With this relationship, it is beneficial for upselling and promoting new products. Loyal customers tend to spend more money during their stay.

Empowerment is given to the staff which allows them to be flexible while serving customers. This allows more personalized service, which is highly appreciated by the Chinese customers. According to the interviews, especially, people from China like to have personalized service, which is related to "face" issues. On top of these paradigm differences, the researcher also has the hypothesis that new market trends have critical influences on the development of a new marketing paradigm for the Asian particularly the Chinese marketing. These trends will include but not delimited to the followings.

First, the new Chinese marketing has a higher level of non-personal interaction e-platforms. It is not just a matter of frequency but the level of intensity and impacts. According to Michael and Xhou (2010), digital technology has fundamentally changed the daily life of the Chinese people. The way that they read information and made travel decisions have undergone a dramatic transformation. They predicted that the digital view will emerge even faster and it would be critical and increasingly urgent for businesses to adopt to the

changes. In 2016 alone, the internet users in China grew 6.2% to 731 million, which is the size of Ukraine's population. The penetration rate was 53.2%. 95.1% of Chinese users accessed the internet through their smart phones. China is the largest eCommerce market driven by the mobile-first consumer behavior (PWC 2017). The national online retails sales of goods and services has increased by 32.1% in Q1 2017, which registered a total of RMB 1.4 trillion. On the contrary, sales at physical outlets only soaked by 7.2%. The so-called "new retail normal", which was signified by the increasing maturity in using data analytics and omni-channel technology have redefining the market landscape. Hotels and travel industry are of no exception. According to the respondents, marketing strategies which failed to recognize the digital trend will be detrimental to the business' survival.

Second, the traditional value of reciprocation is believed to an enhancing device to the relationship. Relationship was still be identified as the most important attribute for business by the respondents. Many literatures have argued that relationship is the central idea in Chinese societies and organizations. It has its origin in the Confucianism, which emphasizes on the position of oneself and the proper relationship with others on the hierarchy. It was believed to the critical ritual for maintaining social order and stability. Relationship, according to the traditional doctrine, was maintained through a list of attributes, which included mutual obligations, trusts and reciprocity (Luo and Wang, 2011).

It is important to notice that concept of reciprocation was one of the central piece of the Buddhism philosophy. The impacts and influence of Buddhism on personal value, behaviours and management style among Asian communities is certainly a critical element to study.

According to the informants, relationship was also an expression of obligations, social status, propriety and prestige. It was also suggested as the key element for cultivating long term business success, especially among the high personal involvement services industries such as hotel and fine dining.

Third, the one-child policy and the subsequent relaxation has a critical impact on the development of consumer behaviours. The one-child policy was

promulgated in 1980. After more than thirty-five years of execution, the impacts of which was becoming more obvious. From a macro point of view, the population growth has slowed down drastically from about 15 per 1,000 in 1980 to below 5.5 recently (Nardelli and Swann, 2015). The aging population, the rise of the so-called “child-king”, and the skewed gender split have all reshaped the buying behaviours and consumer preference. Subsequently, the relaxation of the one-child policy might impact another round of market movement. According to some of the respondents, the preferred hospitality products might quickly be changing with the changes in the population mix. For example, the demand for cruise trips and resorts for family will be receiving more attentions. They also suggested that the design of hotel architectures and interior design should take into consideration the requirements of family tourists.

Fourth, the millennials of the Mainland have emerged as a mainstream. They were born in 1980s and 1990s. According to Goldman Sachs’ estimate, there are about 415 million in the Mainland representing 31% of its population. They are increasingly wealthy with an average income of US\$ 5,900 but will grow to US\$13,000 in next ten years. The aggregate income is set to grow by US\$3 trillion. This group were better educated, more westernized, more independent, more digital savvy, and with a higher motivation to travel. Their value system, preference and consumption behaviours have significant difference with their family of orientation. To cultivate this segment, therefore, might require a different marketing program.

According to the respondents, most of them have anxiety about this segment. On the one hand, they are too potential and critical to ignore. On the other hand, they have concerns whether they are equipped with knowledge and skills to cultivate this market.

The respondents also mentioned about a concern about the development of the new normal China market. Over the last two decades, the new Chinese socialism with emphasis of capitalism characteristics has become the norm and evolved a new paradigm of business. The new paradigm, however, is still very rapid changing and adapting to the ever-changing market environment became a challenge to every marketer. These challenges, according to the respondents, did not merely apply

to those businesses operating in the Mainland but also extend to those who serve Mainland Chinese off-shore. For example, the anti-corruption measures in 2012 onwards have seriously impacts on outbound activities from the Mainland. Their selection of destination, hotels, travel mode and spending patterns can be changed overnight. The traditional way of forecasting business by historic figures might not be relevant in markets like China. The business management paradigm, to be effective, has to incorporate new proactive protocol and reactive measures to cope with sudden changes.

The issues of uneven development and distribution of wealth have led to diversified and sometimes polarized development of markets and market segments in the Mainland. The traditional proposition of a generic China paradigm of business does not really exist. The tactics and attitudes required for Tier 2 cities, for example, will be different from what one has learnt from their experience in Tier 1 cities.

CONCLUSION

As a concluding remark of this paper, evidence suggested that management paradigm is changeable, developing and adaptive. Rather than being structured by the traditional rituals and cultural aspects of the specific locality, a bundle of attributes will constitute the mode, the stage and the structure of the paradigm. It might be less critical in non-business domains such as governance and education. In business management, customer services and organizational leadership, the situational factors seem to have a much stronger impact on the formation and application of paradigm and styles. In other words, adaptability and quest for advancing became the driving forces behind the development and the adaptation of system.

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THE EFFECT OF EXTERNAL SEARCH AND NEW SERVICE DEVELOPMENT CAPABILITIES ON EMPLOYEE INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOR

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INTRODUCTION

Hotels operate in a highly competitive environment, with continuous changes of social environment and customer demands (Hallin & Marnburg, 2008). In order to meet customers' needs and maintain a competitive advantage, hotels must strive to continuously innovate their products and services (Tang et al., 2015), which depends greatly on hotel employees innovative work (Hu, Horng, & Sun, 2009). Employee innovative behavior can be seen as a process in which individuals create novel ideas or new problem-solving approaches in their work role, and then seek to actualize the ideas (Amabile, 1988). Researchers suggest that the innovation behavior of employee is a result of the complex interaction of individual - situational factors (Woodman et al., 1993). It relies on not only the individual's creativity, knowledge, personality, and motivation, but also needs resources and supports from organizations (Scott and Bruce, 1994; George and Zhou, 2011). In recent years, studies on hotel innovation also emphasize the factors outside the organization, e.g. external knowledge sources from customers, suppliers, universities, etc. (Nieves and Diaz-Meneses, 2018; Xie, Guan, & Huan, 2019). However, a large part of the research to date has ignored the joint study of external knowledge sources and internal capabilities as determinants of innovation.

Based on the perspective of open innovation, service innovation in hotel often needs knowledge beyond organizational boundaries (Tether, 2005; Nieves, Quintana, & Osorio, 2014; Nieves & Diaz-Meneses, 2018), such as competitors,

suppliers, customers, private institute, trade fairs and associations. The open innovation research also has highlighted the need for an internal organizational capability to make effective use of external knowledge (Lichtenthaler, 2011; Nieves and Diaz-Meneses, 2018). Hence, This study aims to fill this gap by 1) proposing a conceptual model on enhancing hotel employee innovative behavior (EIB) through external search (ES) and new service development capabilities (NSDC) of hotel; and 2) revealing the mediating effect of absorptive capacity (AC) and knowledge sharing (KS); 3) testing the model on a sample of 270 hotel employees. The findings of this test contribute to the study on hotel employee innovative behavior by combining the open innovation and internal capability perspectives.

RESEARCH MODEL and HYPOTHESES

The research model and hypotheses are summarized as follows: (See figure 1)

H1: External search is positively related to employee innovative behavior.

H2: New service development capabilities is positively related to employee innovative behavior.

H3: External search is positively related to absorptive capacity.

H4: New service development capabilities is positively related to absorptive capacity.

H5: Absorptive capacity is positively related to knowledge sharing.

H6: Knowledge sharing is positively related to employee innovative behavior.

Figure 1. presents the proposed research model and hypotheses.

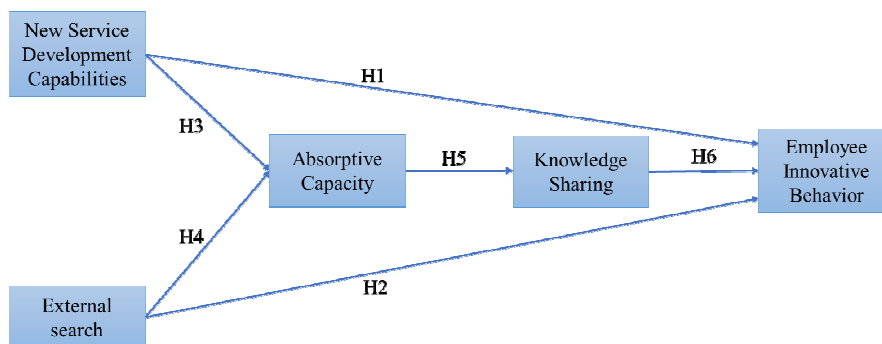


Figure. 1. Theoretical Framework

METHOD

Survey Instrument and Measures

A questionnaire was developed to collect data. All measurement scales were adapted from previously established scales. A 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree) was used for all measurements.

ES was measured through a twelve-item scale developed by Laursen & Salter (2006) and adapted by Teixeira & Bezerra (2016). AC was measured using a 9-item scale adapted from Griffith & Sawyer (2010). The measurement for KS was developed by Kim & Lee (2013) based on Van Den Hooff & Ridder (2004) 8-item scale. Following Scott &

Bruce (1994) and Hu, Horng, & Sun (2009), we adopted a 6-item scale to measure EIB and an 8-item scale to measure NSDC. The questionnaire also included questions about respondents’ social demographics (e.g., gender, age, education, position and industry tenure).

Using convenient sampling method, data collection was conducted in 9 hotels located in 5 cities (Beijing, Jinan, Weifang, Dezhou, Linyi) of China. With the assistance of the hotel’s general manager and human resource manager, the questionnaire was administered to 400 employees. After screening and excluding missing values, 270 were retained for data analysis, representing a valid response rate of 67.5%.

Table 1. Demographic information.

Characteristics	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	122	45.2
Female	148	54.8
Age		
25 or younger	118	43.7
25-35 years	85	31.5
36-45 years	48	17.8
46-55 years	19	7.0
Education		
High school or below	103	38.1
Vocational school	115	42.6
University	51	18.9
Master’s/PhD	1	.4
Position		
First-line employee	168	62.2
Supervisor in lower-level	71	26.3
Senior managers	27	10
Decision-making managers	4	1.5
Seniority		
Under 1	71	26.3
1-2	69	25.6
3-5	48	17.8
6-10	42	15.6
Above 10	40	14.8

RESULTS

Reliability and Measurement Model Fit

The results showed that Cronbach's alpha ranged from .89 to .93 (> .70) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), indicating good internal reliability for all constructs. Table 3 showed that each construct's square roots of AVE were higher than construct

correlations, indicating that each construct had good discriminant validity. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results showed the measurement model closely fit the data (Byrne, 1998) with $\chi^2 (270) = 1408.42$, ($p < .001$, $df = 828$), $\chi^2 / df = 1.70$, $GFI = .80$, $CFI = .92$, $NFI = .83$, $IFI = .92$, $TLI = .91$, $RMSEA = .05$, $SRMR = .06$.

Table 2. Estimated Measurement Model.

Construct and Item	SFL	T value	CR
1. External search			0.89
Our hotel pays much attention to cooperation with Universities and other S&TS.	0.59	10.10	
Our hotel pays much attention to cooperation with Government and other organization.	0.65	11.54	
Our hotel pays much attention to cooperation with Customers.	0.52	8.73	
Our hotel pays much attention to cooperation with Suppliers.	0.63	10.98	
Our hotel pays much attention to cooperation with competitors.	0.52	8.63	
Our hotel pays much attention to cooperation with professional and industry associations.	0.68	12.15	
Our hotel has established close cooperation with universities or research institutes.	0.68	12.15	
Our hotel often participates in seminars organized by the government or industry associations.	0.75	13.91	
Our hotel often invites customers to make innovative suggestions.	0.63	11.12	
Our hotel often invites suppliers to make innovative suggestions.	0.68	12.25	
Our hotel keeps intimate contact with competitors.	0.66	11.63	
Our hotel often attends industry conferences and trade fairs.	0.66	11.80	
2. New service development capabilities			0.90
Our hotel provides a suitable environment for developing new services.	0.75	13.86	
All departments and units interact well to develop new businesses.	0.70	12.55	
When developing and executing new service projects, managers and front-line service personnel collaborate closely.	0.79	14.69	
Our hotel will offer incentives or promotions to members involved in the development of new businesses upon the success of their project.	0.81	15.32	
Our hotel will dedicate some resources to developing new services.	0.81	15.41	
Our hotel's current manpower is sufficient for the new services that have to be developed.	0.57	9.60	
Our team is professional in developing new services or new products.	0.68	12.18	
The new services developed by our team are effective with respect to timing, resources and process.	0.68	11.32	
3. Absorptive capacity			0.93
People in my team are able to decipher the knowledge that will be most valuable to us.	0.74	13.74	
It is easy to decide what information will be most useful in meeting customer's needs.	0.72	13.41	
We know enough about the technology we use to determine what new information is credible and trustworthy.	0.81	15.83	
The shared knowledge within my team makes it easy to understand new material presented within our technical areas.	0.79	15.29	
It is easy to see the connections among the pieces of knowledge held jointly in our team.	0.83	16.33	
Many of the new technological developments coming to the team fit well into the current Technology.	0.81	15.74	
It is easy to adapt our work to make use of the new technical knowledge made available to us.	0.74	13.75	
New technical knowledge can be quickly applied to our work.	0.77	14.52	
My customers can immediately benefit from new technical knowledge learned in the team.	0.73	13.45	
4. Knowledge sharing			0.89
When I need certain knowledge, I ask my colleagues about it.	0.71	12.90	
I like to be informed of what my colleagues know	0.74	13.28	
I ask my colleagues about their abilities when I need to learn something	0.79	14.70	
When one of my colleagues is good at something, I ask him/her to teach me how to do it.	0.66	11.62	
When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues about it.	0.74	13.35	
I share information I have with my colleagues.	0.74	13.45	
I think it is important that my colleagues know what I am doing.	0.69	12.17	
I regularly tell my colleagues what I am doing.	0.55	9.12	
5. Employee innovation behavior			0.91
At work, I come up with innovation and creative notions.	0.77	14.48	
At work, I try to propose my own creative and convince others.	0.75	14.45	
At work, I seek new service technique, methods, or technique.	0.84	16.58	
At work, I provide a suitable plan for developing new ideas.	0.86	17.11	
At work, I try to secure the funding and resources needed to implement innovation.	0.81	15.70	
Overall, I consider myself a creative member of my team.	0.67	12.00	

Note: SFL = Standardized factor loading, CR = construct reliability, AVE = average variance extracted.

Table 3. Latent variable correlation matrix.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. External search	(.64)				
2. New service development capabilities	.58**	(.73)			
3. Knowledge sharing	.54**	.52**	(.71)		
4. Absorptive capacity	.52**	.47**	.51**	(.77)	
5. Employee innovation behavior	.38**	.44**	.50**	.61**	(.79)
MEAN	4.44	4.26	4.33	4.46	4.29
SD	.49	.65	.61	.55	.66

Note: 1. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

2. The square roots of AVE for discriminant validity are in the diagonal.

Hypothesis Testing

To test Hypotheses 1 to 6, the research team performed structural equation modeling (SEM). The structural path coefficients (Table 4) suggest that all of the 6 paths were significant, providing support for the partial mediation hypothesis 1-6. To test the mediating effect, the bootstrapping technique was performed at a 95% confidence intervals (CI) with 2,000 bootstrap samples. The results confirmed a significant indirect effect of new service development capabilities (Standardized estimates = .10, p < .01, SE=.04, 95% CI = .04-.20) and external search (Standardized estimates = .14, p < .001, SE

= .05, 95% CI = .07-.25) on employee innovation behavior through absorptive capacity and knowledge sharing. The results of the bootstrap test confirmed the existence of a positive and significant mediating effect for absorptive capacity between new service development capabilities and knowledge sharing (standardized indirect effect=.18, p < .01, SE=.06, 95% CI = .08-.31), and positive and significant mediating effects for absorptive capacity between external search and knowledge sharing (standardized indirect effect=.25, p < .01, SE=.07, 95% CI = .12-.40).

Table 4. Estimated Structural Model

Hypothesized Paths	Standardized estimates	T-values	Hypotheses testing results
NSDC → EIB	.25**	3.09	H1: supported
ES → EIB	.01	0.08	H2: unsupported
NSDC → AC	.30***	3.81	H3: supported
ES → AC	.45***	4.88	H4: supported
AC → ES	.52***	6.88	H5: supported
KS → EIB	.72***	6.67	H6: supported
Gender → EIB	-.16	-2.57	
Age → EIB	-.05	-1.18	
Education → EIB	-.02	-0.52	
Position → EIB	-.03	-0.54	
Seniority → EIB	.09	2.46	
Indirect effect	Standardized estimates	SE	Bootstrap 95% CI
NSDC → AC → KS	.18**	.06	[.08, .31]
ES → AC → KS	.25**	.07	[.12, .40]
NSDC → AC → KS → EIB	.10**	.04	[.04, .20]
ES → AC → KS → EIB	.14***	.05	[.07, .25]

Note: 1. SE = standard error; CI = confidence intervals; *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

2. ES = external search; NSDC = new service development capabilities; AC = absorptive capacity; KS = knowledge sharing; EIB = employee innovation behavior.

3. Goodness-of-fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 1736.42$, $df = 1040$, $\chi^2/df = 1.67$, $p < .001$, CFI = .91, NFI = .81, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .07.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This research attempts to explore how the external knowledge resource and internal innovative capabilities influence hotel employees' innovative behavior. The findings provide support for the proposed hypotheses. In particular, both external search and new service development capabilities have a direct effect in enhancing employee innovative behavior, and the effects were mediated through absorptive capacity and knowledge sharing. The results of this study contribute to the literature by exploring the mechanisms underlying the relationship between external knowledge resource/internal innovative capabilities and service innovation performance. Departing from the previous literature on employee innovative behavior in hotels, this study take the combining perspective of external and internal supports. This study has added the intermediary variable (absorptive capacity and knowledge sharing), which provides a framework for uncovering the “black box” between external search and employee innovative behavior, and as well the relationship between new service development capabilities and employee innovative behavior. Moreover, by examining the positive effect of external search on employee innovative behavior, this paper applies the open innovation theory to the research field of hotel innovation, and explores it in empirical researches. Practically, the findings infer that hotels need to make more efforts to improve their external innovative capabilities and expand external channels to enhance the employee innovation.

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OVERREACHED EFFECTS OF CUSTOMER INCIVILITY ON CASINO EMPLOYEES' WORK ENGAGEMENT

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INTRODUCTION

The compounding negative impacts of customer incivility might include employee's general psychological health, high turnover intention, and decreased job performance and job satisfaction (Wright & Cronpanzano, 1998). Customer incivility is treated as an interpersonal stressor, and induces emotional labor then emotional exhaustion which in turn develop job stress (Choi, Kim, Lee, & Lee, 2014; Sliter & Jones, 2016). Among many impacts of job stress, current research focuses on the impact on work engagement. This study explores the relationships between customer incivility, emotional labor, emotional exhaustion, job stress, and work engagement together. It posits that customer incivility goes through the emotional (labor and exhaustion) to cause the psychological strain (job stress) which then negatively influence employees' work engagement. This study is mainly to explore the extended negative impacts of customer incivility, revealing the sequential process of emotional labor and exhaustion and job stress on employees' work engagement. This is done by testing the structural relationships among customer incivility, emotional labor, emotional exhaustion, job stress, and employee work engagement.

METHODS

Measurements. All measurement items for the five main constructs (customer incivility, emotional exhaustion, emotional labor, job stress, and work engagement) were adapted from previous studies (Brotheridge, & Grandey, 2002; Burnfield, Clark, Devendorf, & Jex, 2004; Torres, van Niekerk, & Orłowski, 2017; Derks, van Mierlo, & Schmitz, 2014; Chen, 2016; Schaufeli, Bakker, & Salanova, 2006). A 5-point Likert scales from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree was used for all

questions. For content validity, two researchers and casino dealers were asked to assess the relevance of the measurement items. Prior to launching the questionnaire, a pre-test was conducted among 30 graduate students in the hospitality and tourism field. Minor changes were made for clarity.

Sampling and Data Collection. A self-administrated survey was distributed to casino dealers in Kangwon Land which is the only casino allows Korean citizens with approximately 3,672 employees (Korean Casino Association, 2017). The dealers received the paper survey during their shift changes and breaks at the employee lounge. Two graduate students majoring in tourism and hospitality management at a major university in Korea assisted with the data collection. At the end, 379 complete surveys were collected from 400 total questionnaires distributed. Of these, 348 questionnaires were included in the analysis after removing cases with incomplete and inappropriate responses.

Data Analysis. A confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling with the maximum likelihood were conducted for this study using SPSS 23.0 and AMOS 23.0. The structural equation model is estimated using a two-step approach. First, a confirmatory factor analysis is conducted to assess goodness of fit (i.e., Normed χ^2 , GFI, IFI, NFI, NNFI, RMSEA), along with both convergent and discriminatory validities of the measurement model. Second, the structural equation model is estimated to identify the causal relationships among all five constructs and test hypotheses of the research model.

FINDINGS

The respondents are 49.7% male and 50.3% female, 78% under the age of 40 and just about 17% are in their 40s. Overall respondents are well

educated, with 44.5% junior college degrees and 42.2% university degree. 54.6% are single and 38.7% are married. About 58% of respondents earns between \$1,600 and \$3,200 monthly.

The goodness of fit, convergent validity and discriminatory validity of the measurement model are tested first from the confirmatory factor analysis. The measurement model shows a good fit to the data. All indices, $\chi^2 = 785.738$, $df = 421$, Normed $\chi^2 = (\text{CMIN}/df) = 1.866 (< 3)$, NFI = .90, NNFI = .95, CFI = .95 and RMSEA = .050 (< .08), satisfied the cut-off values (Byrne, 1998). Convergent validity is secured when factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE) exceed .50. Factor loadings (λ) ranged from .67 to .91 and AVE ranged from .62 to .70 satisfying convergent validity. Reliability was satisfactory since construct reliability (CR) ranged from .80 to .95 and reliability coefficients (α) ranged from .90 to .94. Discriminatory validity can be confirmed by comparing squared correlations and with AVE. All AVE are higher than squared correlations, thus,

discriminatory validity is evident.

The results of the proposed model and maxim-likelihood estimates for the various parameters of the overall fit of the model are given. Structural model fits the data well; $\Delta\chi^2=712.032$, $df = 342$, Normed χ^2 (CMIN/DF) = 2.082, NFI = .91, NNFI (TLI) = .95, CFI = .95, and RMSEA = .054. Variance in endogenous constructs explained by 45% job stress, 24% emotional exhaustion, 21% emotional labor and 28% work engagement. The results of structural equation model show that customer incivility has a significant positive effect on emotional labor ($\gamma_{CI \rightarrow EI} = .46$, $t = 7.34$, $p < .001$) and emotional exhaustion ($\gamma_{CI \rightarrow EE} = .38$, $t = 5.99$, $p < .001$). Emotional labor has a significant positive effect on emotional exhaustion ($\gamma_{EI \rightarrow EE} = .18$, $t = 2.83$, $p < .001$). Both emotional constructs have significant positive influences on job stress ($\gamma_{EI \rightarrow JS} = .23$, $t = 4.25$, $\gamma_{EE \rightarrow JS} = .55$, $t = 9.45$, $p < .001$). Job stress has a significant negative effect on work engagement ($\beta_{JS \rightarrow WE} = -.53$, $t = -9.09$, $p < .001$), thus supporting all six hypotheses (See Figure 1).

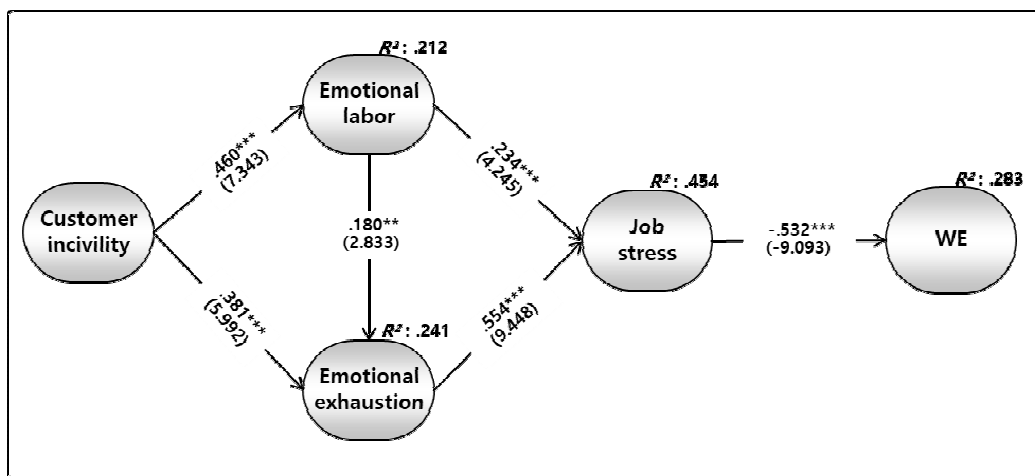


Figure 1. Differences in Demographic Characteristics

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INNOVATIONS AS A CRITICAL CRITERION FOR RESTAURANT ENTREPRENEURSHIP – THE DANP APPLICATION

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INTRODUCTION

With the rapid growth of the economy and the increase in the number of people eating out, restaurant has become one of the fastest growing industries, while the industry is facing a competitive environment (Chou, Horng, Liu, & Gan, 2018). Therefore the new entrepreneurs need more innovations to catch performance. However the restaurant is greatly influenced by human capital, entrepreneurial orientation and market orientation (Jogarathnam, 2017). Beside the market orientation, human capital and entrepreneurial orientation also considered to have a positive relationship with restaurant performance (Jogarathnam, 2017). In addition, entrepreneurs also need to learn by using absorptive capacity to effectively respond to market demand (Gebauer, Worch, & Truffer, 2012). Because the past research on innovation of hospitality industry are focusing on management improvement lack of more comprehensive in-depth discussion (Horng, Liu, Chou, Tsai, & Hu, 2018). This study takes the new brand and early franchisees of Taiwanese restaurants from 2014 to 2017 as the research object. Most of these innovation entrepreneurs are small and medium-sized enterprises. Compared with other industries, the food service market is highly competitive and risks (Singal, 2015 #1981). Therefore, these innovation entrepreneurs have important representations that deserve more thorough consideration. Based on above, this study provide a theoretical framework for innovations entrepreneurship of restaurant integrates positional advantage (including market orientation, human capital, entrepreneurial orientation), absorptive capacity, innovations and performance

concepts to address some unresolved issues in the innovations entrepreneurship of restaurant research.

METHOD

Innovations entrepreneurship of restaurant is a new research topic, many hospitality innovation studies such as Chen, Hsu and Tzeng(2011) suggest that through DANP methods could get more reference value research results by expert's questionnaire. Therefore, this research adopted literature review and in-depth interview with 15 experts to confirm influence criteria of innovations entrepreneurship of restaurant. Second, this study also interviews and questionnaire with 30 chairman and managers of new brand restaurants and experts such as scholars and consultants who have experience of innovation entrepreneurs. Among the interviewed experts, 60% were men, 40% were women, 56.67% owned degrees, 41.38% had 11-20 years working experience and 67.23% entitled chairmen or managers.

FINDINGS

The results of FDM show each dimensions of innovative entrepreneurial of restaurants are acceptance $\mu > 0.7$. Then got each criterion weights through DANP analysis based on DANP analysis result the E. Innovations 0.182 was rated as the most important dimension, followed by F. Performance 0.173 D. Absorptive capacity 0.166, A. Entrepreneurial orientation 0.166, C. Market orientation 0.162 and B. Human capital 0.151(see table 1). This may be because these entrepreneurial successes have common characteristics. Because

they have just entered the market and their market acceptance is not high, and the scale is small, they must know more than the competitors to cater to the market, and have higher chances of success through innovation (Ireland & Webb, 2007). A comprehensive view of that result it was same as other MCDM empirical studies found that although

DANP analysis can understand the importance of each variable. Through the comparison of weights of each dimension and items the defaulters can focus on the core factor strategy planning and development, so that resources can be used more effectively.

Table 1 Weights and ranking for the dimension and items

Items	Global weight	Dimensions	Local weight	Ranking	items	Local weights	Ranking
a1. Innovativeness	0.061	A. Entrepreneurial orientation	0.166	4	a1	0.366	1
a2. Proactive	0.054				a2	0.329	2
a3. Risk undertake	0.051				a3	0.305	3
b1. Personal characteristic	0.049	B. Human capital	0.151	6	b1	0.326	3
b2. Knowledge and skills	0.052				b2	0.346	1
b3. Education & training	0.050				b3	0.329	2
c1. Customer focused	0.054	C. Market orientation	0.162	5	c1	0.335	1
c2. Monitor competitors	0.054				c2	0.333	2
c3. Integrated coordination	0.054				c3	0.332	3
d1. Exploratory learning	0.056	D. Absorptive capacity	0.166	3	d1	0.337	1
d2. Transformative learning	0.054				d2	0.327	3
d3. Exploitative learning	0.056				d3	0.336	2
e1. Product innovations	0.037	E. Innovations	0.182	1	e1	0.201	2
e2. Service innovations	0.037				e2	0.203	1
e3. Process innovations	0.037				e3	0.201	3
e4. Management innovations	0.036				e4	0.197	5
e5. Marketing innovations	0.036				e5	0.198	4
f1. Sales growth	0.059	F. Performance	0.173	2	f1	0.340	1
f2. Operation profit	0.056				f2	0.321	3
f3. Overall impression	0.059				f3	0.339	2

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Due to fierce competition in the restaurant industry, in order to maintain a competitive advantage, innovation has become an important and necessary task for new entrepreneurs. Although empirical studies have been published in the past, the positional advantage has a significant impact on restaurant performance (Jogaratnam, 2017). However, there are quite a few influential factors and their relations for innovations entrepreneurship of restaurant need to be discovered. In the past, traditional methods such as applying statistics

(adding items) to analyze and evaluate entrepreneurial impact indicators are relatively simple, they cannot reflect real situation. In response to this shortcoming, this study combines FDM and DEMATEL, and which is suitable for solving multiple problems of innovation entrepreneurship restaurant. The results of this research offer the references for innovation entrepreneurs to make effective innovation strategy planning and maintain competitive advantage in the future. Finally, in terms of research limitations, this study only uses expert survey data to assess innovation entrepreneurship of restaurants. For future researches different

attribute research subjects and extended or cross-validation in other industry can be investigated. Despite the limitations, the study provides new insights into the relationship between innovations and entrepreneurship.

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A RELIGIOUS PERSPECTIVE ON FOOD WASTE PREVENTION

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ABSTRACT

Former literature have found that religiosity could guide individuals' consumption attitudes and behaviors (Engelland, 2014). However, knowledge gaps still exist in clarifying how an individual's food waste behavior is formed and how an individual's food waste can be prevented. This study aims to explain the formation of food waste from the aspect of an individual's religious belief. In Taiwanese society, religious beliefs and attitudes influence individuals' food attitudes and behaviors. Targeting organic food consumption in Taiwan, Teng and Lu (2016) found that only 24.3% respondents were irreligion and 57.4% of the overall participants (N = 457) had a religion (e.g., Buddhism, Taoism, Yiguandao, and folk religion), which highly associated with the karma theory (Clooney, 1989). Religious concepts of divine retribution and divine reward are commonly applied by elders to educate younger generations the importance to cherish food and to prevent food waste. One example of the divine retribution is that Taiwanese children are taught to finish up their plate otherwise they will marry someone with an ugly face in the future. The

concept of divine reward in food is written in several Buddhism stories, in which people who cherish food and share leftovers to those who are in need will receive blessing and fortune as divine reward. Based on the religious perspective, a theoretical model, including constructs of religious beliefs, religious food waste attitude, religious food waste prevention practices, and sense of religious community, is proposed and examined in this study.

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MEXICO'S PERCEIVED MEDICAL TOURISM HEALTHCARE QUALITY: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF INTERNATIONAL PATIENTS' ONLINE TESTIMONIALS

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INTRODUCTION

Medical tourism is a rapidly growing global niche market. According to consulting firm PwC, the global medical tourism market was estimated to be worth US\$ 68 billion in 2016 and was expected to reach US\$ 125 billion by the end of 2021, a compound annual growth rate of 12.95% (Altstedter, 2018). Due to its strong growth and positive future outlook, medical tourism has been recognized by many countries as a potential sector for economic diversification and growth (Beladi, Chao, Ee, & Hollas, 2017; Connell, 2013; Ganguli & Ebrahim, 2017). Mexico is one of these countries. According to the Mexico Tourism Board, since 2006, the number of medical travelers to Mexico has nearly doubled to more than one million each year (Figuroa, 2014), and Mexico's earnings from medical tourism have risen sharply as well, increasing from \$544 million in 2006 to \$4.7 billion in 2016 (Taylor, 2017). The majority of medical travelers to Mexico are reportedly from the U.S., especially border states (e.g., Arizona, California and Texas), seeking easy access to affordable dental care and cosmetic surgery (Patients Beyond Borders, 2018). However, patients from Canada and the U.K. are also drawn to the region due to the lack of waiting times from overburdened public healthcare systems and the lure of warm winter weather (Patients Beyond Borders, 2018).

Despite Mexico's growing presence in the medical tourism industry, concerns remain about the quality of care provided to international patients, especially, in border towns (e.g., Tijuana) and beach resorts (e.g., Cancun) (Medical Travel Quality Alliance, 2015). According to the Medical Tourism Index (2016), Mexico scored below average on the quality of facility and services dimension, which

assesses the quality of care within a medical tourism destination country based on factors such as doctors' expertise, healthcare standards, and medical equipment, reputation of doctors and hospitals, internationalization of staff, accreditation of facilities, and overall patient experience for example friendliness of staff and doctors.

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to use Lee's (2017) HEALTHQUAL framework to ascertain the perceived healthcare quality dimensions, i.e., empathy, tangibles, safety, efficiency, and patient outcomes, conveyed in online testimonials of medical tourists who traveled to Mexico for medical care. To date, the authors have not identified any studies in the medical tourism literature that have investigated this research topic.

METHOD

Content analysis of 238 international patient testimonials posted on a Mexico-based medical tourism facilitator's website was used to determine the HEALTHQUAL dimensions communicated in the testimonials. The five dimensions are defined in Table 1. Data were collected from the website in 2018. All of the testimonials analyzed in this research were posted by patients who had travelled to Cancun, Mexico for cosmetic surgery and booked their surgery trip through the facilitator. Testimonials from a medical tourism facilitator's website served as the study's data since medical tourism facilitators play a key role in patients' decisions to travel abroad for medical care (Cormany & Baloglu, 2011; Hohm & Snyder, 2015; Mohamad, Omar, & Haron, 2012). The testimonials were coded following the approach used by Guiry & Vega (2015) to examine medical tourism service quality dimensions communicated in online

testimonials. Frequency distributions were calculated to determine the most common

HEALTHQUAL dimensions communicated in the testimonials.

Table 1. Definitions of HEALTHQUAL Dimensions*

Dimension	Definition
Empathy	Degree of recognizing the patient's situation during the care treatment by medical staff as an indication of personal interests in individual patients.
Tangibles	The use of equipment and the physical environment, including the cleanliness of employees and the hospital, to provide proper care services.
Safety	The level of skilled and knowledgeable staff, confidence in provided services, and safe environmental aspects.
Efficiency	Degree of processes and operational efficiency to provide more convenient services and appropriateness of cost for medical services provided.
Patient Outcomes	Degree of medical staff and patients' efforts, suitability of care service, and communications with patients to achieve effective treatments and improve results of care treatment.

*Lee (2017)

FINDINGS

Testimonial Characteristics.

All of the testimonials are very positive with words such as amazing, wonderful, great, excellent, awesome, very happy, exceptional, the best, very pleased, and fantastic being used to describe the medical tourist's experience. The year the treatment occurred was noted in all of the testimonials. Twenty-three percent of the treatments happened in 2015, 21% in 2016, 18% in 2017, 18% in 2014, 17% in 2018, and 3% in 2013. The medical tourist's gender could be determined for 220 of the testimonials with 84% written by females and 16% by males. The medical tourist's home country could be ascertained for 214 of the testimonials with U.S. (56%), Canada (35%), and U.K. (3%) being the most frequently cited home countries. The type of cosmetic surgery procedure received was mentioned in 231 of the testimonials with the six most common procedures being facelift (17%), tummy tuck (17%), liposuction (15%), breast augmentation (13%), breast lift with augmentation (8%), and rhinoplasty (8%). Healthcare provider personnel were mentioned in 83% of the testimonials with doctors (69%) being mentioned most often followed by nurses (41%). Thirty-one percent of the testimonials stated a willingness to return to Mexico for medical care while 53% of the testimonials recommended Mexico as a medical tourism destination.

HEALTHQUAL Dimensions.

Of the five HEALTHQUAL dimensions, safety and empathy were most frequently mentioned by medical tourists with 91% and 90% of the testimonials, respectively, conveying these facets. The other three dimensions, i.e., efficiency (67%), patient outcomes (41%), and tangibles (22%), were referred to less often. Example testimonials for each HEALTHQUAL dimension are shown in Table 2.

IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study was to provide a first-person perspective of Mexico's medical tourism healthcare quality by analyzing international patients' online testimonials to determine the primary HEALTHQUAL dimensions associated with traveling to Mexico for medical care. The study's results indicate that medical tourists have distinct perceptions of Mexico's healthcare quality with safety and empathy being the strongest healthcare quality associations followed by efficiency, patient outcomes, and tangibles in that order. The prevalence of the safety and empathy dimensions may be the result of medical care being high in credence and experience qualities (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Ramsaran-Fowdar, 2005; Zeithaml, 1981), and consumers tending to rely on the functional aspects of the service delivery process (e.g., knowledge and courtesy of healthcare personnel and their ability

to convey trust and confidence) when evaluating healthcare service quality since, in general, they lack the expertise to evaluate technical quality (e.g., accuracy of a medical diagnosis) (Babakus & Mangold, 1992; Ramsaran-Fowdar, 2005; Wong, 2002). Given the various risks associated with being a medical tourist (Crooks, Kingsbury, Snyder, & Johnston, 2010; Khan, Chelliah, Haron, & Ahmed, 2017), the pervasiveness of the safety and empathy dimensions in the testimonials may also be due to

these dimensions being linked to patients' risk perceptions before receiving medical care (Etgar & Fuchs, 2009). If medical tourists focus on the safety and empathy aspects of their experiences then they may perceive these experiences as less risky (Etgar & Fuchs, 2009). We therefore suggest that Mexico medical tourism providers focus on communicating these dimensions when marketing their medical tourism services, especially the qualities of healthcare provider personnel.

Table 2. Example HEALTHQUAL Dimension Testimonials*

Dimension	Testimonial Example
Empathy	They are all so <u>caring, responsive, supportive, and friendly.</u>
Tangibles	I actually found the hospital to be <u>more sanitary</u> than hospitals in North America. It was <u>pristine, modern, and well-equipped.</u>
Safety	He's <u>very knowledgeable</u> and <u>made me feel 100% confident</u> in his ability to perform the surgery.
Efficiency	The Patient Concierge made <u>everything work in sync</u> and <u>on schedule.</u>
Patient Outcomes	I am <u>thrilled with the results</u> , my <u>new breasts look amazing</u> and are <u>exactly what I wanted.</u>

*Underlined text highlights the dimension being communicated.

The HEALTHQUAL dimensions represent criteria consumers use in selecting and evaluating healthcare providers (Lee, 2017). Hence, medical tourism providers need to consider the healthcare quality perceptions of the destination country when planning brand communication and promotion programs to design messages that not only reflect the healthcare quality the destination has to offer but also resonate with their target markets. The results also suggest medical tourism providers should recognize the importance of medical tourists' desire to reduce risk before, during, and after treatment, and the potential use by medical tourists of healthcare quality perceptions as indicators of such risks (Chen & Chang, 2005; Etgar & Fuchs, 2009). Thus, they should incorporate risk-reducing cues in the ways and formats in which medical tourism services are provided, in the modes in which healthcare personnel interact with the patients, in websites and other forms of marketing communication, and even in the tangible aspects of the provision of these medical services (Chen & Chang, 2005; Etgar & Fuchs, 2009).

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CREATING A HIGH-QUALITY LEARNING ENVIRONMENT FOR FOOD AND BEVERAGE DEPARTMENT STUDENTS IN A VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL

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INTRODUCTION

With the vigorous development and rapid growth of tourism and the hospitality industry in Taiwan, tourism and hospitality trends and the demand for professional talents have increased. In order to respond to social and market trends, tourism and hospitality departments in universities continuously launch related departments. In the concern for social change and workplace demands, many senior high schools and vocational schools have introduced visionary and practical tourism and hospitality programs, within tourism departments and food and beverage departments. Vocational and technological education is critical in regard to the economic and social development of Taiwan. Vocational high school education must respond to future manpower demand and successively adjust cultivation objectives of talents. Thus, determining how to regulate and reinforce vocational high school courses, teachers, facilities and instruction to cope with manpower demand of future economic development in Taiwan and provide high-quality vocational high schools to recruit the students in the neighborhood on the base of the twelve-year compulsory education has become an current important issue of reform in vocational high schools. In order to implement balanced and homogeneous development of vocational high schools in different regions, and create more high-quality schools, since the 2007 academic year, the Ministry of Education has promoted “high-quality assistance programs of senior high schools” and “excellence assistance programs of vocational high schools” to assist schools with construction outstanding characteristics. Based on school evaluations as the basic threshold, it implemented a system of “excellence certification of secondary schools” to achieve excellence and homogeneity in school innovation characteristics and dynamics in order to carry out adaptive instruction for students and

enhance students’ recognition, validate teachers’ professional contribution and guarantee featured brands of schools. This study aims to explore the relationship between the demand for an excellent learning environment and the satisfaction of vocational high school students in a food and beverage department.

RESEARCH METHOD

With a literature review and interviews with teachers and students, this study obtained items in the evaluation implementation of vocational high schools, as indicators of a high-quality learning environment in order to explore the difference in food and beverage department students’ demands for an outstanding learning environment and their satisfaction. By the three measures, indicators of learning environment were collected to design questionnaire items. Three teachers in a food and beverage department who were interviewed had at least 15 years of professional food and beverage teaching experience. Representatives of students were six senior students of vocational high schools.

To probe into learning factors of food and beverage department students concerning a high-quality learning environment and the relationship between the learning environment and the learning outcome, via a questionnaire, this study generalizes the difference between a food and beverage department students’ demand for a high-quality learning environment and their satisfaction. The questionnaire is based on three sections. The first section is personal basic information; In Sections 2 and Section 3 of questionnaire, a Likert-type Five Point Scale scored the demand for an excellent learning environment and students’ satisfaction. Thus, it was used to analyze the importance of a high-quality learning environment for food and beverage department students, and the difference in satisfaction. The

questionnaire survey was based on convenience sampling and the subjects were senior food and beverage department students of vocational high schools in Northern Taiwan. This study distributed 500 formal questionnaires and retrieved 500 valid ones. The return rate was 100%. IPA analysis was conducted by Excel.

CONCLUSION and SUGGESTIONS

A high quality learning environment of students in the F&B department of vocational high schools can be generalized as six dimensions: “environment and planning facility”, “organizational measures”, “teachers’ instructional content”, “teachers’ course design”, “interpersonal interaction” and “social atmosphere”.

This study found that the ranking of demand for a learning environment is “environment and planning facility”, “teachers’ course design”, “interpersonal interaction”, “organizational measures”, “social atmosphere” and “teachers’ instructional content” sequentially; ranking of satisfaction is “teachers’ course design”,

“interpersonal interaction”, “social atmosphere”, “teachers’ instructional content”, “organizational measures” and “environment and planning measures”, sequentially.

Regarding the 6 dimensions, demand and satisfaction in the t test showed significant difference. By IPA, among the 6 dimensions of demand for a learning environment and satisfaction, the items of 2 dimensions fell within quadrant 1: teachers’ course design and interpersonal interaction. It shows that the demand for a very good learning environment was high; however, their satisfaction was also high. It means that the dimensions should be maintained; items which fell in quadrant 2 refers to one dimension: social atmosphere. The demand was low and satisfaction was overly high. It means that the supply is excessive; items in quadrant 3 refer to two dimensions: organizational measures and teachers’ instructional content. Demand and satisfaction were low; items in quadrant 4 refer to one dimension: environment and planning facility. Demand was high, but satisfaction was low. It is the priority for improvement (Figure 1).

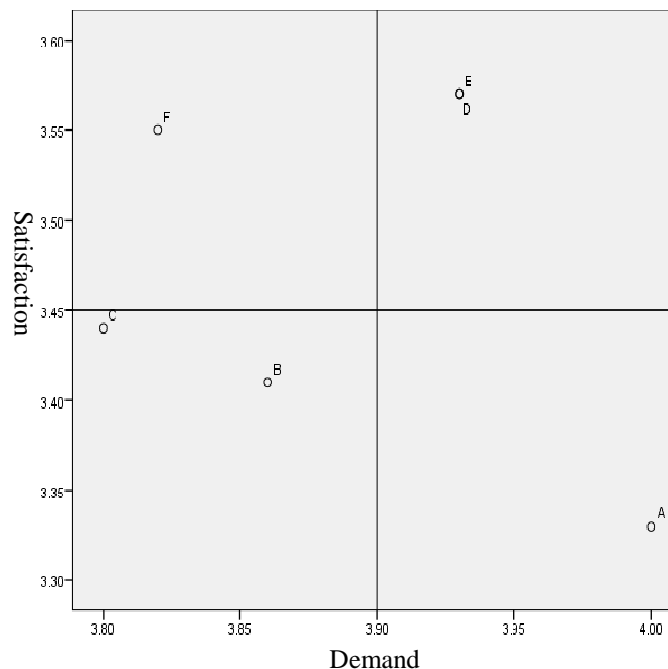


Figure 1. Demand map of total dimensions of students’ demand and satisfaction for learning environment

Description:

- A. Environment and planning facility
- B. Organizational measures
- C. Teachers’ instructional content

- D. Teachers’ course design
- E. Interpersonal interaction
- F. Social atmosphere

Planning for a high-quality learning environment will enhance students' learning motivation. Software and hardware factors, such as an appropriate teaching environment and facility, school administrative support, proper treatment in emergencies and interaction between teachers and students, influence students' learning intention and effectiveness. Construction of an excellent learning environment where students enjoy learning is the common objective of educators and learners. In vocational schools, practice facilities are the priority. The lack of instructional resources directly influences students' individual learning opportunities and lowers their learning outcome. According to the research findings, "environment and planning facility" falls within the zone of reinforced improvement. Use frequency of the practice place for food and beverage is high, and teaching facilities and implements can be damaged easily. Dimensions such as "sufficient number of instructional facility", "maintenance of equipment", "maintenance of facility", "space planning", "decoration and cleaning", "environmental hygiene" and "environmental comfort" in relation to the learning environment should be strengthened to guarantee teachers' and students' safety during course activities. The schools should continually improve teaching equipment and provide a positive learning environment for students to enhance their learning effectiveness. A high-quality educational environment requires the engagement of an excellent administration group. It should stimulate curriculum development, plan characteristics, provide academic assistance and consultation service for students, and smooth communication with students in the administrative process to accelerate consultation service and efficiency for students and administration. Dimensions of environment and planning facility fell within the zone of reinforced improvement. The items related to instructional equipment, facility maintenance, environmental hygiene, cleaning and environmental decorations should be immediately improved. Schools should regularly purchase or repair instructional equipment and simplify the application procedure of administration business. Administration units of schools should re-evaluate environmental hygiene, cleaning and decorations to meet management measures of practice places, maintenance of teaching equipment and quality and

amount of teaching equipment to create a high-quality learning environment, enhance the learning atmosphere and effectively upgrade educational quality. For instance, the subjects expect the schools to design work windows to display students' excellent work or present news related to food and beverage. Besides, they can construct one small-scale atelier (for the use of design and research) for the candidates of competitions or students with remarkable academic and behavioral performance for the use of individual or group research and to develop the characteristics of the food and beverage department. It will result in the construction of a campus with diverse learning and sustainable operation.

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UNDERSTANDING THE U.S. YOUNG CONSUMER' S SUSTAINABLE FOOD CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOURS: AN EXTENSION OF ENGEL, KOLLAT, & BLACKWELL MODEL

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INTRODUCTION

Today, understanding the sustainable lifestyle has reshaped human life around the globe (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2005). This new kind of philosophy can be referred to as knowledge and behaviour for sustainability. Humans understand the impact of their activities on the Earth through the contradiction between economic development and environmental conservation, and they are also aware that if they maintain their consumption patterns, environmental damage will be more and more severe. Therefore, an eco-friendlier food consuming behaviour should be seen as leading towards sustainable development, rather than conservation and reducing practices (Jackson, 2009; Mont & Power, 2010).

Current mainstream traditional food plant practices, animal husbandry, and fish capture methods are destructive to the environment (Goodall, 2006; Hawken, Lovins, & Lovins, 1999). Positive human dining behaviours that would be environmentally beneficial are primarily (a) the promotion of policies to reduce food miles (the distance food travels to market), and of local and organic food movements, and (b) a low carbon diet that takes into account the effects of recent carbon dioxide greenhouse gas emissions. These trends are intended to limit the ecological damage caused by personal eating habits and the restaurant industry in general, both directly and indirectly; therefore, these actions can be categorized "sustainable food consumption."

Given the future picture for the development of sustainable food consumption, two concepts are essential: (a) the responsibility of agriculture production for the highest environmental impact and how it can be influenced by consumption patterns

(European Environment Agency, 2005; Massari, 2003; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2002), and (b) its relation to young consumers (Hume, 2010; Lee, 2008; Noble, Haytio, & Phillips, 2009; Tan & Lau, 2009; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008). Dealing with food sustainability, purchasing products that have a reduced environmental impact (e.g., organic, locally-produced food, or fair trade products, pasteurized eggs, and meat) have been identified as crucial contributors to numerous ecological problems (Gilg, Barr, & Ford, 2005; Zepeda & Li, 2006). Buy-local systems are the best way to minimize agriculture-related emissions (Avery & Avery, 2008).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The present study focuses on understanding American college students' purchasing and consumption behaviours regarding local-sourcing menu items in the restaurant industry. The primary effort in this study, therefore, is to use the Engel, Kollat, & Blackwell Model (EKB Model) to understand American college students' purchasing and consumption behaviours regarding local-sourcing menu items in the restaurant industry. Also, this study hopes to provide a guide for restaurants, and educational organizations in making strategies to improve market competitiveness and acceptability of locally sourced food products, and to achieve the goal of promoting green consumption and sustainable development.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Theories of consumer decision-making processes assume that the consumer's purchase decision consists of steps through which the buyer

passes in buying a product or service. According to Solomon (2010), consumer behaviour is a complex study of the processes involved when individuals or groups select, purchase, use, or dispose of products, services, ideas, or experiences to satisfy needs and desires.

This study attempts to explore factors in the context of American college students' decision-making behaviours when dining in a locally-sourced restaurant based on the EKB Model. Utilization of this model offers several advantages: (a) explanations are provided for practice. It is possible to grasp visually what happens as variables, and circumstances change, (b) a frame of reference is provided for research, gaps in knowledge and understanding become readily apparent, and research priorities can be established. It also is possible to relate individual research projects to one another, and (c) a foundation is provided for management information systems. Proper use of this model discloses the kinds of information required to understand differing consumer decision processes and provides essential insights for marketing strategy.

METHODOLOGY

Sample selection

The first important decision of the research design relates to sample selection. According to Heffner (2012), a sample is defined as “a subset of a target population that is used to represent the entire group as a whole (p.19)” which the study results are intended to apply, and researchers are interested in generalizing, concerning the conclusions. The sample selection can include a broad range of populations and involve the decision to focus on a particular population. The sampling target populations for this study will be individuals between the ages of 18 and 25 years of age and enrolled in a U.S. college or university (N=301). The study sample is self-selected college students from one major state-supported university in Midwest. An instrument will be developed based on previous research findings. A response rate of 70% (N=210) is desired to conduct statistical analysis.

Sample size

There are several guidelines to estimate sample

size for quantitative research. According to Bailey (1994), experienced researchers regard a sample size of 100 survey respondents as the minimum for large populations. Nunnally (1978) recommends an item-analysis decision guideline: the “ideal sample size should be five to ten times the number of items in the instrument; however, any case five subjects per item on the instrument should be considered the minimum that can be tolerated (p.279).” The sample size for this study will be determined based on Nunnally's (1978) recommendation of five to ten subjects per instrument item. There is a total of 43 scale items on the survey; therefore, based on item analysis the recommended minimum sample size (five to one ratio) is N=215, and the maximum sample size (ten to one ratio) is N=430. However, due to the research budget, this study will be aimed at maximum practical a sample size of (seven to one ratio) (N=301).

Data analysis

In this study, quantitative procedures will be employed to analyse the data. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 23.0 (SPSS 23.0) will be used to perform statistical tests and determine reliability levels. All statistical tests will be considered significant at a level of .05. Factor analysis will be conducted to assess the validity of instrument scales (Green & Salkind, 2005; Vogt, 2005). The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's) alpha will be calculated to assess the internal consistency of the measurement scales. Descriptive statistics, including frequency distributions, means, standard deviations, and standard errors will be calculated to describe the sample.

LIMITATIONS

Due to the geographic and sample size for the present study, it is suggested to include diversified geographic groups and on a larger scale in the future; such as sampling college students located in the East, West, or the Northern parts of the United States. Further comparison of different groups of local food consumers from different cultures, nationalities, ethnicities, social groups, or age groups will also be undertaken.

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PHYSIOLOGICAL MEASURES OF EMOTION IN TOURISM: VENTURING OUTSIDE THE LAB SETTING

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INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Technological advancements that allow for the objective measurement of psychological processes that cannot be reliably assessed using traditional survey techniques are changing the way tourism researchers' measure tourist emotions (Li, Walters, Packer and Scott, 2017). While self-report measures of emotion have until recently dominated studies that focus on tourist responses to various stimulus, the application of sophisticated lab based methods that allow for 'real time' emotional measurement is enhancing the reliability and validity of research in this field (Wood and Jepson, 2018. Li et al, 2017). However, the majority of tourism studies to date have taken place in a tightly controlled laboratory setting despite the fact that a number of these technologies now have portability. In tourism, consumer experiences are difficult to simulate in a lab setting and being able to collect physiological data in the field presents significant opportunities in regard to understanding how tourists engage emotionally with tourism experiences. However, according to Alajmi, Kanjo, Mawass and Chamberlain (2013) the external environment poses significant issues for field work that uses such methods due to noise and other unexpected situations. The aim of this paper is to explore the issues that tourism researchers may face when attempting to utilise three physiological measures of emotion in the field. These include Empatica 4 (E4 Wristbands); Electrodermal Activity (EDA) and Electroencephalogram (EEG).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Wristband Devices

Wristband devices such as Empatica 4¹⁾ (E4)

are wearable devices capable of detecting physiological responses such as blood volume pulse, acceleration, heart rate, as well as Galvanic Skin Response (EDA) – all of which are indicators of emotional arousal. Wood and Jepson (2018) provide an excellent example of the application of the E4 in their recent tourism study that explored tourist emotion in a leisure setting. In this study, the authors developed new methodological approaches to investigate emotion and memory creation. The E4 wristband was utilized to capture the 'unadulterated' emotional response both during the experience and when the respondents reflected back on the experience. They combined this data with post experience narrative discussion groups using photos and other artefacts to gain a further understanding of the process of collective memory creation. They found EDA (electrodermal activity) tracking could enhance qualitative research methodologies in three ways, first through use as an 'artefact' to prompt reflection on feelings, second, through identifying peaks of emotional intensity and three, through highlighting changes in emotional response over time. Shoval, Schivimer and Tamir (2018) have also explored this method in their study that systematically mapped the emotional characteristics of a large-scale urban environment using aggregative measures of emotion. Emotional experience of individuals through real-time surveys was administered through Experience Sampling Methods (ESM) and E4 was used to collect the same physiological responses as mentioned above.

The E4 Wristband is the simplest wearable device to use in studies wishing to collect physiological data. Its portability and non-intrusive features make this the most practical device to administer outside a laboratory setting. The E4 wristband and other wearable devices are also very

1) 1. E4 wristband Available online: <https://www.empatica.com/research/e4/>.

economical with the costs ranging from \$40 US to \$190US per piece. This enables researchers to purchase multiple devices that subsequently allows us to collect multiple responses at the same time. However, when compared with the some of the other devices available, the data units are somewhat less reliable than the devices designed for specific physiological responses such as galvanic skin response sensors and EEG.

The use of this device in the field however does present issues in terms of the possible interference of climatic conditions and other environmental factors that outside a lab setting are beyond the researchers control. For example, temperature – warm temperatures will impact skin conductance, and terrain – lots of hills or stairs will lead to an acceleration of heart rate. We advise that researchers ensure they have adequately planned for such extraneous influences ensuring that the location or experience under investigation has been adequately marked out and the climatic conditions noted to allow researchers to monitor and control for any peaks or troughs in emotional response that are not due to the stimulus. Triangulation is another approach researchers could take using surveys or interviews to get a better interpretation of why and when these peaks occurred. The E4 Wristband is equipped with a marker function that allows respondents to push a button when they arrive at or are exploring the various points of interest to the research. This is also useful when planning and marking out the experience or location where the data collection will take place.

Electroencephalogram - EEG

Electroencephalogram, otherwise referred to as EEG, directly detects brain waves from the central nervous system (Zhai et al. 2005; Chanel et al. 2011). Compared to the other emotional response measures that target the peripheral nervous system, EEG. EEG is argued as being superior to other emotional measures such as EDA, HR and BVP. This is because central nervous system activities can represent emotional valence (e.g., displeasure vs. pleasure) in addition to emotion intensity (Zhai et al. 2005; Chanel et al. 2011). EEG records the electrical signal along the scalp produced by the action of neurons within the brain, which can be measured using electrodes attached to the scalp. Emotional State Measurement Using Frontal

EEG Asymmetry Calculation has been effectively used to understand diverse levels of emotional states through significant correlation with EEG power (i.e., amount of energy of the signal per unit time). EEG data features used to measure valence and arousal levels and label emotions include power spectral density (PSD) that are correlated with alpha (8–13 Hz) and/or beta (13–30 Hz) frequency ranges (Lewis et al. 2007; Blaiech et al. 2013; Hou et al. 2015). While, statistical descriptors such as means and measures of variability have also been used to describe emotional activity (see for example; Takahashi 2004; Liu and Sourina 2014; Hou et al. 2015).

Until recently, most studies using EEG have been limited to a laboratory environment. This is primarily due to the risk of data contamination that can occur from diverse sources of signal noise (e.g. eye movement, respiration and muscle movement) Jung et al (2000). In addition the wired connectivity and delicate nature of the equipment has made EEG difficult to use outside of a clinical setting. Recent advancements in the technology behind EEG sensors have resulted in portable, wireless wearable devices that allow for the measurement of EEG emotional signals in the field. However, typically such devices have lower signal resolutions and are highly subject to background noise which has presented as a major obstacle to their use in the field. Hwang et al (2018) refer to data contamination as comprising both extrinsic and intrinsic artefacts. Extrinsic artefacts are the noises generated from outside the human body such as noise from the setting in which the research is taking place or noise associated with the equipment. Intrinsic artefacts are created within the body of the subject and include eye movements, facial muscle contractions and blinking. When subjects are stationary such noise is limited.

Jebelli, Hwang and Lee (2018) addressed this issue by successfully testing an EEG signal processing framework using construction workers on site to acquire high quality EEG signals that reflect workers emotional states. This framework corrects both extrinsic and intrinsic artifacts from the raw EEG signals obtained from subjects in the field and is able to extract relevant data only. It is this framework that could be of use to tourism researchers wishing to measure the emotional states of tourists while experiencing the destination and

or local attractions.

Galvanic Skin Response Sensors

Electrodermal activity (EDA) is measured by galvanic skin response sensors, that determine human skin resistance under different psychological conditions. These sensors also detect a change in physical attributes marking a state of being which includes heart rate and sweat measurements (Taggart et al., 2016). Sweat glands are controlled by the sympathetic nervous system. A change in the electrical resistance of the skin is from a physiochemical response to emotional stimulation that has occurred as a result of a change in sympathetic nervous system activity. Thus, the device is able to determine emotional responses to external stimuli. Until recently, most tourism research that has explored EDA have done so within a lab environment (See for example, Brodien, Walters and Li, 2018: and Li et al, 2017). However, both hardware and software developments that enable portable wireless devices now allow for this to occur in the field. Experiments can be conducted in the field using wireless EDA devices. Emotions are monitored via the attachment of two reusable electrodes that measure skin conductivity to two fingers.

Previous studies have shown that EDA can be measured reliably in a field setting. For example, Tröndle et al. (2014) conducted a study on museum experience in the context of a fine art museum that is open to the public and recruited museum visitors as participants. They found significant associations between physiological responses and aesthetic evaluations and their subjects reported little reactivity toward the technical equipment. In this case, the indoor setting may have allowed for the control of climatic conditions that may influence body temperature – this would not be the case if the research was to be conducted outdoors. A further challenge of capturing EDA outside a lab setting is that unlike the wristband technology that allows for the data to be gathered remotely, the researcher does need to be present and close to participants for the portable EDA equipment to work. According to Webster, (1997) researcher presence in the field may influence respondent behaviour. The fact that this apparatus needs to be attached to their fingers is also more intrusive than a wristband, which may also result in experimental effects impinging on the

results of the study. While the majority of studies outside of tourism that have attempted to measure EDA in the field have used the wristband technology (see for example Hwang and Lee, 2017; Ghosh, Danieli and Riccardi, 2015), guidelines for the use of EDA methodology emphasize the importance of sensitive equipment and accurate analysis (LaBarbera and Tucciarone, 1995). Finally, science suggests that for optimal data quality, devices made purely for the measurement of electrodermal activity and respond to the smallest variation in arousal yield the most reliable results (Groepel-Klein and Baun; 2001).

The presentation at APTA will extend on the themes above and provide the audience with recommendations and best practice examples of how this equipment can be applied in tourism research both within and outside of a laboratory setting.

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LOCALS AS SUBJECTS: EXPLORING PHOTOGRAPHS SHARED BY VOLUNTEER TOURISTS

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INTRODUCTION

Volunteer tourism has received much criticism within the literature. While positives have been reported in relation to the practice, there tends to be a focus on the neglect of locals' desires and involvement, the hindering of progress through volunteer involvement, decreasing employment opportunities for locals, cultural changes to the area, and lack of long-term consideration (Guttentag, 2010). Furthermore, much of the focus has been on the volunteers and their experience (e.g. Andereck, McGehee, Lee, & Clemmons, 2012), rather than the host community. The focus on volunteers has resulted in the proposition of two key motivations, altruistic and self-interest (Wearing, 2013), reinforcing two contrasting perspectives of the market: commodified versus decommodified, in which volunteer tourism can be explored in terms of purely giving back, or as a market venture (Coren & Gray, 2011; Wearing, 2013). Thus, the importance of volunteer tourism, and the effect it has on communities, is crucial to understand given significant increases within the sector.

The development and critique of volunteer tourism 'market' perspectives can raise potential issues when considering Satz' (2010) discussion of noxious markets. A noxious market is a market in which there is a power asymmetry between the stakeholders involved, which is perceived within the volunteer tourism sector. When evaluating the presence of a noxious market, Satz (2010) proposed a four parameter test. The first two parameters revolve around the consequences. These consequences could be harmful outcomes to individuals, but also the society in general. To Satz the operation of such markets can undermine the social frameworks needed for people to interact as equals, as individuals with equal standing. In that

category, she also includes "markets that condition people to be docile or servile, shape them into passive acceptors of a status quo" (Satz, 2010, p. 94). More recently comparisons could be drawn to the impact of social media, and the commodification of 'likes'. The third parameter proposed by Satz places emphasis on agency. There are some markets that are categorized by very weak agency, or highly asymmetric knowledge on the part of the participants and stakeholders within a noxious market. In the case of volunteer tourism some of the direct participants lack important knowledge of the terms of the outcomes of the activity they have entered into, and this could lead to negative outcomes. Such agent failure has been identified, especially in product markets that target children or in products that are based on deception, even when there is no serious harm. The fourth parameter focuses on extreme vulnerability of the transacting agents/ parties, and it dismisses as noxious any transactions where the economic power of transacting parties is too disparate. It is understood that such disparity could render the weaker party exploitable as in the transaction they are vulnerable to accepting any term at any price, which could have implications for volunteer tourism.

Yet, regardless of the impact, tourists still seek an authentic experience. The cycle of striving for an authentic experience is vicious. The tourist pursues authenticity, and decides to explore the 'real' destination, capturing this on their camera. This results in 'authentic' encounters. In some cases, as they enter the setting they are immediately recognized as a tourist. Instantly they are treated differently, through offerings of goods or services for purchase. This ends their authentic experience and the search to find authenticity starts again. However, it can be said that a tourist will always be seen to be a tourist, and therefore confirms McLeod's statement (2006, p. 178): "the very of

act of being a tourist is to consume inauthentic products”.

Furthermore, the physical setting where the role of the tourist is performed is discussed by Urry (1990) as the tourist gaze. Not confined to what is seen the tourist gaze is constructed by the collection and consumption of a series of multi-sensuous signs and stimuli within a particular physical environment (Perkins & Thorns, 2001). Accordingly then, the tourist gaze is a filter between the tourists' interpretations of what is represented as reality within a particular space (Dyson, 2010). For example, in respect to labour aesthetics in hospitality, hosts swaying from convention, perhaps represented as ethnic or rugged in appearance may imply access to the authentic backspace (Goffman, 1959; Baum, 2007). Yet, tourists are not always considered passive observers within the tourist gaze but in fact players in a scene. Interaction with locals can contribute to the experience it can have an effect on the experience of other tourists sharing the space at that time (Maoz, 2006). However, more ambiguities can arise when locals who have not consented to being cast in the performance, may find the gaze of the tourist intrusive.

To capture this scene, tourists are reliant on photography, and in many cases share such photographs through social media. Consideration of the ethics regarding photographs taken by tourists has been outlined within the literature, addressing the “seemingly fleeting relationships between tourists and host communities that emerge during photographic encounters” (Scarles, 2013). Often met with a feeling of shame at being exposed as a typical camera wearing tourist, the reverse gaze describes the moment locals react to the tourists' behavior (Gillespie, 2006). Scarles (2013) outlined important elements for discussion, including the need to ask permission, rights to privacy, presentation (or misrepresentation) of subjects, and potential payment. However, there is also the need to consider the impact that the sharing of these images may have, and the level of understanding held by subjects within this practice.

METHOD

The purpose of this study was to explore the use of subjects within photographs shared by

volunteer tourists. Volunteer tourists were chosen given the perceived asymmetry of the market, as well as the push for community involvement as many of the tourists strive for authenticity. This study was conducted as a supporting study, and as such the objective of this specific element was to better understand what roles locals played in the online story telling of volunteer tourists. Instagram was chosen as it relies more on photographic posts with an average of 95 million posts shared daily in 2016 (Abutaleb, 2016; Alhabash & Ma, 2017). To identify volunteer tourists for this study hashtags of volunteer tourism organisations were used as a basis for the sample. Four organisations were chosen (#ivhq; #originalvolunteers; #projectsabroad; #unitedplanet) and the most recent 1,000 posts were chosen for analysis, however #unitedplanet only had 769 available. Of the 3,769 photographs 660 were removed for various reasons, given the focus on photographs shared by volunteer tourists, including: duplication of photographs (e.g. throwbacks), those not related to the organization/ volunteer tourism; advertisements, motivational quotes, and videos. This resulted in a sample of 3,109.

FINDINGS

Photographs were coded into categories, and it was found that the majority of photographs included in volunteers (84%). Further coding of photographs required the researchers to identify whether the subject was posed or not. Those photographs including volunteers were predominantly coded as posed, as subjects were aware their photograph was being taken (86%). In many cases this occurred during involvement within the volunteer activity. Another consideration was to examine photographs that focused on the host community. Categories were coded into a dichotomous variable: 1) locals (including an adult in the picture); and 2) local children only. Examining photographs of locals without the volunteers (excluding the children only category) it was found that the majority were not posed (61%). The children only category (68% posed) was found to differ significantly from the photographs including adults (see figure 1), as confirmed through a chi-square (X^2)

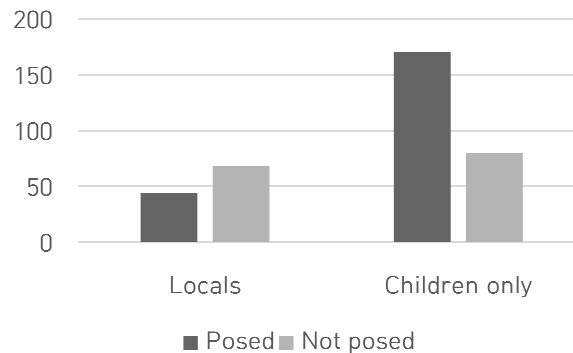


Figure 1. Posed versus not posed when considering locals in photographs shared.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to better understand the role locals played in the online stories shared by volunteer tourists. It is important to understand the impact volunteer tourists have on local communities, and the effect this has not only on the community, but the role of volunteer tourism organisations in this exchange. Exploration of photographs shared on Instagram highlighted that when including subjects, volunteers are likely to share photographs which include themselves or other volunteers. When including other subjects alongside volunteers the photographs were more likely to be posing. However, when examining locals appearing within photographs, more often than not they were not posed and in many cases going about their daily lives. This highlights the notion of tourists, and specifically volunteer tourists, attempting to find authenticity in their trip, and capturing a scene through their camera (Maoz, 2006). Thus, the ethics of tourist photography has

received limited attention within the literature (Scarles, 2013), but with the rapid increase of social media use and sharing, consideration of locals' rights need further consideration. Even if posed, some locals will be unaware of the outcomes of the activity (Satz, 2010), such as what happens to the photograph once it has been taken.

Furthermore, there is a significant difference between photographs of members of the host community in regard to whether they are adults or children. Photographs including adults are more likely to be not posed, while children are likely to pose for tourists taking photographs. This links heavily to Satz' (2010) third parameter, agency, and considerations need to be made in regard to permission to photograph and duty of care. This study was an initial exploration into the subjects of photographs shared by volunteer tourists. It is recommended that future research extends this study by exploring the ramifications and local knowledge of such practices.

UNDERSTANDING FOODIES' INTENTIONS TO TRAVEL FOR FOOD

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INTRODUCTION

Food tourism has been growing as a form of special-interest tourism and has received increasing attention from tourism academics (Getz, Robinson, Andersson, & Vujicic, 2014; UNWTO, 2017). Previous studies have identified foodies as a niche market for food tourism due to their propensity to travel for food (Getz & Robinson, 2014; Okumus, Okumus, & McKercher, 2007). While destination management organizations (DMOs) strive to build a food tourism identity and promote themselves as centers of food and food experiences, a richer understanding of foodies from the demand side is important for marketers to attract potential tourists. Foodies and their food related engagement patterns have been studied, to some degree, in the food tourism literature (Getz et al., 2014; Getz & Robinson, 2014; Robinson & Getz, 2013). However, there is still a lack of research focusing on the antecedents of foodies' behavioral intention toward a food trip. The purpose of this study is to theorize about foodies' food travel intention based on the influences of social-psychological constructs, food involvement and food travel motivation. A validated conceptual framework of the relationships between food involvement, motivational dimensions and behavioral intention provides a foundation to understand the decision making of foodies and thus makes a contribution to the food tourism literature. The results of this study also provide managerial implications for Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) to design marketing strategies targeted at potential food tourists.

METHOD

In this study, a self-administered online survey was employed a nonprobability convenience sampling technique to collect data from the world's largest online social networks of foodies and food travel: LinkedIn and Facebook. Respondents, who had planned to travel in the future with food-related experiences as the primary reason for travel, were targeted. The survey yielded 352 valid respondents. However, only 335 were subjected to data analysis after a data screening process.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed for data analysis. There are two forms of SEM, covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) and least squares-based SEM (PLS-SEM). While CB-SEM should be applied to assess how well-established theories fit reality, PLS is used "for exploratory analysis and for testing developmental theories" (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982, 451). As the model of study was initially conceptualized to explore the relationship between food involvement, motivation and behavioral intention, PLS-SEM was used because it lends itself well for this purpose. SmartPLS 3.0 was utilized to analyze the data.

FINDINGS

Demographic profile of respondents

The sample of 335 respondents, who plan to travel for food-related experiences as the primary reason in the future, represented a diversity of demographic backgrounds in terms of age group, marital status, occupation, educational and economical levels and living country (see Table 1).

Table 1. Socio-demographic profile (n=335)

	n	%		n	%
<i>Gender</i>			<i>Marital status</i>		
Female	201	60.0	Single	107	31.9
Male	134	40.0	Married	164	49.0
<i>Age</i>			In a relationship	53	15.8
18-24	31	9.3	Prefer not to say	11	3.3
25-35	147	43.9	<i>Occupation</i>		
36-44	53	15.8	Employed	175	52.2
45-54	49	16.6	Unemployed	11	3.3
55-64	42	12.5	Retired	9	2.7
65 or above	13	3.9	Self-employed	72	21.5
<i>Origin by continent</i>			Student	57	17.0
Europe	69	20.6	Other	11	3.3
America	76	22.7	<i>Annual income (USD)</i>		
Oceania	67	20.0	<5,000	56	16.7
Asia	118	35.2	5,000 - 9,999	24	7.2
Africa	5	1.5	10,000 -19,999	30	9.0
<i>Education</i>			20,000 - 29,999	28	8.4
Primary/Elementary	0	0.0	30,000 - 39,999	27	8.1
Secondary/High school	20	6.0	40,000 - 49,999	16	6.8
Undergraduate university degree	219	65.3	>=50,000	73	21.8
Postgraduate university degree	96	28.7	Would rather not to say	81	26.2

Measurement model evaluation

In the PLS-SEM approach, the evaluation of measurement constructs is based on criteria recommended by Hair et al. (2014). Accordingly,

results show that the composite reliability values of all constructs ranged from 0.859 to 0.935, indicating the high reliability of measurement constructs (Table 2).

Table 2. Results of factor analysis

<i>Constructs/ Dimensions</i>	<i>Adapted from</i>	<i>CFA (n=335)</i>		
		<i>Outer loading</i>	<i>CR*</i>	<i>AVE*</i>
<i>Interpersonal motivators</i>			0.898	0.561
To develop cooking skills	Kim & Eves (2012)	0.749		
To develop food knowledge		0.525		
To increase friendship	Park et al (2008)	0.774		
To familiarize myself with cooks and food producers	Kim et al. (2013)	0.833		
To meet celebrity chefs	Content analysis of food travel blogs	0.750		
To exchange with local chefs		0.836		
To share food experiences		0.734		
<i>Cultural motivators</i>			0.868	0.523
To taste local food	Park et al (2008)	0.650		
To experience different types of food	Kim et al. (2013)	0.653		
To understand the local culture	Content analysis of food travel blogs	0.764		
To see how other people live in a food tourism destination		0.729		
To increase my knowledge about different cultures		0.754		
To have an authentic food experiences		0.779		
<i>Food involvement</i>			0.859	0.605
Shopping for ingredients for cooking is one of the most enjoyable things	Getz & Robinson (2014)	0.735		
Acquiring food for domestic meals occupies a central role in my life		0.780		
People know me a gourmet		0.814		
I often reminisce about food experiences with family/friends		0.780		
<i>Behavioral intention</i>			0.935	0.783
I intend to take a food trip in the next two years	Lam & Hsu (2006),	0.887		
I want to take a food trip in the next two years		0.893		
I will make an effort to take a food trip in the next two years	Lee et al. (2015)	0.911		
I am willing to save money to take a food trip in the next two years		0.848		

Second, two criteria are used to assess convergent validity including the outer loadings, and the average variance extracted (AVE). Three items had outer loadings lower than 0.7, however one item 'To develop food knowledge' with the loading value of 0.525 was deleted from the scale. Two items 'To taste local food' and 'To experience different types of food' with the figures of 0.650 and 0.653, respectively were retained as their elimination could not make the value of AVE and CR of associated constructs improve as suggested by Hair et al. (2014). Another criterion to establish convergent

validity is the average variance extracted, which is equivalent to the communality of a variable. Results show that the AVE values of all constructs were higher than 0.5, ranging from 0.523 to 0.783 (see Table 2). Therefore, the measures of all constructs were concluded to have high levels of convergent validity.

Structural model evaluation

Each path relationship was examined through regression coefficients (β). The evaluation of significance of β values is based on the t-value,

which was obtained using the Bootstrap procedure with 335 cases and 5000 resamples. The path coefficient is considered significant if the empirical t-value is greater than 1.65 at the significant level of 10% (Hair et al., 2014). As shown in Figure 1, food involvement had significant direct influences on both interpersonal and cultural motivation to travel for food. High food involvement is definitely

correlated with a high propensity for food travel. While cultural motivators led to foodies' intentions to travel for food, interpersonal motivators were not found to be a predictor of their intentions for future food trips. Cultural motivators also played a mediating role in the relationship between food involvement and behavioral intention.

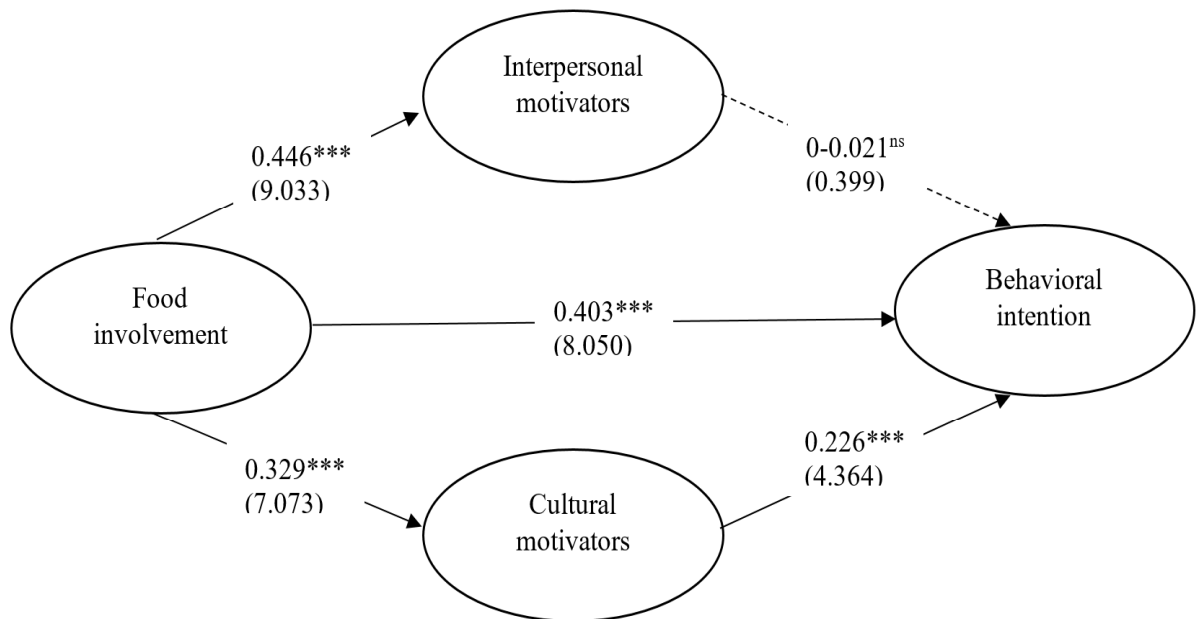


Figure 1. Structural model evaluation

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Due to the lack of studies investigating the formation of food travel intention from the influences of socio-psychological constructs, this study aimed to provide an understanding of foodies' behavioral intention towards food travel by incorporating two motivational constructs (interpersonal and cultural motivators) and food involvement as independent variables. In this regard, the study has theoretical implications for the body of research into food tourism as well as managerial implications for DMOs

For example, the study provides the empirical evidence to support both direct and indirect relationships between food involvement-cultural motivation-behavioral intention in the context of food tourism. Therefore, it can be concluded that foodies, who have a love for food and high incorporation of all food-related aspects into their lifestyles, want to travel for food to taste food,

experience authentic food and learn about local culture through food. Highly-involved foodies are also motivated by socializing, learning opportunities, however, this motivator does not lead to their intention to travel for food.

From a practical perspective, the study suggests some implications for DMOs. As foodies want to travel for food-related cultural experiences, it is important for DMOs to develop food activities, food events, food markets, food trails, food classes and opportunities to experience local dining restaurants that incorporate local cultural values. In addition, authenticity, diversity of food and cultural knowledge about food should be promoted to potential food tourists.

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GAMBLING FALLACY AMONG PROBLEM AND RECREATIONAL GAMBLERS: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

Numerous research has been conducted for the prevalence rate of problem gambling (Williams, Lee, & Back, 2013), drivers for problem gambling (Back, Lee, & Stinchfield, 2011; Rousseau et al., 2002), treatment and prevention program (Laubert & Rossler, 2007; Raylu & Oei, 2004) in order to understand problem gambling and minimize its social costs in various context and jurisdictions. Because of the diversity of cultural and social background, there is no guarantee that the same factors epidemiologically associated with problem gambling in Western cultures are important in Asian cultures (Williams et al., 2013). Extant research on key drivers of problem gambling behaviors has presented inconsistent results for Asian and Western subjects. Specifically, Yates et al. (1989) stated that gambling fallacy is believed to be critical because it is associated with overconfident and superstitions when people make decisions regarding gambling behaviors in Asian culture. At the same time, Williams et al. (2013) argued that gambling fallacy is a significant factor for prevalent problem gambling behaviors in Korea. Gambling fallacy refers to as a type of cognitive distortion which leads gamblers to distort reasoning, make judgmental errors and consequently irrational behaviors (Corney & Cummings, 1985).

Although gambling fallacy is an important concept to understand the antecedent of problem gambling behaviors, there is a paucity of research

for operationalization of the construct and examining the relationship with problem gambling behaviors based on cultural background. Recently, Back et al. (2018) developed a gambling fallacy scale to understand the underlying structure of gambling fallacy better and to assess its predictive power for problem gambling behaviors in Korea. The result of the study confirmed that Korean problem gamblers exhibited distinct erroneous beliefs towards gambling, especially following other people's betting pattern based on their collective culture. However, Back et al. (2018) have focused on validating the scale only in the Korean context. Despite the strong evidence of the construct validity of the gambling fallacy scale, it is necessary to test for external validity using the sample of a different culture.

Furthermore, it is critical to test whether significant erroneous beliefs exist according to cultural value or by personality type. Markus and Kitayama (1991) emphasized that two construals of self (independent and interdependent) can influence and determine cognition, emotion, and motivation for individuals to develop their attitude and behaviors. This is further supported by Singelis's (1994) arguments which state that people have dual-self of independent and interdependent self and that overall attitude and behavior of a person are ruled by a dominant personality rather than the cultural background.

Thus, the main objective of this study is to assess the external validity of gambling fallacy scale

by comparing data collected among Korea and US samples and to examine the relationship between different personality type and problem gambling status. Investigation of those issues would provide valuable information for the casino operators, government agency, and academia for developing effective responsible gambling strategies and suggest the best practices of prevention and intervention strategies for various jurisdictions.

METHOD

A questionnaire was developed based on a thorough review of the literature and a pilot study. Gambling fallacy scale with three dimensions by Back et al. (2018) was used to measure overall erroneous beliefs among participants. Singelis's (1994) dual-self measure was used for assessing interdependent and independent self. Also, problem gambling scale (DSM IV-NODS) was used to indicate the status of problem gambling among participants.

Two separate data collection procedure was conducted in Korea and the US. For the Korean sample, an on-site survey with purposive sampling with 500 K-Land customers. For the US sample, an online survey with purposive sampling with 1200 Mturk panel members. For both samples, researchers kept the survey access available to reach 50-50 proportion between problem gamblers and recreational gamblers using DSM IV (0 scored: recreational; 3-10 scored: problem gamblers). The participants who scored between 1 or 2 (at risk group) were excluded based on the scope of this study.

Reliability scores and results of convergent and discriminant validity tests were satisfactory. The underlying constructs of each scale were confirmed by confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL. The resulting factorial model confirmed five factors with significant factor loadings and good practical fit indices.

FINDINGS

Mean comparisons between recreational and problem gamblers revealed significant differences in both Korea and US data concerning the level of three-dimensional gambling fallacy. For the "system to win" dimension of gambling fallacy,

problem gamblers in both countries showed significantly higher mean score ($M_{Kor. Prob.} = 2.84$; $M_{US. Prob.} = 3.41$) than that of recreational gamblers ($M_{Kor. Rec.} = 2.01$; $M_{US. Rec.} = 2.46$). For the "superstitions" dimension, problem gamblers had significantly higher mean score ($M_{Kor. Prob.} = 2.26$; $M_{US. Prob.} = 3.36$) than that of recreational gamblers ($M_{Kor. Rec.} = 1.84$; $M_{US. Rec.} = 2.00$). Also, the result was consistent for the "follow and blame" dimension as it showed significantly higher mean score for the problem gamblers ($M_{Kor. Prob.} = 2.56$; $M_{US. Prob.} = 3.03$) than that of recreational gamblers ($M_{Kor. Rec.} = 2.27$; $M_{US. Rec.} = 2.24$).

A three-way ANOVA was performed on each dimension of gambling fallacy. The independent variables were the country (Korea and USA), interdependent personality (High and Low), and independent personality (High and Low). The results indicated significant main effects and two-way and three-way interaction effects for the "system to win" dimension ($p < .01$), except for two-way interaction between independent personality and country. For both "superstitions" and "follow and blame" dimension, independent personality did not have a significant main effect, and two-way interaction effect of independent personality and the country was not significant. Tukey's HSD post hoc test revealed that high interdependent US problem gamblers showed a significantly higher mean score of each dimension of gambling fallacy ($p < .01$). Also, the result of Tukey's HSD post-hoc test proved that the level of interdependent personality had a much greater impact than the country on all three dimensions ($p < .01$).

CONCLUSION

This study conducted cross-cultural validation for gambling fallacy scale with the Korean and US data. The results show that gambling fallacy was significantly associated with the problem gambling status. Also, the critical finding of this study is the main effect of interdependent personality on gambling fallacy for problem gamblers. Rather than specifying the importance of culture, the role of interdependent personality type has a significant impact on the level of gambling fallacy which further develops problem gambling behaviors. This finding is essential in terms of both a theoretical

and practical perspective. For theoretical implication, this study has presented the evidence of external validity of showing the consistency in the relationship between gambling fallacy and its predictive power to determine problem gambling status. Gambling fallacy is a prevalent behavior found among problems gamblers of both Korean and US sample. Although the country variable has a somewhat significant main effect on gambling fallacy, personality type has more influence on determining the problem gambling behaviors. As consistent with Singelis's (1994) dual-self theory, personality has a more significant impact on a person's behavior than culture alone. Also, researchers could further investigate various antecedents and consequences of gambling fallacy in order to minimize the problem gambling issues in various countries.

For practical implication, responsible gambling programs can be developed by focusing on communicating the real value of participating in gambling (e.g., luck, fun, excitement, leisure activities) in casino advertisement. Furthermore, the result of this study can be used for the development of effective educational programs for various stakeholders.

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HOW DO FEMALE HOTELIERS MAKE HOTEL GIVING DECISIONS?

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INTRODUCTION

To date, women and men each make up almost half of the workforce (Robbins & Coulter, 2012). However, the number of women holding top positions remains low. In the lodging industry, most of the workforce consists of women and the number of women in top-level positions has been steadily increasing. In addition to meeting the economic objectives of their hotels, both female and male hoteliers need to take the needs of their stakeholders and society into account. However, in general, female directors and managers across industries seem to be more socially responsible than their male counterparts and may make it a higher priority to help others and the community (Rao & Tilt, 2016). With their greater communal, democratic, and participative strengths (Bear, Rahman, & Post, 2010), women in top positions can engage and respond to multiple stakeholders (Konrad & Kramer, 2006) and may be more inclined to corporate giving than their male counterparts (Williams, 2003). Accordingly, female hoteliers exert considerable influence on hotel giving (HG).

As a specific aspect of corporate social responsibility, corporate giving is highly desired by society and could enhance corporate competitiveness and performance as well as social welfare (Liket & Simaens, 2015). Given globalization, economic development and inequality, scarcity of resources and market competition, increasing social expectations and scrutiny, and technology innovation, firms are more thoughtful and strategic in their giving practices (Zhang et al., 2010). Therefore, understanding how female hoteliers allocate slack hotel resources and profits to charity will generate valuable insights into corporate giving decision-making and help hotels formulate giving programs that will maximize their impact on business and society.

Quite a few studies have examined the impact of female board members and managers on their firms' involvement in giving practices. Marquis and

Lee (2013) and Wang and Coffey (1992) found a significant and positive link between the proportion of female directors and corporate giving. Williams (2003) suggested that firms with a higher proportion of female directors do give more to charity per dollar of sales than do firms with a lower proportion. Furthermore, research evidence has also revealed that when making corporate giving decisions, female directors are likely to have goals that are not in line with those of shareholders and may place less emphasis on economic outcome than their male counterparts (Kesner, 1988; Wang & Coffey, 1992; Williams, 2003).

In addition, managers' personal values act as drivers of corporate social responsibility (Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004). Similarly, the perceived ethical obligation and subjective norms of hoteliers in Norway is significant in initiating and implementing socially responsible activities, including the willingness to give (Sandve & Øgaard, 2014). Choi and Wang (2007) suggested that top managers with benevolence and integrity are more likely to help others and society and to engage in corporate giving. Marquis and Lee (2013) indicated that firms with a greater proportion of women managers have higher corporate charitable contributions. These studies showed that female directors and managers play a significant role in making corporate giving decision. However, less is known about the way in which women in top positions make corporate giving decisions. The studies can identify whether the impact of female directors and managers on corporate giving is important or not, but they cannot explain the relationship. To date, the reasons behind the relationship have not been inspected. To fill the research gap, this study examines how female hoteliers make HG decisions. Examining female hoteliers' process of making giving decisions would improve our understanding of complex corporate giving behavior.

Further, female director and managers may have interdependent motivations when they make

decisions about corporate giving. These motivations are significant in making the HG decision that will best meet and balance the demands of internal and external stakeholders. However, most studies have used quantitative analysis to examine the impact of one of more motivations in initiating and implementing corporate giving (Liket & Simaens, 2015). Although they can identify whether the motives are important or not, they cannot ascertain the relative importance or to identify interactions among the motives. To date, the relative importance of and cause-effect relationship among the motives have not been examined. As a result, the relationship between corporate giving and its motivations has not been sufficiently explained (Liket & Simaens, 2015). Our understanding of the decision-making of corporate giving is therefore incomplete and imprecise (Campbell, Gulas, & Gruca, 1999).

Indeed, it is highly possible that motivations behind corporate giving are interdependent (Schwartz & Carroll, 2003). Without a systematic analysis that organizes critical giving motivations and assesses their relative importance and causal relationship in corporate giving decision, the understanding of giving decision-making of female hoteliers remains incomplete. Consequently, it is a challenge for firms as well as hoteliers to formulate the effective giving tactics and strategies that will enhance their social and corporate performance.

Since corporate social responsibility is a multi-dimensional and multi-stakeholder business behavior (Wood & Jones, 1995), HG could be considered a problem of multiple-criteria decision making (MCDM). Hoteliers thus needs to balance the demands of internal and external stakeholders when making giving decisions. It is in line with stakeholder theory that corporate giving is a managerial decision integrating the value and moral objectives of a firm and its stakeholders (Roberts, 1992). Therefore, MCDM method is a suitable technique to comprehend the complex decision of HG. In MCDM method, Decision-Making Trial and Evaluation Laboratory (DEMATEL) developed by Gabus and Fontela (1976) can identify the influence and causal relationship of critical factors in decision-making by classifying them in terms of cause and effect. Hence, this study uses DEMATEL to examine how female hoteliers make HG decision by assessing the causal relationship of their giving motivations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Few studies in the hospitality and tourism literature have examined how firms give to charity (de-Miguel-Molina et al., 2017). According to agency cost, profit maximization, stakeholder theory, and others, a limited number of studies has identified the motivations that can affect the initiation and implementation of corporate giving. Agency cost theory suggests that managerial insiders may increase their personal interests by corporate giving but at the cost of shareholders (Wang et al., 2008) while value enhancement theory proposes that CG is used to enhance the value for shareholders (Navarro, 1988). Stakeholder theory treats CG a managerial decision that integrates the moral with value objectives of a firm and its stakeholders Roberts, 1992; Wang and Qian, 2011). A firm's CG decision makers thus need to balance the demands of creditors, customers, employees, interest groups, investors, managerial insiders, shareholders, suppliers, the public, and governmental bodies. As CG influences or is influenced by a firm's board members, managers, and shareholders, they are stakeholders in CG decisions. Therefore, both agency cost and value enhancement theories of CG can be regard as a specific form of stakeholder theory.

Chen and Lin (2015) suggested that hospitality giving in Taiwan was driven by both economic and agency cost reasons. de-Miguel-Molina et al. (2017) showed that altruistic and religious causes were helpful in explaining hotel charitable giving in Spain. Fenclova and Coles (2011) found that strategic giving was widely practiced by the low-fare airlines to enhance sales growth and profits by improving brand image perception of both customers and employees that could raise employee morale and build customer loyalty. Gu et al. (2013) suggested a close link between political connections and philanthropic actions for senior hotel managers in China. Lee et al. (2014) indicated that a code of ethics directly influenced HG and that HG was strongly related to turnover intention and employee engagement in Korea.

In addition to agency cost, altruistic, economic, ethical, political, and religious motivations, among others may influence a firm's engagement in corporate giving. For example, corporate giving for large U.S. corporations is significantly associated with agency cost, economic,

and legal factors (Navarro, 1998). Edmondson and Carroll (1999) suggested that ethical, philanthropic, and religious reasons were important in explaining the giving behavior of large Black-owned business enterprises. Wang and Qian (2011) pointed out that stakeholder and political relationship was critical in Chinese listed companies' giving decisions. Moreover, firms may practice charitable giving for the reason that their competitors do (Galaskiewicz & Burt, 1991). In view of this evidence, agency cost, economic, ethical, legal, peer pressure, philanthropic, political, and religious motivations may affect the initiation and implementation of hotel charitable giving.

Although these motivations explain the HG decision for a specific group of companies or industries, these studies are quantitative, examining the link between corporate giving and one or more motivations. In other words, the studies noted possible influences and relationships by using statistical tests and models, but without conducting a profound qualitative evaluation. As a result, explanations and understanding on how firms donate to charity remain incomplete. Since corporate giving decisions are at the discretion of board members and top managers (Choi & Wang, 2007; Rao & Tilt, 2016; Williams, 2003), more rigorous qualitative research is necessary for researchers to evaluate the decision-making processes behind corporate giving. Assessing the complex motivations behind decision making of corporate giving can advance our understanding of complex corporate giving behavior and the complex relationship between corporate giving and its motivations.

METHOD

After a detailed literature review, this study identifies the possible motivations of HG engagement. Female hoteliers and academic professionals scored those motivations along a 5-point Likert scale. These motivations are then subjected to DEMATEL analysis to examine how these hoteliers make HG decisions. The DEMATEL method can evaluate complex problem of decision making (Zhu et al., 2011). It thus helps to identify the influence of and causal relationship among factors in decision making by showing how one factor influences or is influenced by the others (Lin, 2013; Wu, 2008). The steps in DEMATEL analysis are given below (Gabus & Fontela, 1976; Tzeng, Chiang, & Li, 2007).

Step 1. Develop the initial direct influence matrix (X). Based on a detailed literature review and expert judgments, this study identifies the critical motivations in HG initiation and implementation. Group experts comprised female hoteliers and academics who were asked to indicate the level of direct influence of each motivation on the others by ranking it on a scale with the following anchors: 0 = *no influence*, 1 = *little influence*, 2 = *high influence*, and 3 = *very high influence*. Let X^h represent the direct influence matrix suggested by the h^{th} female experts, where, $h = 1, 2, \dots, t$. The initial influence matrix X can then be obtained by calculating as

$$X = \sum_{h=1}^t X^h / t = [x_{ij}]_{n \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & 0 & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & x_{n2} & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x_{ij}^h \geq 0 \tag{1}$$

where x_{ij} is element of the initial average matrix, $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$, n is the number of critical motivations, and $x_{ij} \geq 0$.

Step 2. Compute the normalized direct influence matrix (D). Matrix D can be derived by means of normalizing the initial influence matrix (X) and is calculated as

$$D = X \times S \tag{2a}$$

$$S = 1 / \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} \tag{2b}$$

Step 3. Calculate the total influence matrix (T). Total influence matrix T is equal to the direct influence matrix (D) plus the indirect influence matrix (ID), where I is the identity matrix. It thus can reveal the direct and indirect influence of motivations on a decision-making system. The matrix T is computed as

$$T = [t_{ij}]_{n \times n} = D + ID = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} D^k = D/(I - D) \quad (3a)$$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} [0]_{n \times n} \quad (3b)$$

Matrix T can demonstrate the direct and indirect influence of giving motivations on decision-making system by extracting the causal relationship of the motivations. Let $[r_i]_{n \times 1}$ be the vector representing the sum of elements of each row of matrix T . It is computed as

$$r = r_{n \times 1} = [\sum_{j=1}^n t_{ij}]_{n \times 1} \quad (4)$$

Element r_i illustrates the sum of both direct and indirect influences of motivation i on the other motivations.

In the same way, let $[c_j]_{1 \times n}$ denote the vector that sums up the elements of each column of matrix T . It is calculated as

$$c = c_{n \times 1} = [\sum_{i=1}^n t_{ij}]_{1 \times n} \quad (5)$$

Element c_i shows the sum of both direct and indirect influences that motivations i is influenced by the others. On the one hand, taking the interdependence of the motivations into account, the value of $r_i + c_i$ represents the strength of influences that motivation i influences and is influenced in the decision-making matrix. On the other hand, the $r_i - c_i$ value identifies the casual relationship, showing the net effect of motivation i in making HG decision. If $r_i - c_i > 0$, motivation i belongs to cause, otherwise motivation i is classified as effect if $r_i - c_i < 0$.

Step 4. Compute the threshold value and plot the causal relationship map. This study constructs the causal map by using threshold value to screen minor effects out from the total influence matrix T . The threshold value is calculated by taking the average of all the elements in the matrix T (Lee, Yen, & Tsai, 2008). Each element (t_{ij}) in the matrix T comprises information that one motivation interacts with the others. Only the values of elements are greater than the threshold value; the elements are qualified to construct the interdependence diagram by plotting the values of $(r + c, r - c)$ in the causal map.

FINDINGS

In this section, the empirical examination consists of data collection, identification of the critical HG motivations and using DEMATEL technique to assess the influence and interdependence of critical giving motivations in making HG decision.

Collect data

While the survey of DEMATEL analysis is generally applied to group decision making, the number of experts depends on their availability and

on the problem. In most hotels in Taiwan, HG decisions are made by board members and managers. According to corporate governance data retrieved from Taiwan Economic Journal database, the six hotel companies listed in the Taiwan Stock Exchange had boards with 5 to 15 from 2014 to 2017; the average board size was 8.783. The number of female board members ranged from 0 to 4 with an average of 2.522.

Robbins and Coulter (2012) and Yetton and Böttger (1983) suggested that a group of 5 to 7 experts is effective for a group decision problem. A decision group comprised of 10 to 15 specialists

in related professions would be appropriate to make a MCDM decision (Hwang & Lin, 2012). Since DEMATEL analysis is usually

applied to group decision making and includes an expert questionnaire to elicit expert opinions, a group of more than 15 female experts would be acceptable to assess the influence and causal relationship of female hoteliers' motivations in making HG decision. Data are collected from the six listed hotel companies and other five-star hotel groups. The expert questionnaire is designed to be as concise as possible to streamline the complex system of HG decision making.

After several contacts by email and phone, 12 female hoteliers serving in HG or hotel charitable foundation and four female hospitality scholars leading school fundraising or public affairs agreed to complete the questionnaire. The responses were then used to ascertain the motivations that are important in making HG decisions.

Ascertain the critical HG motivations

Based on a detailed literature review and annual report of the listed hotel companies, this study identified eight possible motivations associated with HG involvement: economic, ethical, legal, managerial self-interests (or agency cost), peer

pressure, philanthropic, political, and religious. HG is a managerial discretion behavior and might simply be motivated by an economic purpose to pay less in taxes. Unlike corporate social responsibility activities in which they are required to obey the law, legal motive was deleted because HG is not legally required. Finally, seven possible motives were used to ascertain the critical HG motives by a questionnaire. In the questionnaire, group decision makers were asked to evaluate the possible motivations along a 5-point Likert scale: 1 = *unimportant*, 2 = *of little importance*, 3 = *moderately important*, 4 = *important*, and 5 = *very important*. Moreover, they were also asked to add any other motivation that they associated with HG engagement.

Sixteen responses were collected. Table 1 shows the profile of the experts. The ranking of giving motivations in terms of importance, measured as the average of expert judgments, is as follows: philanthropic (4.063), ethical (3.750), economic (2.750), peer pressure (2.750), agency cost (2.250), religion (2.000), and politics (2.000). This result is consistent with Carroll's (1991) conceptual model that shows corporate social responsibility as consisting of philanthropic, ethical, legal, and economic components.

Table 1. The profile of the group decision makers

Number	Basic information	Distribution	Number of experts
1	Age	21-30	1
		31-40	5
		41-50	8
		51-60	2
		Total	16
2	Education	Hight school	3
		University	5
		Graduate school	8
		Total	16
3	Experience	Above 21 years	4
		16-20 years	2
		11-15 years	7
		6-10 years	2
		5 years	1
Total	16		
5	Official title	General manager	2
		Assistant general manager	4
		Manager	6
		Academic professional	4
		Total	16

Source: Expert inputs

As shown in Figure 1, the lowest-scoring motivations -- agency cost, politics, peer pressure, and religion -- were removed. The final three highest-scoring critical giving motivations are economic motivation (EM, 2.750), ethical motivation (ETM, 3.750), and philanthropic motivation (PM, 4.063). Given this finding, when making HG decisions, female hoteliers seem to be

more sensitive to philanthropic and ethical causes and less swayed by the economic needs of the hotel. This result is consistent with prior evidence that women who serve in top positions seem to have goals that may be not in line with those of their shareholders and that may place more emphasis on helping others and society (Kesner, 1988; Wang & Coffey, 1992; Marx, 2000; Williams, 2003).

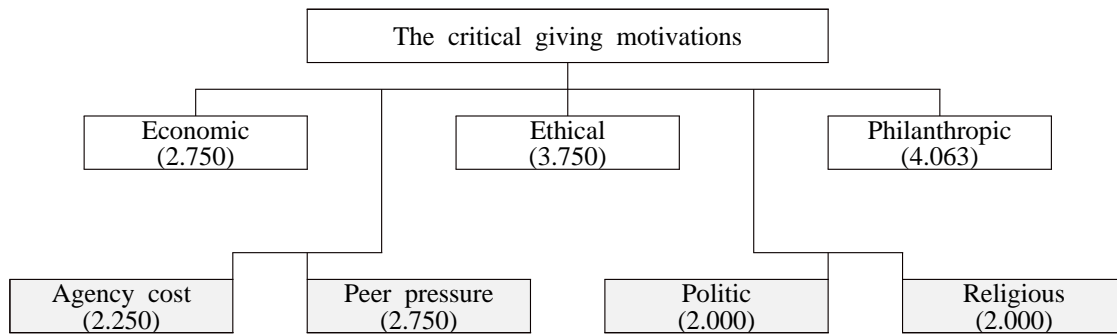


Figure 1. The critical giving motivations

Note: 1 = unimportant, 2 = of little importance, 3 = moderately important, 4 = important, and 5 = very important.

Assess the influence and interdependence of critical motivations

Initially, group decision makers were asked to rate the influence of one motivation on the others based on a scale of 0 to 3. The responses of 16 experts were collected for DEMATEL analysis. According to Equation (1), this study takes the average of the judgments of group experts to

construct the initial average matrix X (Table 2). Matrix X is then used to compute the normalized initial direct influence matrix D (Table 3) based on Equations (2a) and (2b). Subsequently, according to Equations (3a) and (3b), the total influence matrix T (Table 5) can be calculated by summing direct influence matrix (D) and indirect influence matrix (ID) up.

Table 2. The initial average matrix X

Critical motivations	EM	ETM	PM
Economic motivation (EM)	0.000	1.500	1.813
Ethical motivation (ETM)	1.313	0.000	1.375
Philanthropic motivation (PM)	1.063	1.688	0.000

Table 3. The normalized direct influence matrix D

Critical motivations	EM	ETM	PM
EM	0.000	0.453	0.547
ETM	0.396	0.000	0.415
PM	0.321	0.509	0.000

Table 4. The normalized indirect influence matrix ID

Critical motivations	EM	ETM	PM
EM	2.000	2.330	2.249
ETM	1.618	2.137	1.989
PM	1.667	1.981	2.122

Table 5. The total direct/indirect influence matrix T

Critical motivations	EM	ETM	PM	Sum of columns (r)	$r + c$	$r - c$
EM	2.000	2.783	2.797	7.579	13.581	1.578
ETM	2.014	2.137	2.404	6.554	13.964	-0.856
PM	1.988	2.491	2.122	6.600	13.922	-0.722
Sum of rows (c)	6.002	7.410	7.322	Threshold value = 2.304		

In Table 5, on one hand, the value of $r + c$ is derived by using Equations (4) and (5) and shows the total influence of individual giving motivation on the total influence matrix T (or entire decision-making system). The ranking of critical giving motivations in terms of the $r + c$ value is ethical (13.581), philanthropic (13.964), and economic (13.922). The results indicate that the three motivations are similar in influence on HG decisions made by female hoteliers and the panel of academic experts.

On the other hand, according to Equations (4) and (5), the value of $r - c$ represents how one motivation influences or is influenced by the others. The $r - c$ value thus can be used to categorize the motivations as causes or effects, thereby

demonstrating their causal relationship. In Table 5, the ranking of giving motivations in terms of the $r - c$ value is economic (1.578), ethical (-0.856), and philanthropic (-0.722). Therefore, economic motivation is classified as cause because its $r - c$ value is positive while effect group includes ethical and philanthropic motivations as their corresponding $r - c$ value are negative.

Finally, given the values of $r + c$ and $r - c$ for each giving motivation, this study plots the cause and effect diagram (Figure 2) by filtering out the insignificant effect with the threshold value, measured as the average of all the elements within the total relation matrix T . The diagram helps to demonstrate the interdependence among the three motivations in giving decision-making.

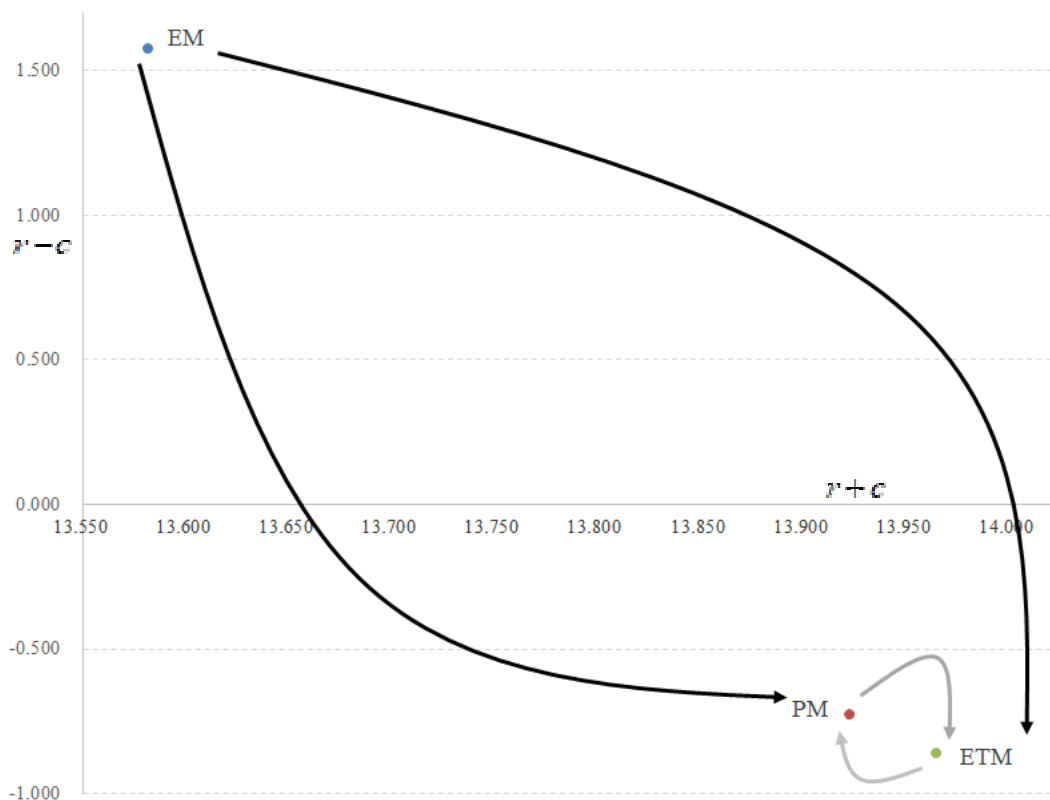


Figure 2. The causal relationship diagram of critical giving motivations

Note: Economic motive (EM), Ethical motive (ETM), and Philanthropic motive (PM).

CONCLUSION

According to the results of the questionnaire (Figure 1), female experts report that they give to charity primarily for philanthropic reasons, followed by ethical, legal and economic reasons. This result is consistent with the empirical evidence showing that when engaging in socially responsive activities, female board members and top managers are more concerned with charitable causes to help others and the community than in the economic needs of their firms (Marx, 2000; Williams, 2003). In addition, the four key motivations ranked in this study are consistent with Carroll's (1991) conceptual model that the social responsibility of business comprises the philanthropic, ethical, legal, and economic components required, expected, or desired by stakeholders and society. In fact, these motivations may be interdependent in the decision-making process of corporate giving. Without understanding the causal relationship among the critical motivations and their influence on HG decisions, it is difficult for hoteliers to develop and manage appropriate giving programs. However, no study has separated these complex and interwoven giving motivations.

Designed to extend previous evidence that corporate giving is significantly associated with female board members (Wang & Coffey, 1992; Williams, 2003) and top managers (Choi & Wang, 2007; Hemingway & Maclagan, 2004), this study uses the MCDM method with both quantitative and qualitative features to assess the way in which female hoteliers make HG decisions. The assessment results reveal that when making HG decisions, female hoteliers have a higher propensity for its economic outcomes but do not lose sight of its social performance.

This study draws two new conclusions based on the results of DEMATEL analysis. First, the influence (i.e. $r+c$ value) of the three critical giving motivations on HG decision is similar, implying a balanced HG approach formulated by female hoteliers to meet the moral and economic needs of their internal and external stakeholders and of society. The finding is in line with stakeholder theory that firms should consider the demands of their hotels and stakeholders when initiating and implementing HG programs. The level of influence for the three critical giving motivations is valuable

in formulating giving tactics and strategies. According to the influence of the three motivations, stakeholder management, and business environment, hotels could develop their own giving portfolio that combines giving practices to meet business and social needs.

Furthermore, it is important to note that each critical motivation has its own influence and distinctive features to meet the norms and values of specific hotel stakeholders. Hoteliers should be conscious of the distinctive influence of each motivation when initiating and implementing HG for targeted beneficiaries. It can meet the expectations and needs of specific internal or external stakeholders of hotel and bring benefits in terms of brand image and firm reputation, community relationship, customer loyalty, employee morale, insurance-like protection or risk management, sustainable environment, or others.

Second, the results of DEMATEL analysis reveal that economic motivation is classified as a cause, but ethical and philanthropic motivations are effects. As shown in Figure 2, economic motivation directly affects HG and indirectly affects it through ethical and philanthropic motivations. The ethical (philanthropic) motivation directly influences HG and indirectly affects it by way of philanthropic (ethical) motivation. Taking the causal relationship into account, the economic reason is the core motivation in complex decision-making of female hoteliers and has a continuous influence on HG.

This finding is reasonable since profits or resources available to fund charitable activities are fundamental in corporate giving decisions (Liket & Simaens, 2015; Wang, Choi, & Li, 2008). Therefore, when initiating and implementing HG, hotels should focus on the economic outcome of giving practices because it not only significantly influences hotel financial performance but also social impact. In other words, as economic, ethical, and philanthropic motivations are interdependent, not only do the benefits of HG enhance hotel financial performance; improved financial performance contributes to social welfare. Accordingly, linking a hotel's charitable giving to its overarching business operations, tactics, and strategy would be a suitable way to sustain the business and social impact of HG. Specifically, HC should focus on key stakeholders such as shareholders, customers, suppliers, employees, local communities, or

government. Better relations with specific key stakeholders could lead to increased sales and profits, which then enhance corporate social performance.

Compared with their male counterparts, females holding top positions are generally more affectionate, gentle, helpful, interpersonally sensitive, kind, nurturing, and sympathetic (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003). It is possible that female hoteliers may incorporate their communal characteristics with business objectives when making HG decisions. Empirical evidence shows that when making corporate giving decision, female directors may have goals that are not aligned with the interests of shareholders and may be concerned less with economic outcome (Kesner, 1988; Wang & Coffey, 1992; Williams, 2003). However, this study finds that female hoteliers make HG decisions rationally and realistically. Considering that economic outcomes of HG have a sustainable impact on firm financial and social performance, female hoteliers are more mindful of toward the economic need of their hotels but are also inclined to use hotels' slack resource or profits to help others and society. In short, they believe that economic benefit is an essential component of practicing HG.

Indeed, female hoteliers exert considerable influence on corporate giving. With more women than ever serving in top positions, female hoteliers are expected to play a major role in HG decisions and trends. However, as corporate giving is mainly under managerial discretion, the traits, beliefs, and values of board members and top managers are significant in making these decisions. As women and men in top positions may differ in values and moral perception (Rao and Tilt, 2016), they may make HG decisions in different ways. To date, in Taiwan, male hoteliers still outnumber their female counterparts. It is important to examine the HG decision-making of male hoteliers to understand corporate giving behavior in terms of gender difference, organizational behavior and human decision processes, and stakeholder management. However, the way in which male board numbers and top managers make corporate giving decision has not been evaluated. This would be both an imperative and an interesting research topic.

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HOW CHANGES IN REWARD PROGRAMS AFFECT HOTEL PERFORMANCE

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INTRODUCTION

Customer reward programs are one of the essential drivers of success in today's competitive business world. Indeed, the hospitality industry is no exception as reward programs have become important marketing tactics for many U.S. hotel operators (McCleary & Weaver, 1991; Toh, Hu, & Withiam, 1993). Almost every hotel has their own reward program that provides unique benefits for members who continue to stay within their brands. In the past, hotel reward programs were less popular than airline frequent flyer programs as hotel points could only be redeemed for free stays (DeKay, Toh, & Raven, 2009). However, many hotel operators have updated their reward programs to let members redeem points not only for their stays, but for hotel amenities, shopping, dining, etc. As members advance to higher tier levels, the scope of rewards and benefits expands. The growing number of chain properties in the market and consolidation of hotel brands are also contributing to the popularity of the programs as customers have a wider selection of hotel locations, and therefore more opportunities to earn and use points.

Hotel reward programs have been frequently reported as expensive and cost-ineffective marketing strategies as the costs associated with the programs are substantial (Mattila, 2006; McCleary & Weaver, 1991; Skogland & Siguaw, 2004). In spite of the substantial costs associated with reward programs, marketers are committed to making continuous investments, which raises questions about the effectiveness of the programs. With increased competition, marketers continually change the structure of the programs and expand the scope of rewards to make them more attractive. In a study of 2000 reward programs, it was found that 45% of reward programs were modified (Keenan, 2007). The common changes in reward

programs include tier structure, tier requirements and related benefits. However, despite their industry-wide popularity, little is known about the impact of these changes on the loyalty program effectiveness (Tanford, Shoemaker, & Danca, 2016). In addition, there has been limited emphasis on the effectiveness of the programs in the literature.

As many hotels consistently modify their reward programs to make them more attractive, the changes made to the programs are expected to bring positive benefits to the firms. For hotels, even small changes to reward programs can lead to significant impacts on profits. Therefore, this paper attempts to examine how the program changes impact the loyalty program effectiveness. More specifically, this study intends to compare the impact of reward program changes in different types of hotels, such as chain hotels and casino-resorts, by analyzing their performance data. By identifying the effectiveness of the program restructuring, hoteliers can develop better marketing strategies, improve the firms' financial condition, and achieve competitive advantages within the market.

METHOD

Data were provided by management teams of two hotel properties. One hotel, which will be referred to as Hotel 1, was a business-focused hotel with approximately 500 rooms, a conference room, restaurants, business center and retail stores. Hotel 1's reward program was changed on January 2013, and the changes mainly focused on increased benefits by members' tier status. The company also lowered the number of night requirements to allow members to more quickly reach higher tier levels. Hotel 2 mainly caters to leisure travelers with 3,000 hotel rooms and a casino. The hotel also provides various amenity selections such as restaurants, entertainment venues, and retail stores. Hotel 2

changed its reward program on August 2011 and restructured their tier program by adding two new tiers with increased point earnings from their F&B

and retail amenities. 731-daily operating statistics were provided from internal systems to examine the impact of the changes to the reward programs.

FINDINGS

Table 1. Results of Hotel 1 Analysis to Predict Daily Hotel Segment Occupancies (n = 731)

Variable	Leisure Segment		Business Segment	
	B	SE B	B	SE B
Constant	34.22**	4.13	92.82**	5.98
Tier	N/A	N/A	N/A	
Trend	0.08**	0.01	N/A	
Monday	N/A	N/A	47.45**	3.19
Tuesday	8.58**	2.92	70.22**	4.90
Wednesday	13.85**	4.09	60.74**	5.60
Thursday	25.55**	3.91	34.31**	5.10
Friday	58.20**	3.24	36.08**	4.42
Saturday	67.35**	2.58	32.02**	3.22
AR(1)	0.67**	0.03	0.76**	0.03
AR(2)	-0.17**	0.04	N/A	N/A

N/A = not applicable, **Significant at the .001 alpha level

The leisure segment model accounted for 71% of the variation in the leisure segment occupancy and was statistically significant, $F(12, 718) = 173.58, p \leq .0001$. For the business segment, the model explained 63% of the variation in the business segment occupancy, $F(4, 726) = 152.93, p \leq .0001$. The reward program variable did not show a statistically significant effect on occupancy of either the leisure or business segments. The weekend

variables, representing Fridays and Saturdays, showed higher occupancy than the weekday variables, such as Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays. For the business segment, weekday variables showed greater occupancy than those of the weekend. Variation Inflation Factor (VIF) for all the variables examined in this model were below 1.71, indicating a low degree of correlation between variables.

Table 2. Results of Hotel 2 Analysis to Predict Daily Hotel Segment Occupancy (n = 731)

Variable	Transient Segment		Leisure Segment		Business Segment	
	B	SE B	B	SE B	B	SE B
Constant	819.56**	17.81	1721.57**	58.92	598.44**	60.00
Tier	N/A	N/A	53.54*	16.04	N/A	N/A
Monday	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	109.07**	3.04
Tuesday	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	170.58**	3.91
Wednesday	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	87.49**	2.59
Thursday	101.63**	12.97	158.56**	27.26	N/A	N/A
Friday	117.67**	18.28	315.64**	34.22	-148.27**	-5.33
Saturday	152.04**	93.58	298.15**	33.81	-146.75**	-5.81
Sunday	N/A	N/A	115.31**	27.76	N/A	N/A
NEW	N/A	N/A	-286.53*	118.92	N/A	N/A
AR(1)	0.83**	0.03	0.93**	0.03	1.01**	26.69
AR(2)	-0.19**	0.03	-0.14**	0.03	-0.29**	-8.62
MA(4)	N/A	N/A	-0.08*	0.04	N/A	N/A

N/A = not applicable, **Significant at the .001 alpha level, *Significant at the .05 alpha level

Table 2 represents the results of the three separate models for Hotel 2. The reward program variable in the leisure segment model showed a statistically significant effect on the leisure segment occupancy, with $F(69, 661) = 141.20, p \leq .0001$. The coefficient of 53.54 represented an increased daily number of rooms sold on the days after the change to the reward program. That is, after the change was made to Hotel 2's reward program, the company sold about 54 more rooms daily on average.

In the transient segment model, the reward program variable had a non-significant statistical effect on the occupancy and explained 56% of the variations in the occupancy, $F(36, 692) = 104.23, p \leq .0001$. The business segment model also had a non-significant impact on the segment occupancy, $F(12, 718) = 134.62, p \leq .0001$. The VIF values for all the variables examined in this model were below 1.29, indicating a low degree of correlation between variables. The transient model for Hotel 2 accounted for 56% of the variation in the transient segment's occupancy.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

The finding helps hotel operators understand how customers react to changes in the reward programs of a chain hotel brand and a casino-resort brand. The changes in both hotels' reward programs were centered around increased number of tier levels and benefits. The results from the chain hotel brand (Hotel 1) revealed a statistically non-significant impact of the changes on the business and leisure segment occupancies. This finding provides valuable insight to chain hotel operators, who may or may not benefit from tier structure and benefit changes. Reward programs can be cost-ineffective marketing strategies, and changes in the programs can have a direct association with the firms' profitability (Chun, Iancu, & Trichakis, 2017; Mattila, 2006; McCleary & Weaver, 1991; Skogland & Siguaw, 2004). The results from the analysis of Hotel 2 indicated that the tier program change positively contributed to the leisure segment occupancy increase. It is important to note that there are fundamental differences between the reward programs of hotel chains and casino-resorts. Casino loyalty programs reward guests based on their spending and gaming expenditures, whereas hotel

chain brands reward guests based on number of stays. Guests at chain hotel brands typically get rewarded with free hotel nights, whereas casino-resort brands have more variety in benefit redemptions, such as free play, meals, shows, cashback, in addition to free hotel nights. With the wider selection of benefits including gaming rewards, perceived value of the casino-resort reward program may be higher than that of a typical hotel chain reward program. This could be the reason that changes were more effective in the casino-resort brand. Moreover, chain hotels may not expect to have the same level of program effectiveness by making tier program changes in the reward programs. The findings also suggest that tier structure changes may not add critical value to the chain-hotel reward program, failing to affect perceived value of the program (Dowling & Uncles, 1997; Shoemaker and Lewis, 1999; Tanford, 2013).

The results from Hotel 2 provide additional support to the notion that increased tier levels and benefits lead to repeat purchases (Drèze & Nunes, 2009; Fornell, 1992), increased customer perception of exclusivity and status (Arbore & Estes, 2013), improved commitment to the brand (McCall & Voorhees, 2010), and customer motivation to reach a higher tier level (Eastman et al., 1999; Tanford, 2013). While this research provided evidence regarding the effectiveness of the tier program changes in casino-resort hotels, more research using hotel performance data is needed to evaluate the success of the programs. Currently, tier structure and benefit changes are frequently executed across the industry, regardless of types of hotels and target markets. For companies that have multiple hotel chains, understanding the effectiveness of changes and reward program features may allow them to find solutions to current liability issues and problems that exist with current reward program structures. To improve program effectiveness, customized or flexible reward programs may be considered as suggested by McCall and Voorhees (2010) and Tanford (2013). Hotels may give customers options to choose their desired benefits and customize their own reward programs.

Additionally, the model included in this study can be used as a post-project valuation tool. Quantification of the project's effect is somewhat complex, as there are factors simultaneously influencing the hotel's performances. This analysis

can be replicated to estimate the revenue contribution to other operations as the model helps isolate the effect of the core variable by including internal and external factors in the model.

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ANALYSIS ON THE CONGRUENCE OF EXPECTATIONS OF THE GEN Y IN LUXURY HOTELS USING THE “VALS” FRAMEWORK

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INTRODUCTION

The objective of the study aims to focus on the aspects that will be useful for sustainability of patronage in luxury hotels and to give the utmost experience to the guests. Gen Ys are the consumers of today, and the largest consumer group (Harrington, Ottenbacher, Staggs, & Powell, 2012). To analyze the expectations of the Gen Y will be crucial so that luxury hotels can create products or services which will match these expectations. Consequently, luxury hotels can also communicate these products to attract the Gen Ys. There are a lot of expectations from the Gen Y as a consumer of luxury hotels and knowing which area to focus would bring a greater return to marketing investment. Analysis through VALS (Values and Lifestyles) framework would be effective since it uses psychographic segmentation by viewing people on the basis of their attitudes, needs, beliefs, and demographics. (Homer, 1986)

METHOD

To analyze the expectations of the Gen Y population in choosing a luxury hotel, this study used descriptive survey methodology based on the data collection methods used by authors in related research (Harrington, Ottenbacher, Staggs, & Powell, 2012). A purposive sampling was done to select the Gen Ys—those who were born between the years of 1980-1994 and fall into the group of frequent travelers and inelastic to room rates. Purposive sampling (also known as judgment, selective or subjective sampling) is a sampling technique in which researcher relies on his or her own judgment when choosing members of population to participate in the study (Research Methodology, 2018).

From a similar work done by Lim et al., on their study on Managing Customer Hedonism: A Case of Luxury Hotels, a filter question was asked

before respondents took part in the survey; they are only eligible to take the survey if they have stayed in a luxury hotel (Lim, Ting, Lee, Chua, & Tan, 2012). Required sample size using the estimated population of 2,253,909 based on the number of travelers who visited the Philippines in 2013 (the Philippines' Department of Tourism since then removed the age question in the arrival card) aged 20-44 years old (Visitor Arrival by Age Group 2013, 2013) and with a 95% level of confidence is 384 (Gert Van Dessel, 2013).

Survey Development and Statistical Method

The questionnaire consists of 2 parts, first is pertaining to respondent's demographic background and travelling patterns; the second part consists of 24 questions with statements relating to the variables studied in this research using a seven point Likertscale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. One open ended question was employed to get feedback from the respondents on how a luxury hotel can further make their stay exceptional.

Data analysis methods used include Independent samples t-test, Factor Analysis (with Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test), Reliability Testing. Face to face and online distribution of the questionnaire was used. Results of the purposive sampling were all analyzed in SPSS.

An independent samples t-test was used to determine if there is a significant difference in the means of the responses for the face to face and online surveys. The independent-samples t-test (or independent t-test, for short) compares the means between two unrelated groups on the same continuous, dependent variable (Laerd Statistics, 2018). Factor analysis for the results was applied to know the correlated hotel attributes. Factor analysis attempts to identify underlying variables, or factors, that explain the pattern of correlations within a set of observed variables. Factor analysis is often used in data reduction to identify a few

of the factors that explain most of the variance that is observed in a much larger number of manifest variables (IBM, 2011). To be able to proceed with Factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test is a measure of how suited the data is for Factor Analysis. The test measures sampling adequacy for each variable in the model and for the complete model (Statistics How To, 2016). Cronbach's Alpha was tested for Reliability Testing. Based on many empirical studies, it was proven that Cronbach's Alpha is one of the most widely used approaches to estimate internal consistency for reliability (Lim, Ting, Lee, Chua, & Tan, 2012).

FINDINGS

The findings in the actual study were collected based on 198 respondents with the assumption that: 1) the number included some Gen X and Gen Z as the information was grouped by age range, and, 2) not all the Gen Y travellers have stayed in luxury hotels, though the main population was based on the total number of Gen Y who travelled to Philippines to get the perception of the Gen Y tourist who could be the market of a luxury hotel.

Demographics and Travelling Patterns of Respondents

60.61% of those respondents are female and 36.87% are male, 3% did not disclose their gender. Majority of the respondents are 24-30 years old (58.59%), followed by 31-36 years old (28.28%) and 19-23 years old (10.61%), 2.53% did not disclose their age. In terms of nationalities, 80.30% are Asian, 9.60% are European, 4.04% are Australian, 2.02% are American, Other nationalities are 1.01% and African are 0.51% while 2.53% did not disclose their nationality.

For the marital status, 64.65% are single, 31.31% of the respondents are married, 1.01% are divorced/separated, others 0.51% and 2.53% did not disclose their marital status. Based on number of kids, 71.72% have no kids, followed by have 1 kid at 16.16% and 2 kids at 6.57%, more than 4 kids at 3.54% and 3 kids at 2.02%. For the monthly income levels, 33.84% of the respondents are earning below USD2000, 30.81% between USD2001-4000, 18.18% are earning between USD4001-6000, 12.12% are earning above USD6001 and 5.05% did not disclose their income levels. For the number of times they travel per year,

34.85% of the respondents say that they usually travel twice a year, 25.25% say they travel more than thrice a year, 19.19% travel thrice a year, 18.18% say once per year and 2.53% did not disclose travelling times. For the average number of days per travel, 54.55% say their travels usually last 3-6 days, 22.73% say about 1 week, 9.60% say about 2 weeks, 7.07% say about 2 days, 3.54% say more than 2 weeks, and 2.53% did not disclose. For the reasons on travelling, 66% say that it is always for pleasure, 26% are both, 5% are always on business and 3% did not disclose their reasons. For information source on hotel and travels, majority of the respondents rely on Internet at 86.36%, next is word of mouth at 65.66%, online reviews at 62.12%, social media at 21.72%, travel agency at 19.19%, print media at 13.13% and mobile travel apps at 8.59%

Among the 198 respondents, 34% were asked face to face and 66% answered online. Since there were 2 methods employed in the survey--face to face and online, an independent T test was done to test the significance of the 2 results. The independent T-test P ($T \leq t$) two tail result is more than 0.05 it shows that there is no significant difference in the mean responses for face to face and online.

Thus, there is no significant difference on the results for face to face and online method of surveying; the 2 results were combined for reliability Testing and Factor Analysis. Cronbach's Alpha is 0.894 which means that the questions are relatively high consistency as a value of 0.70 or higher is generally acceptable. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Test shows that there is a good number of samples to do factor analysis. Measure of Sampling Adequacy is 0.877 which indicates that we can proceed to continue with factor analysis. Factor Analysis resulted to 5 factors with 15 attributes out of the 23 attributes tested. Factors from this study were grouped as:

Factor 1: 15.03% Personalized service

This include: Personalized services, Recognition as return guest, Pre and post stay services

Factor 2: 15.00% Tangibles

This include: Cleanliness, Comfort, Complaint resolution, Over-all room condition

Factor 3: 14.69% Entertainment/Modern Equipment

This include: Modern Equipment, Modern Facilities, Food and Beverage outlets, Nice pool, Environmentally-friendly

Factor 4: 8.32% Recommended/Reviews

This include: Reviews, Recommended by friends and family

Factor 5: 7.34% Connectivity

This include: Wi-Fi

Factors that did not load include brand, safety, knowledgeable staff, quick-response to requests, unique atmosphere, fantastic view, location, value for money. 60% of the variance was explained by the above factors.

Other results and comments from the survey

Survey also shows that Gen Y segment usually looks at the Internet (via search engine) and believes the word of mouth and online reviews when they search for information related to which luxury hotel they should stay. The respondents reiterated that having exceptional and personalized service makes their stay memorable. They are willing to let go of some luxuries but they are very particular with the service.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

Results show that Gen Y's main expectations in a luxury hotel can be summarized into these 5 factors. In order of importance: 1) Personalized service, 2) Tangibles, 3) Entertainment/Modern Facilities, 4) Based on recommendations, 5) Wi-Fi Connectivity.

Looking at the VALS framework, it could be concluded that generally, Gen Y does not care about the brand as they are after discovery. Brand, safety, knowledgeable staff, quick-response to requests, unique atmosphere, fantastic view, location, value for money are some factors that did not load.

Gen Y are more of the "experiencers"- the group of consumers who have high resources but also need a mode of self-expression are known as Experiencers. Mostly characterized by young adults, it consists of people who want to experience being different. This class of consumers is filled up with early adopters who spend heavily on food, clothing, and other youthful products and services.(Bhasin, Hitesh, 2017) In the 5 factors that resulted in the study, it can be inferred that when it comes to expectations in luxury hotels, the Gen Y as "experiencers", would want to experience the

personalized service, the tangibles, the modern facilities of the luxury hotel to verify the recommendations. Wi-Fi loaded and supports the statement that Carlson Wagonlit Travel—a renowned international travel agency made about Gen Y travelers. Gen Y are the new breed of travelers who are very tech-savvy, and grew up with social media. (Morrissey, 2012). Social Media is an important tool in sharing these experiences.

The implications to the luxury hotel are great in terms of marketing and communication. The luxury hotels can leverage on these results and craft products and services apt to the Gen Y with a focus on the above factors. Highlight the importance of "experience" to target the Gen Y.

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FORECASTING OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM DEMAND TO TAIWAN USING THE ARIMAX MODEL USING THE RECURRENT NEURAL NETWORK MODEL

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INTRODUCTION

The international tourists visiting Taiwan from Mainland China, Japan, and South Korea are the major international tourist source markets for Taiwan. Nowadays, the Taiwanese tourism industry encounters great difficulties in a varying global tourist market due to the political tension between Taiwan and China, and competition from neighboring countries, and competition from neighboring countries.

The ARIMAX model (Harvey, 1990) combines AR (autoregressive) and MA (moving average) components of Box-Jenkins approach with the explanatory variables, and is employed for time series analysis and forecasting. In most circumstances, ARIMAX models can be better than econometric cause-effect and trend models on the basis of prediction ability by refining of the political and economic factors using the ARIMA models. There are some explanatory variables used in forecasting the number of international tourists. For using in tourism, Tsui *et al.* (2014) proposed the ARIMAX models for forecasting Hong Kong airport's international tourist throughput.

Neural networks are artificial intelligence forecasting approaches. Peng *et al.* (2014) proposes two forecasting models using radial basis function and support vector regression neural networks for the UK inbound tourism quarterly arrival data. Recurrent neural network model is a fairly new and promising neural network technology. Saad *et al.* (1998) employed recurrent neural networks for trend prediction in highly volatile stocks. The combination of the neural network model and other methods to solve problems recently has become a study field in the application of artificial neural networks. Genetic algorithms (Holland, 1975) is an optimization technology based on the principles of genetics and natural selection. Genetic algorithms

can be combined in neural networks to optimize the neural network structure topology design, containing input data combination, network structure and learning parameters. Applying the hot topic of deep learning, Jiang *et al.* (2017) also adopted modified genetic algorithm-based feature selection combined with pre-trained deep neural networks to forecast demand in outpatient departments.

Accordingly, this work presents the ARIMAX model to forecast numbers of international tourists to Taiwan from Mainland China, Japan, and South Korea to help the Taiwanese tourism industry. This work also compares the forecast accuracy of the ARIMAX model with that of the recurrent neural network model with genetic algorithms for forecasting the tourists from Mainland China, Japan, and South Korea. The findings of this study can contribute to management and policy-decision issues related to the tourism industry for Taiwan.

LITERATURE OVERVIEW

Most forecasting tourism demand researches used quantitative methods, covering time series models, the causal econometric models, big data analysis, and artificial intelligence approaches.

Time series models, such as numerous exponential smoothing models and the ARIMA (autoregressive integrated moving average) models, utilizes historical data to account for a variable and predict the future values.

Econometric models base on the causal relationships between the tourism demand and its impacting factors for forecasting.

Big data analysis mainly utilizes search engine and social media data for forecasting tourism demand. Lately, it become a hot topic for forecasting tourism demand. For instance, Huang *et al.* (2017) employed the Baidu index for predicting tourism

flow.

Neural networks are the most used among artificial intelligence approaches. Artificial neural networks are a computational model utilized in machine learning, computer science and other research disciplines, which is found on an extensive collection of artificial neuron nodes, loosely analogous to axons in a biological brain. Peng *et al.* (2014) proposes two forecasting models using radial basis function and support vector regression neural networks for the UK inbound tourism quarterly arrival data.

Baggio and Sainaghi (2016) suggested that there are two major focuses for tourism demand researches. First, evaluate the effect of different critical factors, including tourist incomes, destination prices compared to those in the origin country, prices in competing destinations, and exchange rates. Econometric models played a significant role in this field. Second, propose different methods to obtain the more accurate tourism demand forecasts, concerning numerous variables, including data frequency origin and destination pairs, forecasting horizon, competing

models, and variables.

METHOD

This study attempts to construct the ARIMAX model to analyze and forecast the international tourism demand. This study also analyzes relative consumer price index and relative exchange rate influences using the ARIMAX model. The ARIMAX model is expressed as following.

$$y_t = \mu + \sum_{i=1}^2 \frac{\Theta_i(B)}{\Phi_i(B)} B^i x_{it} + \varepsilon_t$$

$$\varepsilon_t = \frac{\Theta(B)}{\Phi(B)} a_t$$

Where Φ and Θ are seasonal AR (autoregressive) and MA (moving average) parts.

Next, employs the recurrent neural network model with genetic algorithms as a method to predict future the international tourists. The recurrent neural network model is simply expressed as following in Figure1.

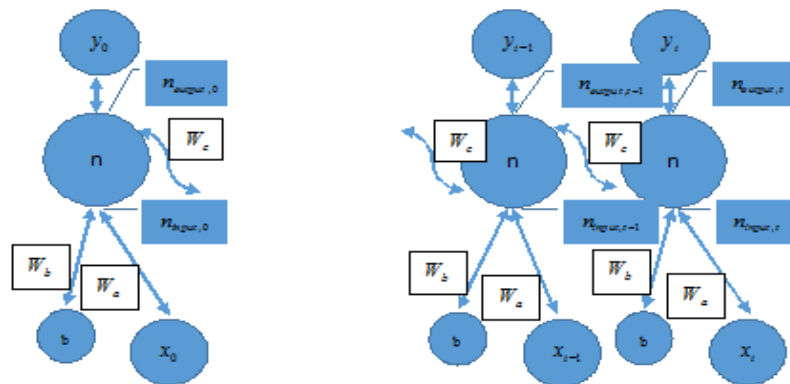


Figure 1. The recurrent neural network model

ELEMENTARY FINDINGS

This study collected the tourism demand data from the open statistical data of Taiwan’s Tourism Bureau, Ministry of Transportation and Communication. This study collects the data set of monthly tourism demand in the period from Jul 2008 to July 2016, and divided into a train set and a test set. This study uses the six-year data from Jul 2008 to December 2014 as the train set and uses the 2-years-and-seven-months data from January 2015 to July 2016 as the test set.

The results for the ARIMAX model and the recurrent neural network model with genetic algorithms for the international tourism demand series from Mainland China, Japan, and South Korea are illustrated in Table 1.

This study finds that the explanation power of the ARIMAX model is 93.0910 %, the international tourism demand series from Mainland China is influenced by economic factors, and exists the volatility effect and a seasonal cycle of twelve months.

This study finds that the explanation power

of the ARIMAX model is 57.0536%, the international tourism demand series from Japan is influenced by economic factors, and exists the volatility effect and a seasonal cycle of twelve months.

This study finds that the explanation power

of the ARIMAX model is South Korea %, the international tourism demand series from South Korea is influenced by economic factors, and exists the volatility effect and a seasonal cycle of twelve months.

Table 1. The results for the ARIMAX model and the neural network model with genetic algorithms for the international tourism demand series

Mainland China			
	MAD	MAPE	RMSE
ARIMAX	36099.41341	0.106238668	48044.58751
Recurrent networks with GA	339827.7385	0.101572756	42862.94421
Japan			
	MAD	MAPE	RMSE
ARIMAX	17349.03036	0.114809888	24257.72830
Recurrent networks with GA	17789.18010	0.126496778	22089.02815
South Korea			
	MAD	MAPE	RMSE
ARIMAX	14232.72143	0.228131231	15969.08237
Recurrent networks with GA	9109.219367	0.150692858	11387.46194

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The Taiwanese government has implement a series of plans to open up the inbound tourism market and boost the tourism industry development, and hope to bring more tourists. Forecasting the number of international tourists is both a demanding and important task for Taiwan. This work explores and forecasts the numbers of international tourists to Taiwan from Mainland China, Japan, and South Korea using two models, of which the recurrent neural network model with genetic algorithms is better than the ARIMAX model for Mainland China and South Korea, and worse than f Japan. The neural network model with genetic algorithms can generate forecasts without additional assumptions and limitations because of its nonparametric properties, the ARIMAX model needs to incorporate the explainable variables. However, the ARIMAX model can offer richer information, such as trends, seasonality, economic variables relating to prices and exchange rates, autoregressive terms and moving average terms. The results by the ARIMAX model and the neural network model with genetic algorithms can provide a basis for planning and

implementing policy, in particular in resource allocation, by investors and managers in tourism.

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PERCEIVED INFLUENCE AND AVAILABILITY OF INTERNET-BASED INFORMATION CHANNELS

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INTRODUCTION

Information search is identified by many studies as one of the first steps of travel decision-making process (Fodness & Murray, 1998; Gursoy & Umbreit, 2004; Ho, Lin, Yuan, & Chen, 2016). The widespread of Internet-based information channels (IIC) not only empower destination management organizations (DMOs) to disseminate travel information, also revolutionize the way tourists searching information. Tourists take alternative approach to obtain travel-related information (Ho et al, 2016), specially through the social media (e.g. Line, WeChat, Facebook). The smartphone has become the primary instrument used by tourists to download all sorts of social media Apps, which are used to search for information (Bonjisse & Morais, 2017) and purpose tourism products (Ho, et al., 2016; Springer, 2018) With applications in place, these gadgets can immensely help the traveler take a “journey” through the information superhighway- the internet (Ahmed and Kadir, 2013).

When destination management organizations (DMOs) come to consider disseminating information, they face two main questions: which channel should be used to disperse the information more effective? and which source of information is cost the least. The statistic shows the number of outbound travelers in the Philippines are steadily growing and will reach approximately 4.3 million trips in 2021 (UNWTO, 2017). IIC has widely adopted for assisting external information search in the past decades, however there is still a gap between the availability and perceived-influence of information sources. Tourists have been using online channel in addition to traditional channels either as a supplement or as primary channels. The

continued use of traditional channels brings the question of what strategy should a destination marketing organizations take in channel budget allocation. To fill-in this gap, this work tries to explore how tourists perceive the influence of IIC on the decision-making of their oversea trip. The effort further examines the availability of information sources, and how two factors related to each other.

Influences of Online Information Channels

ICC has changed the way people plan and information search for their trips. As of 2019, 56.1% of the world’s population has Internet access, 70% of tourists begin travel information search online (Google Travel Study, 2013). Apparently, online information channels have served as great influencers to travel decision and purchase intentions of tourists is its contents. A study that was conducted by Tripadvisor with 7,000 users, indicate that consumers look at the following: descriptions of the postings, the type of website and the date of the posting of the review. Gretzel (2007) on the one hand, reported that potential users evaluate consumers’ comments/materials and the blogs of travellers. Mudambi (2010) on the other hand, found that customers consider reviews on product and services. He further reported that information on the quality of the product and the seller can increase the certainty and accuracy of the purchase decisions of the travellers. Arsal, Baldwin & Backman (2010) stated that travellers specifically seek reviews on the safety of the tourist sites. The authors added that the quality of a trip and the risks involved can be obtained through searching of information. The issue of potential risks in a destination is magnified by intangible character of tourism products and tourism experience. This makes the accessibility of sources of information

more important. Online formats easily re-shape the images of a certain destination and this in turn, can be easily transmitted or cascaded to any online users.

The IIC provide various types of travel information such as alternative destinations, the attractions it offers and the options for activities/adventures that one can do in a destination, transportations available, fares or fees, and events or festivals. Using various search engines such as Google, Bing and Yahoo, tourists have freedom to choose where to get information to organize their trip before visiting the destination such as TripAdvisor, travel reviews, blogs, vlogs, or even social media. These websites also facilitate the search and selection of flights from among various air couriers, complete with price comparison thereby making booking and buying tickets easy. E-tickets for flights and other means of major transportation have freed the tourist from the hassle of printing and carrying around ticket print outs. The various search engines and social media platforms also host websites and blogs from which the tourist can choose accommodations in their chosen destination. Lodging facilities abound from posh hotels to the utilitarian AirbNb, Bed & Breakfast, inns, motels and other types of accommodation. All these can be searched from the likes of Expedia, Travelocity, TripAdvisor, CheapOAir, among others. Technology can show the features of the hotel through uploaded pictures of the facilities and their owners. In fact, the latter helps in the selection by some tourists of their accommodation. The internet also provides the tourist easy information for local types of transportation, fares and travel guides and maps. For the gourmets or tourists who seek the ultimate sensorial experience, the internet readily provides information on the destination's cuisine, food hubs and other food and gift attractions. Also available are details on other tourism-related products and even advisories on safety and security, climate, cultural taboos and other information that will make the stay of tourists truly memorable. Truly, the internet has become the tourist's window to the world.

INTERNET-BASED INFORMATION CHANNELS USED IN TRAVEL AND LEISURE

There are seven types of online information channels. Also called digital channels, these are as

follows: web, search engines, communication, apps, online events, digital media and games (<https://simplicable.com/new/digital-channels>). The web is represented mainly by web sites that include social media and video sharing sites. The search is represented by engine results that are obtained from various search engines. A search engine is a web-based based tool that helps users to locate and obtain information from the World Wide Web (www). It is so called the www because "spiders" gather information that create a searchable index of the Web. Commonly-used search engines are Google, Yahoo!, Bing and MSN Search. Communication is represented by communication tools such as email or messaging applications. Apps on the one hand, are mobile applications that are launched by brands or ecommerce site as a means to create mileage and increase sale. Examples of online events are live streaming of activities such as basketball games, a beauty pageant among others. Digital media are represented by the blending of technology and contents to create digital media products such as a weather app on a smartphone, a racing game on a video game console and an ultrasound imaging device in a hospital. These are made accessible in machine-readable formats. Products of digital media can be created, viewed, distributed, modified and preserved on digital (<https://simplicable.com/new/digital-channels>). Games are digital games are designed to be accessed and played using a computer, videogame console, mobile device or interactive television. The players have the capability to manipulate the outcome of the game by controlling the images in their computer and television monitors.

Except game, tourists and other travellers use a mix of internet-based information channels. Using search engines such as Google, Bing, Facebook and Yahoo, they access a particular website to know more about a tourism destination or product. The whole wide web provides just any information, possibilities and alternatives that a tourist needs to arrive at a travel decision. Videos of Further queries on these products and services are made through communication channels such as emails and messengers, blog sites, among others. Video sharing is rampant and the more viral a video is, the more mileage it obtains. Thus, tourism companies use these social media sites for a quick sales pitch of their products especially if their target market are

the millennial generation and other technology-savvy generations. Live streaming of social events in tourist destinations are also a common marketing strategy that facilitates the decision-making process of a tourist in reaching out to a certain destination. Weather forecast in digital media can also be a useful tool in matching the destinations and the dates of travel including activities. Surely, online information channels have practically presented the world to the traveller on a silver platter and there are simply endless possibilities.

METHOD

This study uses data from a the Philippines Oversea Tourist survey administered between October 2018 and February 2019 by the jointed efforts of Tunghai University and University of Philippines in Philippines. The respondents were filtered by their intention in taking overseas trip within one year and asked the availability of 14 information channels. The survey asked respondents their perceived effectiveness of each channel on their travel decision on a five point scale.

There are two primary research that are employed in this study to analyze the survey data. The first method is the use of descriptive statistics examining the mean, standard deviations, and range of the data. The second method is through t-test examining how the two factor outlined in the literature review of demographics and the travel style explain the differences in channel choice.

FINDINGS

The overall goal of this study is to better understand the channel preferences of Pilipino on obtaining travel-related information. The first objective of this study is to identify which information sources have high level of perceived influence on choosing travel destination. Table 1 shows the information sources that respondents expressed the perceived characteristics of information channels to as Filipino engaging in travel related information search. Filipinos are a

clannish people which explains why they rely so much on the advice of their relatives and friends for important decisions. Wanh, Chen and Chou (2007 in Ahmed and Kadir, 2013) reported that husbands have the greatest influence in the final travel purchases. The internet also practically plays an important role in the everyday life of every computer and/or mobile phone-literate Filipino since the technology's inception. The television is one of the most popular appliances in every Filipino homes which explains why the respondents expressed agreement that television programs are important to Filipinos. This can be gleaned from the likes of "Eat Bulaga," a long-time, high-rated TV variety show in the Philippines which partnered with the Philippine Department of Tourism in showcasing local tourist spots through its Ms. Millennium segment. The segment is a beauty pageant that features various destinations with their attractions, local cuisine/food products and local beauties. This show provides a wider marketing mileage and has served as a great influencing factor of the destination choices of Filipinos. Travel guide books especially with colored pictures, also come handy as sources of information. These are available in local tourism offices.

The respondents were also in agreement that advertisements on television are also good information sources. Bonding among family members especially during night time and weekends, usually revolve around the television set. This explains its strong influence as a venue for advertisements. Evensen and Clarke (2001, p. 395 in Ahmed and Kadir, 2013) mentioned the importance of efficacy information such as print, television and internet particularly when responding to risks. Nowadays, people will support this with blogging. Blogs however, are sometimes suspected to be "planted" by the very companies that are being reviewed, This possibility dilutes the trust of the consumers. The authors further concluded that the decision of potential tourists is based on the images and perceptions that they develop from the information that they have absorbed from these media.

Table 1. The Perceived Characters of Fourteen Types of Information Channels (n=417)

Information Sources	Easily Accessible		Heavily Influence	
	Mean	Std	Mean	Std
A travel agent	3.19	1.15	2.99	1.34
An Internet website	4.45	0.80	4.02	0.99
An electronic newsletter or magazine received by e-mail (III)	3.48	1.08	2.76	1.11
Articles in newspapers/magazines	3.35	1.02	3.00	1.17
Advertisements in newspapers/magazines (III)	3.31	1.04	2.96	1.14
Travel guide books (I)	3.31	1.07	3.36	1.15
Advice of friends or relatives/word-of-mouth	4.26	0.92	4.17	0.96
Visits to trade, travel or sportsmen's shows (III)	3.15	1.14	2.92	1.19
Programs on television (I)	3.62	1.06	3.30	1.15
Advertisements on television (I)	3.57	1.06	3.12	1.17
Travel information received in the mail (III)	3.16	1.07	2.79	1.13
Official travel guides or brochures from provincial/state/national organizations (I)	3.27	1.10	3.25	1.18
Cinema advertising (III)	3.08	1.11	2.71	1.19
Billboard (III)	3.14	1.12	2.60	1.15

In terms of the list of information sources that are easy to access, the respondents expressed “strong agreement”(s=0.63593) to the presence of “an internet website.” Truly, its accessibility is made possible not only by the computer but also by the ubiquitous mobile phone and tablets, three of the popular gadgets among Filipinos. Buhalis (1998) emphasized that the use of internet technologies enables consumers to communicate directly with tourism organizations for their requests for information and purchase of products. An ‘agree’ response for the rest of the list of information sources was elicited from the respondents in terms of their accessibility. These include the following: a travel agent, an electronic newsletter or magazine received by e-mail, articles in newspapers/

magazines, travel guide books, advice of friends or relatives/word-of-mouth, programs and advertisements on television, travel information received in the mail, official travel guides or brochures from provincial/state/national organizations and information from the other sources. Word-of-mouth as a means of propagating information has evolved into travel blogs. An exception was observed with “visits to trade, travel or sportsmen’s shows, cinema advertising and billboards, which elicited a “neutral” response. Big travel shows are a rare occurrence, usually twice a year in a mall or a convention center which are located along Manila Bay, outside the core of the metropolis. Cinema advertising and billboards in the Philippines also rarely feature travel information.

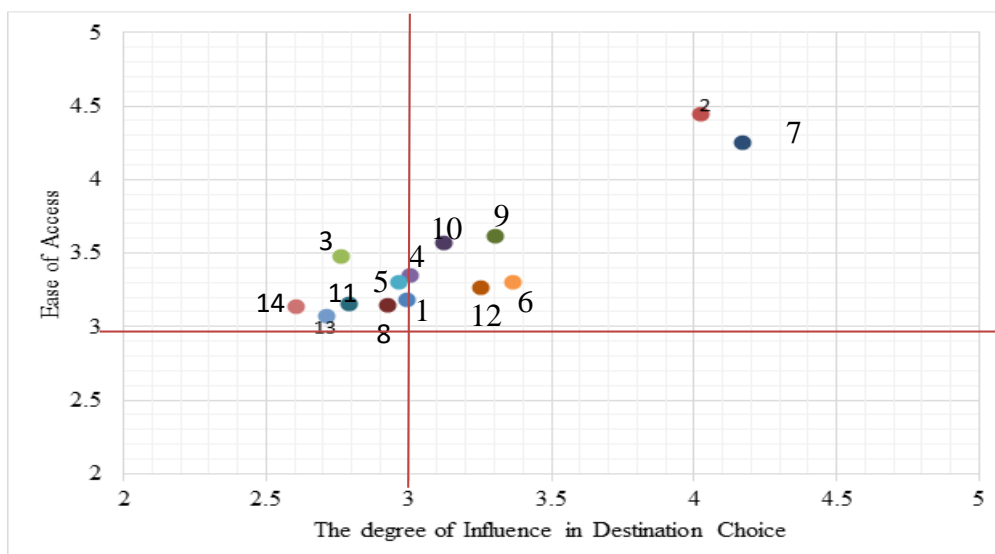


Figure 1. The degree of influence on destination choice and ease of access for fourteen information channels

Figure 1 further reveals the degree of influence and ease of access of fourteen information channels. #2 Internet Web site and #7 Word of Mouth fall at the upper right side corner of the first quadrant. This suggests that the two channels are identified by respondents as both ease of access and heavily influence on their destination choice. #6 Travel guide book, #9 Program on Television, #10 Advertisements on television, and #12 Official travel guides or brochures from DMOs also fall into the first quadrant, and are much close to the lower left corner. Those four information channels are relatively more influential on destination choice and ease of access in comparing with those information channels fall into the third quadrant, they are more good way to disseminate information to Pilipino who plan their oversea trips. #13 Cinema advertising and # 14 Billboard are two information channels perceived as the least influential destination choice and also are least ease of access. Surprisingly, #1 Travel agent is not so much influential as expected. #3 message sent out via email is the ease of access while not influential in destination choice. This finding suggests that email might be cost less while not an effective way to disseminate travel-related information.

CONCLUSION

This study established that the internet particularly is the most important (agree) and accessible source of information (strongly agree) to Filipino outbound tourists. Other most important sources include feedback from their family and relatives, television programs and advertisements, and the reliable travel guide books. These four sources and the rest of the information sources except visits to trade, travel or sportsmen's shows, cinema advertising and billboards, were also chosen

(agree) by the respondents as accessible to them. This shows that the information technology now plays an important part of the Filipino tourist's travel decision.

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CLASSIFYING TOURISM ATTRACTION FOR CHINESE INDEPENDENT TRAVELERS

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INTRODUCTION

In 2017, Chiang Mai was one of the third important tourism destinations in Thailand (exclude Bangkok, Chiang Mai has the number of tourists arrival followed Chonburi (Pattaya) and Phuket). Besides, Chiang Mai is one of the popular destinations among Chinese tourists (Kaosa-ard et al., 2016). After the “Lost in Thailand” was launched in December, 2012 it made a lot of Chinese people know about Chiang Mai and wish to visit there. According to data from Tourism Department (2019), it was found that, in 2013, a

number of Chinese tourists visiting Chiang Mai increased from that of 2012 for 3.5 times and market share expanded from 4.13% in 2012 to 13.35% in 2013. After that, a number of Chinese tourists increased continually, the expansion rate of Chinese tourists in Chiang Mai during 2012-2018 was 64.97% per year on average. This resulted in the market share of Chinese tourists accounted for 34.51% of all foreign tourists in Chiang Mai. Part of it was due to an increase in airplane flights from China to Chiang Mai and seat capacity of each flight from various provinces in Chiang Mai (Kaosa-ard et al., 2016).

Table 1. The Number of Chinese and European Tourists Arrivals at Accommodation Establishments in Chiang Mai.

Year	Chinese tourists		European tourists		Foreign tourists (Million)
	Number (Million)	Proportion (%)	Number (Million)	Proportion (%)	
2009	0.020	1.94	0.352	34.51	1.020
2010	0.029	2.61	0.370	33.27	1.111
2011	0.063	3.41	0.704	38.09	1.849
2012	0.080	4.13	0.687	35.51	1.936
CAGR (%)	59.23	28.63	24.97	0.96	23.79
2013	0.280	13.35	0.745	35.51	2.098
2014	0.420	20.02	0.745	35.51	2.098
2015	0.568	22.14	0.785	30.60	2.564
2016	0.812	30.97	0.689	26.28	2.621
2017	0.978	34.51	0.689	24.33	2.832
CAGR (%)	36.69	26.80	-1.93	-9.02	7.79

Remark: CAGR = Compound Annual Growth Rate.

Source: Department of Tourism (2019).

Expansion leap of a number of Chinese tourists and market share in Chiang Mai makes Chinese tourist is very important compared with European tourists, which used to be the main foreign tourists. However, the latter tourist market has

declined since 2013 (Table 1). Thus, it is seemed that the expansion of Chinese tourists since 2013 has affected change of foreign tourist market structure in Chiang Mai.

Although, as a whole, tourists of all markets

have no difference in need for products and services concerning with tourism. In details, however, tourists of each market surely have different behavior and need for products/services related to having tourism based on their socio-economic attributes and culture (heterogeneous or disaggregated individuals). Therefore, structural change of foreign tourist market in Chiang Mai has an effect on the adaptation of both managerial administration policy and the provision of service of tourist market. This adaptation needs to have data or information related to new knowledge and understanding about need for expected products and services of Chinese tourists visiting Chiang Mai. This aims to impress and satisfy Chinese tourists, which will result in positive future behavior intention as tell others to visit Chiang Mai, or they may visit Chiang Mai again as well as the ability to complete in Chinese tourist market of Chiang Mai.

The main objective of this article is to classify the importance of Chiang Mai tourism attributes in accordance with impacts on different Chinese tourists' satisfaction. The sample group was Chinese tourists who were the free individual traveler (FIT). This was because they were included as a market group having potential and continual expansion in Chiang Mai since 2013 (Kaosa-ard et al., 2016). In this study, a concept of an analysis of three-factor structure of customer satisfaction and penalty-reward analysis were applied. Obtained results of the study were key data used for the determination of importance sequencing of the improvement of Chiang Mai tourism attributes, which conforms to needs of the Chinese tourists. It also helped manage importance sequencing of strategies used for the competition of tourism market as well as the elevation of quality of Chiang Mai tourism attributes. Furthermore, the author hoped that this study would encourage concerned parties to apply this concept to classify the attributes of products and service affecting the creation of different total satisfaction of tourists rather than considering only the total satisfaction. This will help the businesses and related agencies to have an empirical data for improving and enhancing the quality of products and services which can help maintain increase overall satisfaction of the tourists. Then, the destination can complete in both short and long term sustainability.

LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the important characteristics of tourism is that this product comprises of diverse products and services (not a homogeneous good or not a single industry) and satisfaction arises from the consumption of tourism product and service gain the influence from different producers within the industry (Yilmaz and Bittitci, 2006; Zhang, Song and Huang, 2009). Hence, it must rely on distinctive producers to create satisfaction of tourist. In other words, tourists' satisfaction arises from different and diverse destination attributes, which may be tangible or intangible (Albayrak and Caber, 2013). Tourists do not only want to visit tourist destination but also expect to gain diverse experiences arise from value co-creation between them and all parties concerning with tourist destination.

In addition, coordination of all parties involved in constructing the destination with different and diverse attributes (Gunn, 1994; Leiper, 2004) is the motivation to make tourists visit tourist destination (Dann, 1977; Lee Guillet, Law and Leung, 2011). This also makes tourists gain experience and impression from visiting tourist destination. Thus, an important goal of concerned agencies is to allocate budgets and resources for the development, improvement and elevate the quality of destination attributes which can create the most tourist overall satisfaction (Mikulic and Prebezac, 2008; Albayrak and Caber, 2013).

Tourist satisfaction is one of the indicators of service quality and success of tourism development (Kazak, 2004; Chi and Qu, 2008). Also, it is popularly used to measure or assess quality of products and services which are components of tourism (Juga, Juntunen and Grant, 2010; Albayrak and Caber, 2013). It is in the form of performance measuring which tourists gain from product and service using. Service provision or responsiveness to needs of tourist is what they expect primarily and it is an important thing creating tourist satisfaction. Besides, this satisfaction is used for planning to create competitive advantage (Tsai, Chen, Chan and Lin, 2011) as well as enhance competitive potential for tourist destinations (Fuchs and Weiermair, 2004).

Therefore, the understanding of needs and satisfaction of tourists is an important condition which concerned personnel employ it for strategic planning

to create competitive advantage (Tsai, Chen and Liu, 2011; Zhang, Ye, Song and Liu, 2015). Moreover, tourist satisfaction also affects behaviors intension of tourists such as revisit and word of mouth (Yi and La, 2004; Ryu and Han, 2010; Barber, Goodman and Goh, 2011; Zhang, Yi, Song and Liu, 2015). It is a continuous effect to gain profits or incomes in the future for business concerning with tourism (Bolton, 1998; Mittal and Kamakura, 2001; Busacca and Padula, 2005; Albayrak and Caber, 2013).

Previous studies showed that destination attributes had an effect on the difference in tourist satisfaction (Deng, 2007; Alegre and Garau, 2011; Albayrak and Caber, 2013; Zhang, Ye, Song and Liu, 2015). Destination attributes can classify into three types base on impacts on tourist satisfaction: 1) cresting satisfaction, 2) avoidance of dissatisfaction, and 3) outcomes of creating satisfaction and avoidance of dissatisfaction (Fuchs and Weiermair, 2003, 2004; Füller and Matzler, 2007; Alegre and Garau, 2011). This guideline is used to develop a concept of three-factors structure for customer satisfaction, which can be applied to the classification of destination attributes as proposed by Matzler and Sauewein (2002) as follows:

1) Basic attributes – which are minimum requirements that the tourists expect to obtain or experience when they visit their destination. They will be dissatisfied if they do not obtain or experience it. However, the attributes of this group are “a necessary but not sufficient condition for satisfaction”.

2) Performance attributes – which have a direct effect on tourist satisfaction. That is, the tourists will be satisfied (or dissatisfied), if they receive (or not receive) these attributes at the destination. It is an important attribute which the destination uses for competition to satisfy tourists.

3) Excitement attributes – these are not expected, so they lead to tourists' satisfaction if they are present, while they will be not cause dissatisfaction if they are not provided. This group of excitement attributes helps make competitive advantage of the destination.

The classification of destination attributes as mentioned is essential to set a guideline for create an overall satisfaction of tourist. Furthermore, it is important to establish a guideline for improving the attribute quality according to the priority giving to

the creation of tourists' overall satisfaction (Matzler et al., 2004; Füller and Matzler, 2007; Zhang, Ye, Song and Liu, 2013). It also enhances competitive potential or tourism competitiveness to the destination. Previously, there was the application of this concept for the classification of destination attributes based on impacts on tourist satisfaction (Füller, Matzler and Faullant, 2006; Deng, 2007; Alegre and Garau, 2011) by using two important analysis methods as follows:

1) Penalty-reward analysis (Brandt, 1987) – which is an analysis on the basis of assumption that satisfaction with each attribute of the destination affects overall satisfaction with each attribute of the destination influence on overall satisfaction in the form of nonlinear and asymmetrical.

2) Importance-grid (Vavra, 1997) – which is a comparative analysis between explicit importance (stated important) and implicit importance (correlation coefficient between overall satisfaction and stated importance) of each attribute of the destination.

Both methods have different assumption and condition and it has not yet be concluded which method is better to classify the basic factor of satisfaction (Matzler and Sauewein, 2002). Moreover, both methods give different results (Matzler and Sauewein, 2002; Bartikowski and Llosa, 2004; Busacca and Padula, 2005; Alegre and Garau, 2001). However, Matzler and Sauewein (2002) pointed out to the convergent validity of importance-grid method. While, the study of Alegre and Garau (2011) found that penalty-reward analysis was better than importance-grid analysis based on the classification of factor structure of satisfaction. Hence, this study chose the method of penalty-reward for an analysis because obtained results implied the impacts which are asymmetrical of both positive and negative in each attribute on the overall satisfaction in Chiang Mai tourism of Chinese independent tourists.

METHOD

This study applied the concept of three-factors of satisfaction of component structure and penalty-reward analysis method (Brandt, 1987) for the classification of Chiang Mai tourism attributes for Chinese independent tourists. According to the assumption, each attribute of Chiang Mai tourism

has influence on overall satisfaction of Chinese independent tourists (both positive and negative effect) in the form of asymmetrical (Brandt, 1987; Matzler and Sauwein, 2002; Alegre and Garau, 2011). This means that a high level of satisfaction with some tourism attributes might not affect overall satisfaction whereas a low level of satisfaction with some attributes of Chiang Mai tourism alters overall satisfaction. In other words, it can be said that a decreased (or an increased) of overall satisfaction from the satisfied (or dissatisfied) of tourists on each attribute of the destination may not be equal.

Penalty-reward analysis applies multiple regression model to analyze the relationships between the satisfaction with each attribute of Chiang Mai tourism on overall satisfaction of Chinese independent tourists, which might be linear

or nonlinear (Busacca and Padula, 2005; Alegre and Garau, 2011; Zhang, Ye, Song and Liu, 2015). The independent variable in the regression equation was overall satisfaction (OS) with Chiang Mai tourism of the Chinese independent tourists. Meanwhile, the dependent variable included dummy variables which were determined from the satisfaction with each attribute (component) of Chiang Mai tourism. Those dummies capture the asymmetric effect as they reflect a reward (positive sign) and penalty (negative sign) with each of those attributes. The constant of the regression model captures the mean of the overall satisfaction for all Chinese independent tourists expressing indifference toward all Chiang Mai tourism attributes (Alegre and Garau, 2011). This can be shown as a mathematical equation as follows:

$$OS = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=0}^n (\beta_{pi} D_{pi} + \beta_{ri} D_{ri}) + \varepsilon$$

Where:

- OS = Overall satisfaction of tourists
- D_{pi} = Dummy variables in the case of reward attribute i
when $D_{pi} = 1$ is high level of tourist satisfaction with attribute i
 $D_{pi} = 0$ is others
- D_{ri} = Dummy variables in the case of penalty attribute i
when $D_{ri} = 1$ is lower level of tourist satisfaction with attribute i
 $D_{ri} = 0$ is others
- $\beta_0, \beta_{pi}, \beta_{ri}$ = coefficient
- ε = residual

Regarding the frequency of the score of satisfaction with each attribute of Chiang Mai tourism, it was found that the distribution of data is Skewness to the right. Hence dummy variables were defined using the following criteria: it took value one, reflecting reward (D_r) or penalty (D_p) if the score of the overall satisfaction with that attribute was above the mean plus (or minus) standard deviation; it took the value zero in other case (26 dummy variables from 13 tourism attributes). After that, the dummy variable set was used to find the relationship with the overall satisfaction score on Chiang Mai tourism by using regression equation. Meanwhile, coefficient of the regression equation was estimated by using ordinary least square (OLS) with bootstrapping method. An inspection of statistical condition violation of the assumptions of the econometric modeling identifies a potential heteroscedasticity problem that was solved using robust estimation proposed by White

(1980) (heteroscedasticity-consistent covariance matrix estimator).

Once the coefficients are estimated, hypothesis testing with a statistical 90% significant level of confidence is applied to classify the Chiang Mai tourism attributes in each of the groups of the three-factors structure of consumer satisfaction following the criteria defines by previous applications (Matzler and Sauerwein, 2002; Alegre and Garau, 2011; Albayrak and Caber, 2013):

1) Basic attributes: the coefficient of the reward dummy variable (β_r) must be less than the coefficient of the penalty dummy variable (β_p) [$\beta_r < \beta_p$]. Any attribute falling in this group can be identified as the minimum requirement expected by the Chinese independent tourists. The lack of this attribute will cause the dissatisfaction of tourists on Chiang Mai tourism. However, this attribute does not make Chinese independent tourists satisfies with

Chiang Mai tourism.

2) Excitement attributes: the coefficient of the reward dummy variable (β_r) is statistically equal to the coefficient of the penalty dummy variable (β_p) [$\beta_r = \beta_p$]. Any attribute falling in this group can be identified as an important attribute that Chiang Mai tourism can use to compete in the Chinese independent tourists market. This was because an increase or a decrease in satisfaction with the attributes in this group would have an effect on satisfaction or dissatisfaction towards travelling in Chiang Mai.

3) Excitement attributes: the coefficient of the reward dummy variable (β_r) is higher than that the coefficient of the penalty dummy variable (β_p) [$\beta_r > \beta_p$]. Any attribute of Chiang Mai tourism falling into this group can be considered as an innovation which was important to enhance the competitive advantage of Chiang Mai tourism.

Data in this study were obtained from a questionnaire distributed to a sample of 524 Chinese independent tourists in Chiang Mai tourist spots where are the major attractions of this group of tourists as Chiang Mai University, Nimmanhaemin Road including Chiang Mai International Airport during April-August, 2015. The respondents were selected by accidental sampling.

The questionnaire uses 7-points Likert scale to capture the satisfaction level with 13 items of Chiang Mai tourism attributes, and the overall satisfaction related with traveling in Chiang Mai. The items included the following: 1) atmosphere in Chiang Mai city, 2) walking street (such as Thapae, Wualai, etc.), 3) temple/historic sites, 4) accommodation, 5) restaurants/bistros, 6) coffee shop, 7) shop for shopping, 8) spa/ massage, 9) nightlife and night activities, 10) cleanliness (include hygiene) and safety, 11) local transportations, 12) hospitable of people and 13) reasonably priced.

FINDINGS

The presentation of results of the study comprised two parts: 1) the information about Chiang Mai tourism of the respondents and 2) results of the penalty-reward analysis and the classification of Chiang Mai tourism attributes in accordance with the three-factors structure on consumer satisfaction.

The Information about Chiang Mai Tourism of the Respondents

Results of the study revealed that most of the respondents were new generations, aged less than 35 years, bachelor's degree graduates and above, private company employees with a monthly income of 3,000-9,000 Yuan (15,000-45,000 Baht), and came from southern provinces of China such as Guangdong, Sichuan, Zhejiang, Jiangsu, Yunnan, Shanghai etc. More than 90% of the respondents visited Chiang Mai for the first time for relaxation. Ten percent of the respondents claimed that they decided to visit Chiang Mai because of the influence of the movie (Lost in Thailand). The respondents preferred to visit Chiang Mai in group (four persons on average) and they preferred to visit Chiang Mai with friends rather than family/relatives. They sought for data in order to make a decision to visit Chiang Mai from website such as Qunar.com and Ctrip.com and from social media/application such as WeChart Weibo. About one-half of the respondents got data about Chiang Mai tourism from friends or relatives.

Most of the respondents (70%) used three main airlines to visit Chiang Mai (direct flights from southern and eastern China such as Shanghai, Guangdong, Chongqing, etc.). More than 90 percent of the respondents stayed in hotels/resorts with an average expense of 300 Yuan per night (1,500-1,650 Baht per night). They preferred to use "red car" service rather than car rent service and almost 70 percent of those who used car rent service rent motorcycle. More than one-half of the respondents spent 4,000-10,000 baht/day/person and stayed in Chiang Mai for 3 nights 4 days.

Regarding the respondent satisfaction, it was found that tourism services and products in Chiang Mai still not be responsive to needs and feeling of the respondents. This was particularly on local transportations, reasonably priced, restaurants/bistros, cleanliness (include hygiene) and safety. According to the hypothesis testing, it was found that socio-economic attributes and spending for Chiang Mai tourism had no effect on the difference in the respondent satisfaction with a statistical significance level at 0.10.

Results of the Penalty-Reward Analysis

According to results of the coefficient

estimation of the regression equation between overall satisfaction with Chiang Mai tourism and the 26 dummy variables, it showed that the dummy variable of each attribute had influence on difference satisfaction. Meanwhile, the coefficient of some dummy variables had no influence on overall satisfaction with Chiang Mai tourism with a statistical significance level at 0.10. It could be said that the coefficient of the said dummy variables was equivalent to zero. Hence, the dummy variables were deleted from the model and then estimation was done by choosing only the dummy variables having influence on the overall satisfaction or its coefficient was difference from zero with a statistical significance level at 0.10.

According to Table 2, there were 17 dummy variables out of 26 variables that had an influence on overall satisfaction with Chiang Mai tourism. In the case of reward (D_r), there were dummy variables of four attributes having no influence on the overall satisfaction with a statistical significance level at 0.10. These included walking street, coffee shop, nightlife and night activities, and hospitable of people. This implied that a high level of the respondent satisfaction with the four attributes had no influence on an increased overall satisfaction. In the case of penalty (D_p), there were dummy variables of four attributes having no influence on

overall satisfaction with Chiang Mai tourism with a statistical significance level at 0.10. These included atmosphere in Chiang Mai city, accommodation, spa/massage, cleanliness (include hygiene) and safety. This denoted that a low level of the respondent satisfaction with these four attributes had no influence on a decrease in the overall satisfaction.

Regarding the coefficient of constant, it showed that the respondents had mean score of 5.596 (out of 7) in terms of their overall satisfaction. Meanwhile, coefficient of determination (R^2) of the model was equivalent to 0.661. This meant that variance of the 17 dummy variables could explain the variance of overall satisfaction for 66.1 percent.

For coefficient of the penalty-reward model obtained from the estimation by using ordinary least square with bootstrapping method, it was found that atmosphere in Chiang Mai city was the most important attribute causing an increased overall satisfaction of the respondent. Meanwhile, the respondents would be dissatisfied most if there was no reasonably priced and hospitable of local people. It could be observed that basic attributes had more influence than excitement attributes. This implied that the respondents would be dissatisfied a lot if there was no attribute in the basic attributes group and excitement attributes could not replace it.

Table 2. Results of The Estimation of Coefficient by using OLS with Bootstrapping Method.

Chiang Mai tourism attributes	D_r (Reward)		D_p (Penalty)		p -value of $H_0 = \beta_r + \beta_p = 0$
	β_r	p -value	β_p	p -value	
1. Atmosphere in Chiang Mai city	0.228 ^{***}	0.000	-	-	-
2. Waling street	-	-	-0.151 ^{***}	0.003	-
3. Temple/historic sites	0.133 ^{***}	0.005	-0.202 ^{***}	0.000	0.363
4. Accommodation	0.083 [*]	0.075	-	-	-
5. Restaurants/bistros	0.130 ^{**}	0.014	-0.180 ^{***}	0.001	0.531
6. Coffee shop	-	-	-0.150 ^{**}	0.011	-
7. Shop for shopping	0.166 ^{***}	0.001	-0.122 ^{**}	0.029	0.579
8. Spa/ massage	0.147 ^{***}	0.002	-	-	-
9. Nightlife and activities	-	-	-0.184 ^{***}	0.000	-
10. Cleanliness (include hygiene) and safety	0.083 ^{**}	0.050	-	-	-
11. Local transportation s	0.151 ^{***}	0.007	-0.122 ^{***}	0.001	0.707
12. Hospitality of people	-	-	-0.200 ^{***}	0.000	-
13. Reasonable priced	0.165 ^{***}	0.001	-0.226 ^{***}	0.000	0.436
Constant	5.596 ^{***} (p -value = 0.000)				

Note : R-squared (R^2) = 0.662, Adj. R-squared = 0.649.

: Solving the problem in heteroscedasticity by using heteroscedasticity-consistent covariance matrix estimator.

: ^{***}, ^{**}, and ^{*} shows a statistical significance level at 0.01, 0.05, and 0.10, respectively.

The classification of Chiang Mai tourism attributes in accordance with the criteria proposed by Brandt (1987) needed to have systematic effects hypothesis testing. In the case of Chiang Mai tourism attributes had influence on overall satisfaction of the respondents (positive/negative) with a statistical significance level at 0.10 (5 attributes), Wald test was used for hypothesis testing that the coefficient of the both dummy variables (β_r and β_p) was equal for each attribute of Chiang Mai tourism (in absolute values) or the statistical hypothesis was $H_0: \beta_r + \beta_p = 0$. In Table 2, column p -value of dummy variable D_r (reward) and D_p (penalty) present the p -value of the hypothesis testing on the basis of coefficient of dummy variable D_r and D_p were equivalent to zero (or $H_0:$

$\beta_r = 0$ and $H_0: \beta_p = 0$).

The results as presented in Table 2 shows the testing results only in the case of main hypotheses were rejected. It could be concluded that tourism attributes in each aspect had influence on overall satisfaction in the form of asymmetrical. This means that each Chiang Mai tourism attribute had a different level of impacts on satisfaction (positive effects) and dissatisfaction (negative effects) of the respondents with a statistical significance level at 0.10. It conforms to Figure 1 which presents results of the penalty-reward analysis. It clearly shows that each attribute of Chiang Mai tourism had different impacts on overall satisfaction with Chiang Mai tourism (asymmetrical).

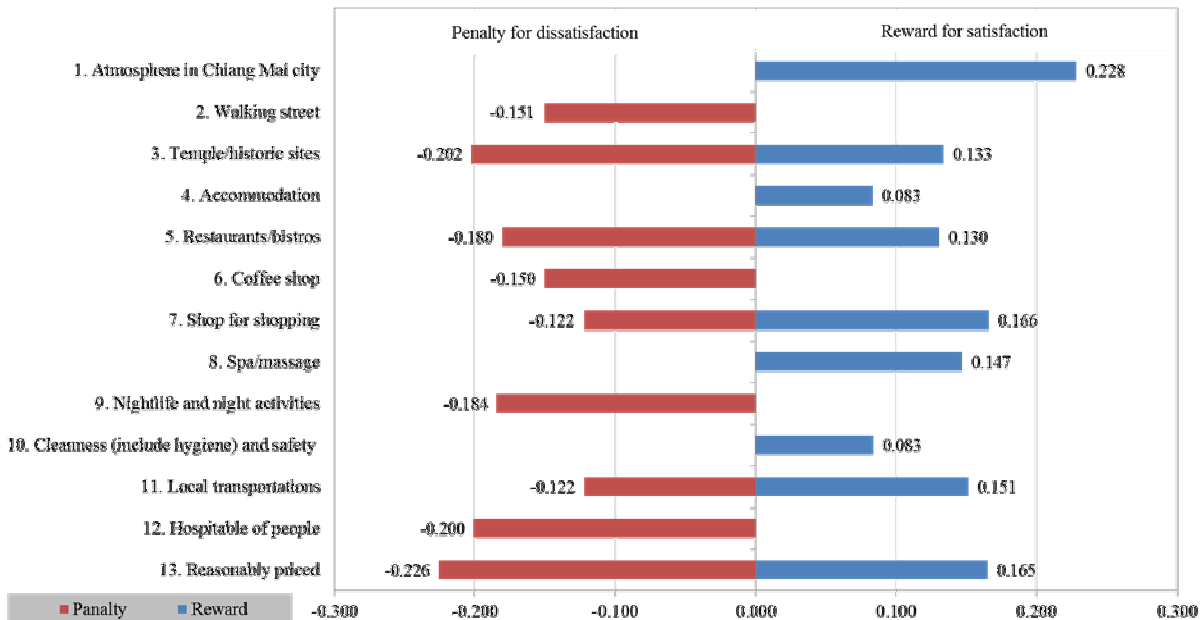


Figure 1. Results of Penalty-Reward Analysis

Note: The presented numbers are coefficient of dummy variables obtained from the regression model.

Table 3 shown results of the classification of Chiang Mai tourism attributes gained from penalty-reward analysis (Brandt, 1987). It was found that hospitality of people, nightlife and night activities, walking street, and coffee shop (included in basic attributes) were attributes which Chiang Mai tourism must have for the respondents. This is because these are important attributes expected by them. However, having these attributes does not make the respondents have increased overall satisfaction.

The following attributes are used for

competition and creating the respondent satisfaction: reasonably priced, temple/historic sites, restaurants/bistros, shop for shopping, and local transportations. That is because change of satisfaction with these attributes has a direct effect on overall satisfaction of the respondents (all of these attributes are included in the performance attribute).

The atmosphere in Chiang Mai city, spa/massage, accommodation, cleanliness (include hygiene) and safety were used for creating competitive advantage of Chiang Mai tourism. This is because

these are the attribute that only stimulating the respondents to have increased satisfactions but it does not make the respondents to have decreased satisfaction if it absence these attributes. Therefore,

this group of products and services is like a supplementary factor enhancing competitive potential for Chiang Mai tourism (included in the excitement attribute).

Table 3. Classification of Chiang Mai Tourism Attributes.

Basic attributes	Performance attributes	Excitement attributes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hospitable of people - Nightlife and night activities - Walking street - Coffee shop 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reasonable priced - Temple/historic sites - Restaurants/bistros - Shop for shopping - Local transportations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Atmosphere in Chiang Mai city - Spa/massage - Accommodation - Cleanness (include hygiene) and safety

Source: Penalty-reward analysis.

CONCLUSION

This study aimed to classified Chiang Mai tourism attributes based on the satisfaction structure of the Chinese independent tourists. The three-factor structure of satisfaction and a penalty-reward analysis were applied for that purpose. Data used in this study obtained from the sample group of 524 Chinese independent tourists in Chiang Mai in 2015. Results of the study could be important information used for the determination of importance sequencing for the development and improvement of Chiang Mai tourism attributes which must be consistent with the needs of Chinese independent tourists. Besides, it can be used for planning competitive strategies of Chiang Mai tourism in Chinese independent tourists market by focusing on quality rather than price. It is also beneficial for setting the strategic plan for stimulating innovation applications to develop quality and attributes of Chiang Mai tourism. This will lead to the enhancement of long-term competitive advantage for Chiang Mai tourism with sustainability.

Results of the study showed that the following were important conditions which Chinese independent tourists had expected: hospitality of people, nightlife and night activities, walking street, and coffee shop (basic attributes). Meanwhile, the following were the important attributes to enhance the overall satisfaction of the respondent: reasonably priced, temple/historic site, restaurants/bistros, shop for shopping, and local transportations (performance attributes). Whereas the atmosphere in Chiang Mai city, spa/massage, accommodation, cleanliness

(include hygiene) and safety (excitement attributes) were the attributes that will create the competitive advantage of Chiang Mai tourism in the Chinese independent tourists market.

In addition, a level of different impacts of each attribute led to the important suggestions as follows: Regarding Chinese independent tourists market in Chiang Mai, the concerned personnel should put the important on hospitality of local people and reasonable service charge as a priority. That is because the Chinese independent tourists will be dissatisfied with Chiang Mai tourism most if without these attributes. Meanwhile, atmospheres of Chiang Mai city must be well taken care since it has an effect on increased overall satisfaction most. In fact, satisfaction gained from excitement attributes cannot replace lost satisfaction due to the absence of basic attributes.

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ANALYSIS OF INTERACTIVE ROBOT ASSISTANCE SERVICES IN HOTEL: A MOTIVATION-BASED GUEST CLUSTERING

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INTRODUCTION

The past several decades have witnessed tremendous progress and change in the development of technological devices in consumer markets. On top of that, such service automation including artificial intelligence or robotics is more and more developed to be used in our daily life (e.g. “echo”, “Google home”, and “Home pod”) (Kahn et al., 2012; Russell and Norvig, 2016; Samani and Zhu, 2016). In the context of hospitality and tourism industry, hotels began to adopt robot-based automation system to their environment in order to improve their operational efficiency, cost reduction, and at the same time, maintain their level of service quality to the guests (Festa, 2015). Notably, service robots are valuable to the hotel guests in terms of supporting service through physical and social interactions (Ivanov, Webster, and Berezina, 2017). The Henn-na Hotel in Japan is well known for the three multilingual humanoid robot that welcomes guests at the front desk and provides check-in/out service. The Yotel located in New York also provides their guests seamless, technology-driven service with their robot porter ‘Yobot’, by securing the guests’ luggage (Hochman, 2018). Likewise, worldwide chain hotel groups also began to consider employing robot butlers at their hotel properties. Hilton Hotels and Resorts launched the world’s first robot (Softbank’s NAO robot) concierge to inform their guests regarding useful travel information such as local attractions, restaurants, and the hotel amenities (Hilton, 2016).

Considering robot arrivals of today and its technological usage, though it fails to replace the human entirely, there seems general consensus that robots are somewhat professional providing sophisticated functional services (e.g., room service delivery, check-in/out) (Craft, 2018). From the perspective of recipients, hotel guests, we can easily

presume that different types of customers have different expectations toward the hotel services. As this industry highly relies to intangible employee’s services, some would put more weight on the moment of truth or human touch though it takes a bit longer, whereas others solely focus on the goal/result within the short period of time. If that is the case, it is worthwhile to studying what types of consumer favors more on what aspects of services. Few studies have been conducted to see the meaningful aspects that affect one’s satisfaction level or visit intention.

As technology-oriented approaches and application of automated system in the field of hospitality and tourism industries is gaining attention by scholars (Borràs, Moreno and Valls, 2014; Pan, Okada, Uchiyama, and Suzaki, 2015), a number of researches are extremely scarce (Murphy, Hofacker & Gretzel, 2017). In addition, by means of ‘when’ and ‘how’ hotels should adopt the robot-service into their properties remains unanswered as well. Thus, based on the literature, we explored to elaborate the antecedents that trigger hotel guests to use the robots in the hotel environment. For this aim, we first attempted to apprehend latent motivations of the hotel guests’ robot using behavior based on the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology (UTAUT) as well as other relevant aspects. Second, based on the result of the influential factors, this study categorized the respondents into different groups that shows similar characteristics by adopting cluster analysis. Lastly, in regards to the result, this study shed light to hotel companies with appropriate strategies to operate their properties adopting robot-based technology application.

METHOD

The research was designed and conducted a

survey collecting data via an online platform. Respondents were gathered through Amazon's MTurk, an internet-based consumer panel that connects researchers with diverse anonymous consumers willing to participate in a research study for a very modest monetary consideration. MTurk is commonly employed by the researchers as is being used for the helpful tool to understand the consumers' thoughts and behaviors (e.g. Gwinn, Barden, and Judd, 2015).

To find proper target regarding the study aim, two screen questions were asked first to figure out the individuals who did not have an experience of using robot in the hotel environment, but willing to use for the future stay were recruited. Data were collected in May 2017 and January 2018. Overall, a total of 530 U.S.-based adult respondents were recruited. After removing incomplete, unusable, and extreme outlying responses, 494 responses were used in the data analysis. Because a robot assistant in the hotel setting is newly deployed, and has not been widely researched yet, participants were asked to watch one minute YouTube video clip in advance. Basically, the video explains how assistance robots are playing their roles in the hotel environment. It describes that robots help guests to check-in/out the hotel, provide bell service to carry customers' luggage to their rooms, and deliver fresh foods from the restaurant. After watching the video, there presented an introduction and description of a hypothetical situation to which respondents indicate their perceptions to see whether respondents clearly came up with the general idea. The study assured all participants' anonymity and emphasized their freedom to answer the questions or opt out. Later, participants were asked to answer questions regarding different potential motivations based on the previous literature (e.g., Agarwal and Prasad, 1998; Baptista and Oliveira, 2015; Morosan, DeFranco, 2016; Venkatesh et al.'s, 2012) using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = extremely disagree to 7 = extremely agree). At the last page of the questionnaire, respondents' demographic information as well as their general travel patterns were collected to describe the sample.

In order to answer the research questions, several analyses were implemented for the study by using SPSS. Firstly, to understand the general characteristics of the sample, basic descriptive statistics were used. An exploratory factor analysis

was used to find out and interpret the underlying factors of 25 motivation items. Later, a cluster analysis of two-stage cluster approach was employed to the different motivation items. A hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted first by using Ward's method with Euclidean distance. Then, k-means analysis was implemented to figure out the variance ratio criterion and hit ratios of discriminant analyses were undertaken to finalize the number of clusters appropriate for the study. To assess the differences among the groups, chi-square, one-way ANOVA, and Welch tests were examined afterwards.

FINDINGS

Background information is composed of two aspects; first is the respondents' demographic information, which includes gender, age, education level, occupation, and annual household income. Based on the result, the sample contained slightly more males (54.3%) than females (45.7%), and their age varied from 20 years to over 65 years. The majority of respondents were between 25 and 34 (48.0%) followed by 35 to 44 (21.7%). Approximately 45.1% of respondents had a four-year college degree. Annual household income ranges from \$40,000 to \$59,999 represented 26.1% of the respondents as the most frequent income level. Further, 34.6% of the respondents were young/middle-aged singles. Moreover, when respondents were asked of travel-related characteristics including travel frequency and their main travel purpose, most of them travels 2-3 times per year (47.6%) as well as they were mainly leisure travelers (69.0%).

An exploratory factor analysis was performed based on the latent motivations. These items were shown to be appropriate for factor analysis, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure of sampling adequacy had a very high value of 0.944, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(190) = 12071.455, p < 0.001$). The result of factor analysis shows that six-factor solution was clean enough to explain 86.8% of the total variance. All factor loadings easily exceeded the commonly used criterion of 0.5. Based on the result, each of factors were named social presence, importance, hedonic, innovativeness, facilitating condition, and performance expectancy, which demonstrates key

aspects of each factors. After, cluster analysis was conducted along the different levels of agreement across the all of respondents' motivations. Then, agglomeration coefficients were tested to figure out the optimal number of clusters (Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2011). Since there is no designated cut-off point, several cluster centroids were saved for three,

four, and five, and examined to a k-means analysis for the further analysis; based on the result of discriminant analyses, a four-cluster solution was chosen, with the 25 motivation items of six predictor variables. Each clusters were named after in relation to the features that well illustrates the groups. (See Table 1)

Table 1. Cluster Profiles: Demographics and Trip Characteristics

		Cluster 1 (n=152, 30.8%)	Cluster 2 (n=125, 25.3%)	Cluster 3 (n=131, 26.5%)	Cluster 4 (n=86, 17.4%)	Mean
	Social presence	3.26	1.93	5.38	1.53	3.03
	Importance	3.51	3.74	5.65	1.61	3.63
	Hedonic	4.44	5.72	6.06	2.21	4.61
	Innovativeness	4.14	5.54	6.06	2.21	4.49
	Facilitating condition	4.51	5.94	5.89	3.65	5.00
	Performance expectancy	4.21	5.54	5.93	2.01	4.42
Gender (%)						
	Male	53.3	61.8	44.2	56.4	53.9
	Female	46.7	38.2	55.8	43.6	46.1
Age (%)						
	20-24	7.0	5.9	2.5	6.9	5.6
	25-34	44.4	69.6	35.1	43.6	48.2
	35-44	21.5	15.7	22.1	27.7	21.8
	45-54	10.7	2.9	15.6	12.9	10.5
	55-64	11.2	3.9	13	6.9	8.8
	over 65	5.2	2.0	11.7	2.0	5.2
Highest level of education (%)						
	high school or less	9.8	9.8	15.6	12.9	12.0
	some college or associate (2-year) degree	26.6	18.6	37.7	32.6	28.9
	four-year degree	45.8	54.9	35	41.6	44.3
	graduate/post-graduate studies	17.8	16.7	11.7	12.9	14.8
Household income (%)						
	less than \$20,000	10.3	8.8	16.9	9.9	11.5
	\$20,000-\$39,999	23.9	20.6	28.6	23.8	24.2
	\$40,000-\$59,999	25.3	28.4	18.2	31.7	25.9
	\$60,000-\$79,999	12.2	8.8	9.1	7.9	9.5
	\$80,000-\$99,999	11.6	16.7	13	14.9	14.1
	\$100,000 or over	4.1	4.9	5.2	5.9	5.0
	decline to answer	12.6	11.8	9.0	5.9	9.8
Family structure (%)						
	Young/middle life single	32.2	38.2	23.4	44.5	34.6
	Young/middle life couple, no kids	17.8	15.7	15.5	11.8	15.2
	Parents with child(ren)	31.3	34.4	33.8	32.7	33.1
	Older life	18.7	11.7	27.3	11.0	17.2
Trip purpose (%)						
	Business travel	15.4	33.3	7.8	14.9	17.9
	Leisure travel	71.5	55.9	72.7	74.3	68.6
	To meet friends or relatives	11.7	9.8	14.3	8.8	11.2
	Others	1.4	1.0	5.2	2.0	2.4
Trip frequency (%)						
	0-1	20.6	6.9	28.6	18.8	18.7
	2-3	44.9	45.1	51.9	52.5	48.6
	4-5	19.6	29.4	13	15.8	19.5
	6-7	8.4	8.8	5.2	2.0	6.1
	8-9	2.3	3.9	0.0	2.0	2.1
	over 10	4.2	5.9	1.3	8.9	5.1

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

The implications and conclusion of the research will be presented in the full paper.

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WHAT DO CUSTOMERS SHARE ABOUT INDEPENDENT RESTAURANTS? A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF INDEPENDENT RESTAURANTS' COMMENTS ON TRIPADVISOR

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INTRODUCTION

Food away from home increased % 6.7 from 2016 to 2017 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018). Almost 72% of this expenditure is done in full and limited service restaurants (Elitzak & Okrent, 2018). According to the National Restaurant Association (NRA), the restaurant industry is an \$800 billion industry with 14.7 million employees (NRA, 2017). It is also reported that chain restaurants dominate the industry and challenge independent restaurants with 64% of the total traffic whereas independent restaurants with one or two units represent 22% of visits within the industry (NPD, 2017). As a result, independent restaurants are facing challenges such as a higher failure rate and difficulties in adapting changes in the business environment. The great majority of these challenges are due to wrong marketing rather than insufficient food and service quality. As one of the potential solutions to this failure, the internet provides great opportunities in the hospitality industry for competition in various markets with low cost and similar opportunities with big players. Social media, user generated content (UGC), and customers' online comments provide independent restaurants with superior opportunities for specific aspect of marketing, (i.e. social media marketing) as potential consumers tend to trust the content created by other consumers more than content created by businesses.

Existing literature provides insight why people share comments and what the outcomes are of these comments on social media. The question, then is how to maximize the effectiveness of the comments. It is impossible to answer this question without understanding the content of the comments. The relationship between values and behaviors is explained by means-end chain theory and the Theory of Consumption further explains consumer behavior from value perspective. Thus, through

computer-aided content analysis of reviews from TripAdvisor, the most common consumer-created content platform with the highest user pool, this study aims to explore the salient consumption values that are commonly used by customers in comments to make recommendations or share experiences.

The results revealed that functional, social, and emotional values are the most common values in TripAdvisor reviews for independent restaurants. Understanding these themes can provide advantage to the independent restaurants in the competition with chain restaurants and contribute social media marketing initiatives.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Compared to chain restaurants, independent restaurants have been struggling more in terms of location, number of units, and sales (NPD, 2017). They also have difficulties on applying rules and regulations; for example, they are 1.6 times more likely to fail to follow food safety regulations (Liu & Lee, 2017).

It is reported that consumers believe that independent restaurants are much more likely to be rated highly for being special, for being community oriented, and for offering a personalized service (Veidenheimer & Goldin, 2017). Despite these positive perceptions about independent restaurants, in the first quarter of 2017, independent restaurant visits decreased by 3%, and the number of independent restaurant units decreased by 4% (NPD, 2017). Compared to other small business start-ups, restaurants, in general, suffer higher failure rates (Camillo et al., 2008), and marketing is one of the main reasons of the failure of independent restaurants (Parsa et al., 2005).

The rapid growth in social media made UGC virtual currency to manage reputation and competition for restaurants in the hospitality

industry (Ma et al., 2018). However, less than 8% of small restaurants post content on Facebook every week by themselves, and only 2% of them advertise with Facebook ads (Eling, 2017) addressing the fact that a limited number of independent restaurants are successful in taking advantage of the technological tools and the online existence of the businesses has not yet reached its full potential from a marketing standpoint. Despite the various opportunities review sites provide for customers to talk about their food choices, little has been explored in terms of how and what is being discussed in food related topics (Ariyasriwatana et al., 2014).

Following the advancement of social media and its influence on both businesses and customers, the number of studies related to social media in the hospitality and tourism domain jumped from two to 22 between the years of 2007 and 2011, social media also increases the popularity of independent restaurants because consumers' words removes consumers' perceived risks (Maze, 2017). Some authors take the topic and examine it from various perspectives such as the strategic management perspective (e.g. Parsa et al., 2005), the cost and local food aspect in independent restaurants (e.g. Sharma, Gregoire, & Strohhahn, 2009), failing to follow food safety practices (e.g. Liu & Li, 2017; Robert et al., 2011) and the perceptions toward independent restaurants (e.g. Aaltojärvi et al., 2018). However, few studies have approached the topic of independent restaurants from the marketing perspective and blended the topic with current trends in marketing (i.e., social media marketing and consumer-created content). Gutman (1982) proposed the Means-end Chain Theory arguing that abstract values and beliefs are related. In the literature the studies also revealed that believes lead to behavior and the reflection of behavior (e.g. Lusk & Briggeman, 2009). Means-end chains clearly leads to understanding the reasons of customers' choice of particular product over another. The Theory of Consumption proposed by Sheth et al., (1999) provides comprehensive understanding to explain consumers' behavior from a value perspective. As the Means-end Chain Theory (Gutman, 1982) proposes values are behaviors are closely correlated, it is important to understand the salient values in social media not only understand online behavior but also to predict

future behaviors because Sheth et al. (1999) states the Theory of Consumption can predict the future behaviors. The author states that the five values, namely, functional, emotional, social, epistemic, and conditional values are the main drivers of consumer behavior. Why we buy what we buy remains as a critical question for researchers in consumer behavior, marketing and economics (Turel et al., 2010).

Considering the rapid development on social media and the influence of consumer reviews on potential customers, *why we write what we write* raises as a current question and the behavior of reviewers and other potential travelers are expected to be correlated with the salient values in the review. Therefore, the main question of this study is:

What are the salient consumption values that are mentioned in the reviews of independent restaurants on TripAdvisor?

METHOD

This study used restaurant Business Magazine's Top 100 Independent Restaurant 2018 list to identify the independent restaurants. The list provides comprehensive combination in terms of restaurant type, location, restaurant size, scale, and cuisine and it has been utilized by various studies previously (e.g. Sen, 1998; Shriber et al., 1995). As the restaurants list present 2018 numbers, the comments for these 100 restaurants in 2018 formed the population. 40 reviews were selected based on systematic sampling to minimize the personal judgement or bias in sampling. Sampling interval was decided individually for each single restaurant to be able to collect equal number of reviews, 40, from each restaurant regardless the number of total comments.

In order to analyze data, this study utilized computer aided program, Leximancer data analyze program, in order to explore the main themes and concepts in the text. Even though there are some concerns of oversimplifying (Sotiriadou et al., 2014), as it provides objectivity, reliability and validity advantages, Leximancer is a valid tool to use (Isakhan, 2005). Using statics-based algorithms, Leximancer software analyzes text data to provide semantic and relational information (Biroscak et al., 2017).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

17 states were represented in the Top 100 Independent Restaurant List, New York, Nevada, and Illinois are being the top three states with highest independent restaurant number. The average check varies between \$17 to \$163 in the list, and seafood, steakhouse, Italian, and hotel restaurant concepts are the main four categories.

Sheth et al., (1991) state that functional value, which is utilitarian or physical attributes, is traditionally prime motivation of behavior. Food and food types can be seen as the examples of this value as the tangible aspect of restaurant experience. Based on the study findings, the main theme was food with the categories such as fresh, and specific types of food such as seafood, crab, and chicken, showing and aligning with the previous literature that concluded food is one of the main attributes of restaurant choice (e.g. Lei & Law, 2015). Young et al., (2007) found that food quality was an indicator of positive experience for chain restaurants but, not for independent restaurants. Leximancer result did not find any output related to quality in the independent restaurant context, therefore the two studies are not contradictory.

Social value refers to the association with social group, and generally applies highly visible products (Sheth et al., 1991). Recommendation of desired groups becomes important factor to be a part of a social group. The findings show that recommendation is one of the most common themes of the study. When it is examined within context, either following recommendations of others or recommending the experience to other people were mentioned. Therefore, it can be concluded that restaurant experience, especially in the independent restaurants, is highly influenced by social value relating on recommendation. This finding matches with the findings in the independent restaurant context stating since available data is limited for independent restaurants, the influence of personal or online recommendations is more important for independent restaurant customers as an information source (e.g. Luca, 2011).

Emotional value is explained as utility of service or product arouse feelings (Sheth et al., 1991). The emotional theme, including the concepts of amazing, excellent, experience, and nice were among the main themes. Food experience and dining

out are mainly hedonic experiences because they are no longer a way of satisfying physical needs (Liu et al., 2013). In addition, independent restaurants are special and closely connected to the community; therefore, intangible aspects are more important for independent restaurants (Veidenheimer & Goldin, 2017). This study revealed that people express this intangible aspect of experience through emotional words, making emotional value an important component of customer reviews.

In short, analyzing the data on social media is decoding hospitality meaning (Ting et al., 2017), and in this study revealed functional, social, and emotional values are the most common three values to understand meaning in the independent restaurant context based on the themes revealed by the content analysis through Leximancer.

IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The results of this study contribute to the literature of independent restaurants specifically from the social media marketing and UGC perspectives and can help to group and organize the available data and to segment customers based on the content they share. The interpretation of the findings and results can also provide insightful information for the independent restaurants to focus on specific aspects that customers value and find important to share. This study was not built as a big data study; it is a computer-aided content analysis study. Despite maximum effort to mitigate sampling biases it is not free from sampling errors. Therefore, researchers are strongly encouraged to examine the values in a big data study by analyzing the whole population, all comments for selected restaurants.

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RESTAURANT SUPPLIER SELECTION AND THE EFFECTS OF OPERATIONAL AND STRATEGIC CAPABILITIES UPON PERFORMANCE: THE MODERATING ROLES OF SUPPLIERS PARTNERSHIPS

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INTRODUCTION

Scholars have stated difficulties that restaurants face as a small-to-medium-sized businesses (SMB) in terms of operating in extremely competitive market conditions (Cho et al., 2016; Jogaratnam, 2017). Their findings have documented that restaurant managers should focus upon ways to utilize external resources provided by suppliers to insure long-term survival. The restaurant literature has examined the important issue as to whether or not suppliers were capable of delivering those necessary goods representing the latest trends reflecting rapid changes in consumer demand and preferences (Malik and Kumar, 2014; Cho et al., 2016). Thus, selecting capable suppliers is recognized as a non-negotiable element to guarantee food product quality, safety and value for restaurants and their consumers (Walters, 2018).

Supply management research conducted at the start of the 21st century identified cost, quality and delivery as being the most important supplier selection criteria within the manufacturing industry (Braglia and Petroni, 2000; Kannan and Tan, 2006). In addition to those criteria for the manufacturing industry, Kahraman et al. (2003) also identified that technology and financial capabilities of suppliers would be most important for specific operations requiring new capital investment in order to support new products and/or new markets. However, there is a lack of academic research that addresses restaurant supplier selection criteria. Based on research in other industries such as high-technology (Sarkis and Talluri, 2002), manufacturing (Kahraman et al. 2003), and apparel retailing (Su et al., 2009), it is expected that restaurants also use a specific set of supplier selection criteria.

Additionally, research on supplier

performance has found that proper selection can improve a buyer's capability for offering quality products at a reasonable cost and in a timely manner (Humphreys et al., 2003; Su et al., 2009). Thus, a buyer's ability to obtain key resources by leveraging supplier capabilities would be dependent on the criteria used for selecting suppliers (Gonzalez and Quesada, 2004). This study fills an overlooked gap in the literature by developing fundamental knowledge about supplier selection and its effect upon the restaurant business. This study proposes that restaurants are placing greater importance on supplier selection criteria resulting in those criteria being significant determinants of their operational and strategic capabilities. To accomplish this goal, the study's objectives were to: 1) identify supplier selection criteria used for the restaurant industry; 2) investigate how supplier selection criteria would be related to restaurant operational and strategic capabilities which further influences restaurant performance; and 3) investigate if restaurant partnerships with suppliers positively moderate the effects of supplier selection criteria upon restaurant operational and strategic capabilities.

METHOD: DATA COLLECTION AND SAMPLING

National suppliers of restaurant products were used to collect data by adopting a purposive sampling frame. Data were obtained over seven months via U.S. suppliers who completed personal interviews from randomly selected independently owned restaurant accounts (unaffiliated with corporate restaurant chains). This approach resulted in obtaining restaurant samples in all 50 states. Interviewers first explained the study's purpose to all potential respondents who were first screened

to validate that they were responsible for choosing suppliers. Individuals were all informed of the survey's average completion time (10 minutes), and that their responses would be treated anonymously. This method generated a total of $n=795$ completed surveys, representing a 92.4% useable response rate. In addition, respondents indicated that they had been managing restaurants for nearly eight years (7.9 years), and their total length of time employed in the restaurant industry averaged over ten years (10.4 years). These two factors were included in the study model to be controlled because 'length of time as managers and as employees' can possibly and significantly affect restaurant decisions in selecting suppliers or restaurant operational and strategic performance based upon experiences gained during their careers in the restaurant business.

MEASURES

Identification of supplier selection criteria applied to the restaurant business context was undertaken via a comprehensive literature review process. This resulted in adopting supplier selection scales developed by Hsu et al. (2006) and Voss et al. (2009). Hsu et al. (2006) conducted a systematic study of supplier selection instrument development and validation using responses obtained in a variety of industries; and Voss et al. (2009)'s study focused on supplier selection criteria for the food industry. This study's survey instrument included 26 items representing five-dimensional selection criteria that represented supplier quality, service, strategic management, product and cost. The 'supplier quality' criterion was assessed using six items representing suppliers' financial conditions, technical capability and geographical location. 'Service' was evaluated using five items representing suppliers' willingness to resolve conflicts, prompt response, ability to keep delivery promise and competence of the sales representative. 'Strategic management' was assessed using six items regarding suppliers' reputation, business philosophy, communications and information sharing. The 'process' criterion was evaluated using four items representing suppliers' ability to change production volumes, set up for new products, commitment to product improvement and product specification, and after-product sales support. Finally, the criterion addressing 'cost/price' was

assessed using three items regarding suppliers' cost-reduction capability, low cost of products and ability to offer the lowest price. All respondents were asked to indicate their opinions about the importance they assigned to each of the five supplier selection criteria. Items were rated on a seven-point Likert scale (1= "Very Unimportant" to 7= "Very Important").

Restaurant operational capabilities were evaluated using four items representing supplier contributions to cost reduction and operational process improvement (e.g., "Our major supplier contributes to improvements with our current operational processes") (Subramani, 2004; Villena et al., 2010). Restaurant strategic capabilities were assessed using four items representing supplier contributions regarding providing knowledge about customers and markets, and new product development and new business opportunities (e.g., "Our major supplier contributes to our learning about customers' desires") (Subramani, 2004; Villena et al., 2010). All eight items were rated on a seven-point Likert scale (1= "strongly disagree" to 7= "strongly agree").

Lastly, in order to test how those supplier performance variables (restaurant operational and strategic capabilities) affected restaurant performance, five items were included which represented sales volume growth, profitability, percent of market share, return on investment, and annual net income before taxes. Those five items were also rated on a seven-point scale (1 = "significantly decreased" and 7 = "significantly increased") (Li et al., 2006) (see Table 3).

RESULTS

EFA was conducted and generated four factors: 'financial/technical quality', 'process', 'service' and 'cost/price'. Based on the EFA results, this study's research model was created (see Figure 1). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed reliability and validity of the measurements. Six hypothesized relationships were tested using a structural equation model (SEM) demonstrating an adequate model fit to the data. Results found that among the four supplier selection criteria identified in this study, two supplier criteria, 'financial/technical quality' and 'process' had a positive effect upon restaurant operational

capabilities. Regarding restaurant strategic capabilities, results showed that two supplier quality criteria, 'process' and 'service' significantly and positively influenced 'restaurant strategic capabilities'. Lastly, the effects of restaurant operational and strategic capabilities upon 'restaurant performance' demonstrated that those two dimensions of restaurant capabilities significantly and positively influenced 'restaurant performance,' with restaurant 'strategic capabilities' ($\beta = 0.285$, $p < 0.001$) having a more positive effect upon 'restaurant performance' than 'operational capabilities' ($\beta = 0.135$, $p < 0.05$).

In order to test that the effects of supplier selection criteria upon supplier performance would be moderated by levels of restaurant partnerships with suppliers, a multi-group analysis was employed by dividing the study's sample into 'high' and 'low' partnership' groups. Results implied that the positive effects of the 'financial/technical quality' and 'cost/price' selection criteria upon restaurant operational capabilities could become significantly greater when developing high partnership levels. 'Process – strategic capabilities' and 'service – strategic capabilities' were significantly different between the high- and the low partnership group regarding strategic capabilities, with 'process – strategic capabilities' being significantly positive in the high partnership group. Also, the effect of 'service' upon 'strategic capabilities' was significantly positive in the high partnership group.

This study provides new contributions to the existing body of knowledge regarding important criteria for selecting suppliers in consideration of restaurant capabilities and performance improvements. This study is the first to identify essential supplier selection criteria for the restaurant industry by adopting supplier selection criteria dimensions identified by previous literature.

Leveraging supplier capabilities for restaurants to improve their performance was proven to significantly rely on supplier selection criteria used in this study. In consideration of supplier selection criteria and restaurant operational and strategic capabilities, two criteria ('financial/technical quality' and 'process') were significant determinants of restaurant operational capabilities and also two criteria ('process' and 'service') were significant antecedents of restaurant strategic capabilities.

In particular, a restaurant's ability to improve daily operational efficiency and to make strategic decisions for new products along with new market development was deemed to be the most important selection criteria for restaurant operations, which can be significantly achieved by its emphasis upon process-focused supplier selection. Results indicated that the 'financial/technical quality' criterion involving suppliers' financial situations, technical support and geographical location had a positive relationship limited to restaurant operational capabilities. In this respect, a focus on the 'financial/technical quality' selection criterion would be greatly beneficial to improve a restaurant's operational capabilities.

Implications reveal that in order to support the operational needs of restaurants, suppliers must possess strong financial, technical and process capabilities to respond quickly to demand changes. In order to build strategic capabilities with their accounts, restaurant suppliers must provide excellent service quality. This high level of service must be coupled with a strong process ability to quickly meet the changing needs of restaurant consumers. Overall, the 'process' capability' was significantly related to both operational and strategic capabilities. It is the most important dimension that restaurant buyers demand from their suppliers.

GAYA–GAYA PUTO MAYA: ORDERING BEHAVIOR OF FILIPINO MILLENNIAL IN CASUAL DINING RESTAURANTS

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INTRODUCTION

Eating is one of the most important things for survival and for health, and it is a universally known activity that includes lots of different food choice decisions. Food choice decisions are often seen as ordinary and arbitrary, but they may also be viewed as significant. It has not been well examined by the diversity of perspectives used to study decision making. According to Sobal and Bisogni (2009) that food choice decisions are frequent, multifaceted, situational, dynamic, and complex which lead to food behaviors.

Over the years, overweight and obesity are mostly the top problems young adults, also known as the generation Millennial are facing, and are continuously exposed to food consumption in stores, on the internet and through media. Instances in the availability of food choices in schools are very minimal and strict. In another report, from Partners (2012), study found that the millennial aren't very brand loyal, instead they tend to know other different distribution in specific attributes, such as organic, natural and specialty foods. So, millennial food choices differ from each other's attributes.

The study Voedingscentrum (2014) indicates that consumers make about 200 food choices every day. To make it worse for the food establishments, according to Sweeney (2006), Millennial are demanding consumers who expect more selectivity, personalization and customization in products and services they consume. However, in Oyedele's (2018) article, millennial, in a month, have 2.3% of their meals at a restaurant (higher than any other generation), which estimates as roughly one trip every other week. As this habit grows, more restaurants are offering delivery and making their to-go menu options more accessible.

While the food choice decision making process of millennial is already convoluted in itself, this paper aims to understand how group of millennial comes up with ordering decisions.

Moreover, it seeks to see the dynamics of conform within the group.

METHOD

The type of research design that was used is qualitative and exploratory research. This type of research design for the nature of the researchers' study is yet the best approach to better understand the research problem. As for the approach I used the Social Constructionism of Charmaz (2006) since the conducted data may produce multiple results (as for Ontology) and those results need to be interpreted by us to know the underlying meaning (for Epistemology).

Following Charmaz's (2006) work, I have used grounded theory methodology (GTM) to gather and analyze the data. The data were gathered 68 participants by conducting 13 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and 11 One-on-one interviews. The discussion were recorded and lasted from 30 minutes – 1 hour. In this process, I was able to identify habits, preferences, opinions etc, that I gathered to answer the research objectives.

Series of ethical considerations were followed for the Research Participant's Privacy and Identity guided by the Philippine National Ethical Guidelines for Health and Health-Related Research (NEGHR), Philippine Social Science Center Social Science Ethics Research Board (PSSC SSERB), and the Data Privacy Act of 2012.

RESULTS

Millennial ordering behavior and decision in group is dependent on who are they with, how much money they actually have, and how much time they actually have as they "wanted it all done now" in their decision making, ordering process, service time and even the process of paying the bill. These factors have a huge effect in ordering. It can limit them and it can widen the range of their choices.

Time is an important factor that determines the food choice of millennial. Choices can change under time pressure or time constraint.

There were participants whose food choices were changed because pressure was put unto them to come up with a decision as fast as they could. Organized list of orders and to save time were also mentioned. Hungeriness and cravings are also factors. Situations may vary, but millennial eat what they actually wanted because they can be collectivist and/or individualist when necessary. In the matters of food choices, millennial food choices in group is also dependent in who they are with, they can adjust and sacrifice what they want and it show Filipino values just for their group members to be happy. According to them they usually get foods that are in bundles with loads of rice, viand, pizza, pasta, chicken, tempura, vegetables and other sort of foods that can easily be found in home cooks. They look for *sulit* (cheap and of quality) foods with ‘instagrammable’ appearance, and right price that equals the satisfaction that they would get from the food. *Pakikibagay* (conformity) happens in ordering behavior of millennial because they are curious in a specific food found in the menu, saying *bahala na* (the group or the one ordering is

responsible) when they are undecided and when they show *galang* (respect) to the host since defending what they like would be a sign of disrespect to the host. On the other hand, there are times that they could not adjust and how they order alone become exposed, it is when their cravings, allergy, favoritism on food, and diet arises. As a conclusion, Filipino millennial are collectivist, they know how to *makiramdam* (be sensitive), *makisama* (get along), *makipagpalagayang loob* (build rapport), *makisangkot* (get involved), *magalang* (be respectful), *makibagay* (be conformist) with their peers and family. Millennial are happy when someone in the group orders the same as theirs or when these people accepted their suggestions about the food.

Contrary to choice theory which suggests that every part of an individual’s thoughts, doings and feelings is a choice, all which are driven from the inside regardless of the external influences and that people are all in control of our own choices. The result showed that external influences can really affect every individual – thoughts, doings and feelings and not all behavior are driven from the inside.

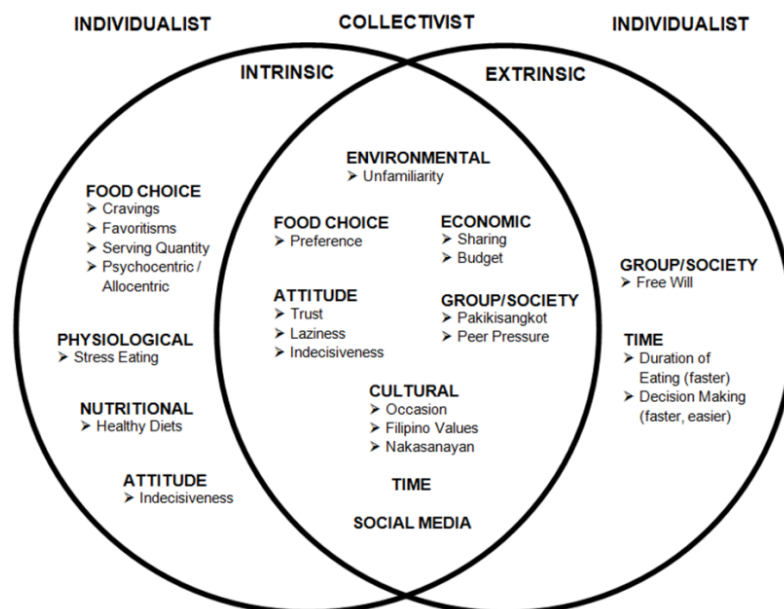


Figure 1. Integrated Framework: Millennial's Ordering Behavior

The framework is divided into individualist and collectivist to better understand the distinction when a millennial dines alone or dines with a group.

A millennial becomes an individualist when he is eating alone because he doesn't have to think of others, he doesn't need other's opinion for the reason

that he's alone and not in a group and he only has to think of what kind of food he wants or how much food is he going to eat or how long is he going to stay in the restaurant. When the millennial respondents were asked how do they choose food when they're dining alone, they stated that it depends on their cravings at the moment or their favorite food, if they are on a diet (they will most likely choose healthy foods like vegetables) and also the serving size and quantity of the food itself is very important to them.

One notable habit they've mentioned is they tend to eat alone when stressed. Because for them the food is their "stress-reliever" and it helps to dispel the negative energy out of them. When stress eating, they go for sweet foods like chocolates or ice cream.

The duration of eating and decision-making are more faster too compared to when they are dining with a group for the same reason that they don't have to think of others and doesn't feel the obligation to conform or consider what the group wants since they are dining solo. They also have the free will to choose whatever food they want to eat. They have complete freedom unlike when with a group of friends or family, a millennial becomes collectivist because the opinions and decisions were shaped and made as a group. They also feel "the want to be part of the group." And the interests of the group becomes more important rather than their own personal interests (but this doesn't apply to the respondents who are psychocentric eaters since they stick to their own decision and eat what they really want for the reason that they are not open to try new options of food.)

They become collectivists when they are too lazy to choose a food from the menu or if there are too many options (they become indecisive) and will most likely leave the decision to the group to decide for them since they trust that the group (friends and family) already know their preference and likings in food.

Conformity also occurs when they are dining with family since family values are very important to Filipino millennial. When with family, they usually dine to restaurants they always go to ever since. Their food choice decisions too depend on the event or occasion. Social media influence their food choice and choice of restaurant as well. And since peer pressure is more common in a group,

their choice and decisions are affected because they have to consider what the people in the group suggest or want.

Unfamiliarity with the food or place also contributes to the conformity within the group as well as the time - the duration of decision-making and the duration of time they will spend in the restaurant. The difference with the duration when alone and with a group is evident. From the statements of the respondents, the researchers noticed the pattern that the millennial make decisions easily and dine faster when they are alone as opposed to when they are with family or group of friends.

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CYBERBULLYING RECOVERY STRATEGIES FOR ONLINE TRAVEL COMMUNITY SUSTAINABILITY

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INTRODUCTION

Online communities play a critical role for online users in experiencing the enhancement of friendships and social connections (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007). However, it is reported that approximately 42% of online users have experienced a sense of interpersonal victimization in cyberspaces (Henson, Reyns & Fisher, 2011). This phenomenon occurs due to the fact that cyberbullying (or called cyber-victimization) is increasingly recognized as problematic psychological outcomes for online users, particularly in the U.S. context (Stewart et al., 2014). In this regard, some studies highlight that cyber-victimization has become a critical concern which has been addressed by diverse theoretical approaches encompassing rigorously validated assessment in online contexts (Dredge, Gleeson, & de la Piedad Garcia, 2014; Del Rey et al., 2015). Therefore, it might be required for tourism scholars to understand if cybervictimization occurs in online information/knowledge-sharing communities such as online travel communities (OTCs), which lead to essential discussion about the way of how OTCs' operators need to cope effectively with their members' experiences on cyber-victimization. A review paper on cyberbullying victimization addressed "Each definition of cyberbullying contains some aggressive, hostile, or harmful act that is perpetrated by a bully through an unspecified type of electronic device" (Tokunaga, 2010, p. 278). According to Nocentini et al. (2010) and Álvarez-García et al. (2017), cyber-victimization can be categorized into fourfold: visual (e.g., offensive, harmful, or injurious photos/videos), written-verbal (e.g., annoying, threatening, or offensive calls, messages, or written comments), online exclusion (e.g., not being accepted or being expelled from an online network), and impersonation (e.g., making fun of or get online users into trouble. Despite the construct development of cyber-victimization in

diverse domains, few studies have demonstrated the robust construct of cyber-victimization (i.e., visual, written-verbal, online exclusion, and impersonation) and explored management practices for recovering online users who experienced or are faced with types of cybervictimization in online community settings (Henson et al., 2011). In this regard, it is necessary for operators of OTCs to develop management practices for online deviant behaviors. The purpose of the study is to contribute to the body of research on cyber-victimization (and cyberbullying) by developing robust validity and reliability of OTC members' perceptions toward cyber-victimization among other members and identifying its psychometric properties with mediators, and consequences in OTCs. Our specific goals are to: 1. Examine the validity and reliability of the second-order factor of cyber-victimization recovery practices in OTCs. 2. Explore the comprehensive model that includes the factor of cyber-victimization practices, mediators (e.g., ambient stimuli), and outcomes (e.g., intention to follow OTC advice). 3. Offer OTCs' management strategies for preventing their members' cyber-victimization.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Online travel communities (e.g., Tripadvisor.com) play a critical role for online users in experiencing the knowledge sharing and enhancement of social interaction (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007). However, it is reported that approximately 42% of online users have experienced a sense of interpersonal victimization in online communities (Henson, Reyns & Fisher, 2011). This phenomenon, due to cyberbullying, is increasingly identified with problematic social and psychological outcomes for online users, particularly in the U.S. context (Stewart, Drescher, Maack, Ebesutani, & Young, 2014). A recent study also highlights that cyberbullying has become an increasing concern which has been addressed by

diverse theoretical and methodological approaches in online travel communities (Dredge, Gleeson, & de la Piedad Garcia, 2014). Therefore, rigorous

validated assessment instruments should be discussed (Del Rey et al., 2015).

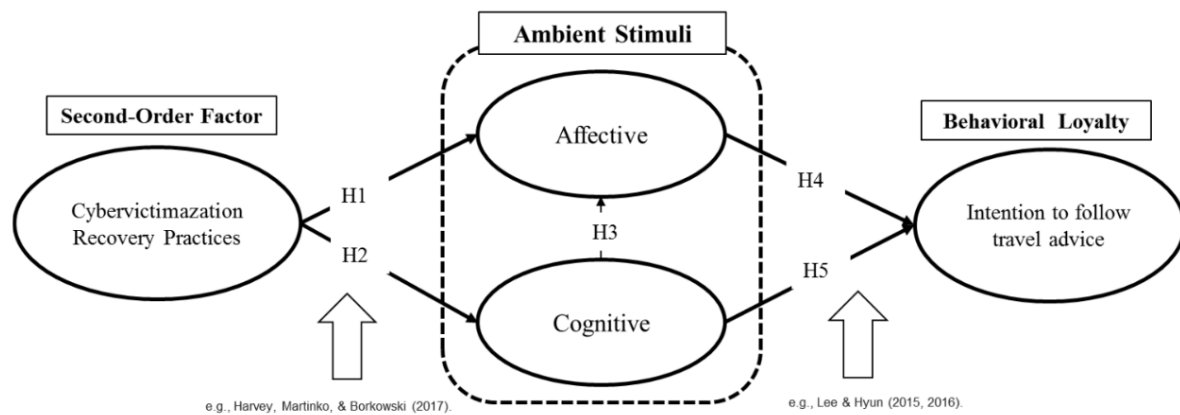


Figure 1. Proposed Research Framework

METHODOLOGY

Data were collected in summer – fall 2017. A convenience sample of online travel community members will be obtained using research firm, such as Amazon Mechanical Turk (<https://www.mturk.com/mturk/welcome>) or Qualtrics.com, which were used to employ valid respondents because of its dominant advantage in assessing frequent online users. To ensure the appropriateness of respondents, the following items were employed at the beginning of the online questionnaire: Online travel communities (e.g., Tripadvisor.com, and lonelyplanet.com) are travel review sites offering a great opportunity for travel searchers to find out what other people think in terms of potential travel products (e.g., destinations) and facilities (e.g., hotels, restaurants, and attractions). The OTC membership indicates that individuals have joined an OTC with personal usernames and passwords, and agreeing to the OTC terms of use and guidelines. When it comes to the measurement items of each construct, the current study employed 17 items, 9 items, and 4 items for cyber-victimization recovery practices (e.g., Álvarez-García et al., 2017), ambient stimuli (affective climate: 5 items and cognitive climate: 4 items) (e.g., Carr et al., 2003), and behavioral intentions to follow travel advice (e.g., Lee & Hyun, 2015), respectively.

FINDINGS

The second-order confirmatory factor analysis

confirmed that cyber-victimization recovery practices fits the data well, consisting of the four factors of written-verbal, visual, impersonation, and exclusion, which is consistent with a previous study verifying the second order factor of cyber-victimization behaviors (Palladino, Nocentini, & Menesini, 2015). The scales revealed good validity (construct, concurrent, and convergent) and reliability (internal consistency). To assess the overall model fit of the measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to test hypotheses 1 through 5. The goodness-of-fit statistics of the proposed model showed that the model reasonably fit the data (chi-square = 323.769 (df=113), $p = .000$, chi-square/df = 2.865, IFI = .935, CFI = .935, TLI=.921, RMSEA = .077). The hypothesized relationship between the cyber-victimization recovery practices and affective climate (Hypothesis 1) was not significant ($\beta = .027$). The positive relationship between cyber-victimization recovery practices and cognitive climate (H2 (a)) was supported by a significant estimate, $\beta = 0.029$ ($p < 0.01$), indicating that cyber-victimization recovery practices positively influence OTC cognitive climate. A cognitive climate had a significantly positive impact on an affective climate ($\beta = 0.029$, $p < 0.001$). The effect of affective climate and cognitive climate on behavioral loyalty (H4, H5) were supported by standardized estimates of $\beta = 0.537$ and $\beta = 0.465$, respectively ($p < 0.001$).

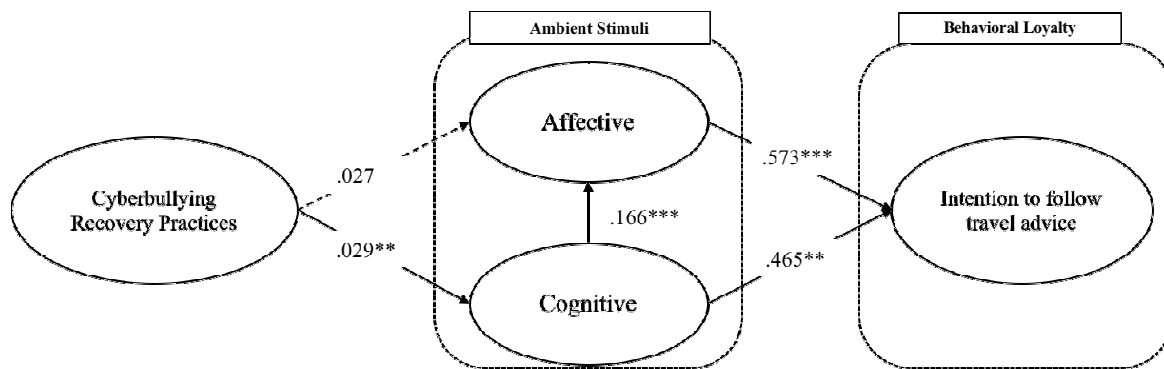


Figure 2. Results

CONCLUSION

A clear understanding of cyber-victimization is crucial for the successful management of OTCs. However, few studies have examined a heuristic model regarding the relationships of cyber-victimization recovery practices, ambient stimuli, and behavioral loyalty in OTCs. The study considers a total of five hypotheses based on the theoretical and empirical background with regard to salient concepts in cyber information systems, online interactive marketing, and online travel communities. The results of the second-order factor analysis reveal that the four subdimensions of visual, family written-verbal, online exclusion, and impersonation were governed by the second-order construct of cyber-victimization recovery practices in OTCs, which is supported by Palladino et al. (2015). The second-order factor significantly influenced ambient stimuli (cognitive climate → affective climate), which in turn affect behavioral loyalty. For OTCs' operators, the results suggest a need to identify and resolve types of cyber-victimization frequently occurred in OTCs, which can retain OTC members to be loyal to the OTCs.

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INTERNATIONAL TRAVELERS' SOCIAL MEDIA USE AND IMPACTS DURING 2018 PYEONGCHANG WINTER OLYMPICS

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INTRODUCTION

Many destinations use sport events to improve the image of destinations and to attract new visitors. The mega-events like Olympics provide destinations a great opportunity to create a new destination image or enhance the existing image, particularly through the media coverage that the events receive (Chalip, Green, & Hill, 2003; Essex & Chalkley, 1998; Ritchie, 1984). The emergence of social media provides a new opportunity to generate and earn the media coverage of events then eventually influence on people's perceptions of destination. Many recent studies have argued that tourism experience is not simply staged by organizations but co-created with tourists (Prebensen & Foss, 2011) and social media play an integral role in the co-creation process (Neuhof et al., 2014). However, still there is little empirical evidence documenting the role and impacts of social media in the event visitors' experience.

Last year, South Korea hosted the 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympics and the Korea Ministry of Science, ICT, and Future Planning has identified three key agenda to create a successful ICT-based Olympics, "Connecting, Exciting and Sharing" (Chung et al., 2014). With these agenda, the Olympic communication team had actively used various social media platforms to create the excitement around the event, connect the audiences who watch the Olympic Games, and engage the visitors. This study aims to examine the role of social media communication in the Olympic visitors' perception, experience and decision-making especially for the international visitors. The following research questions guided this study: 1) Social media use: Do they use the official Olympic social media platforms to find and share the Olympic-related contents or other types of platforms? What motivate the travelers to use social media platforms while traveling?; 2) Social media impacts: How does the social media

communication influence on the travelers' event experience, perceived image of Olympic host country/city and their travel-related decision making? Then how the perceptions influence on their behavioral intention?

This study investigated the above research questions with the following reasons. First, event-induced tourism has been growing fast in recent decades (Li, Hsu and Lawton, 2015) and social media platforms have emerged as a dominant online marketing channel for mega-events. However, event and destination marketing practitioners have received very little guidance for integrating social media in their marketing communication strategies (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). Second, there is still a lack of empirical data on the tourist social media use and its impacts on their perceptions and decision-making.

METHOD

Data Collection.

For this study, an onsite intercept survey was conducted at a number of sites in PyeongChang city including the PyeongChang Olympic Plaza and train stations during 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympic period, Feb. 9~25, 2018. The surveys were distributed to 150 international travelers but only 125 completed surveys were returned and 104 were usable surveys, which formed the actual sample for this study.

Measures.

The survey consists of questions regarding the travelers' use of social media, their event experience, perceived image of Olympic host country and city as well as their demographic characteristics. The event experience measurement scale was adopted from Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010). Respondents were asked to indicate their attitude toward the PyeongChang Winter Olympics according to the 11 set of opposite adjectives. The

items include: unfulfilling/fulfilling, poor/excellent, not stimulating/stimulating, sad/joyful, unadventurous/adventurous, distressing/relaxing, boring/exciting, worthless/valuable, gloomy/cheerful, ugly/beautiful and unhealthy/healthy. Based on the results of factor analysis and reliability tests, ugly/beautiful item was deleted. The final measurement scale included the rest of 10 items. Reliability test showed the high internal consistency of the factor with Cronbach Alpha score of .951. The destination image was measured using a single item designed to measure the holistic image of destination ("Please rate the overall image of...") adopted from Stylos, Vassiliadis, Bellou and Andronikidis (2016). The travelers' intention to recommend the destination was measured using two items ("I would say positive things about this destination to other people", "I would recommend this destination to someone who seeks my advice"; $r = .899$) and their intention to revisit the destination was measured using a single item ("I would revisit this destination within the next few years").

Analysis.

Descriptive analyses were conducted to describe the participants' profile, their travel characteristics, use of social media during their visit to PyeongChang as well as their event experience and perceived image of South Korea and Pyeong Chang. Independent sample t-tests were performed to examine the differences between the official Olympic social media users and non-users in terms of their event experience and perceived image of destination. Multiple regression analyses were used to assess the influence of event experience and destination image on the travelers' behavioral intention.

FINDINGS

Profile of sample.

More male (52.9%) than female (47.1%) completed the survey. The largest age group was comprised of those who are between 30 and 39 years old (30.9%) but good percentages of travelers who are between 20 and 29 years old (26.8%), 50 and 59 years old (19.5%), and 40 and 49 years old (17.6%) also participated. Only 5.2 percent are 60 years or older. More than 60 percent of respondents came from western countries including the U.S.,

U.K. and Canada. The large majority of travelers reported that the trip was their first visit to South Korea (58.7%) and PyeongChang (88.5%). For most respondent (75.7%), the winter Olympic was the primary influential factor of their decision to visit the destination. More than 80 percent of travelers said they spend more than 4 nights (36.5 percent travelers spend 15 nights or more) in South Korea for their trip.

Social media use and impacts.

For the trip planning, 75 percent of travelers reported that they used the official Olympic website while smaller percentages of travelers used the official Olympic social media sites including Facebook (26.9%), Twitter (8.7%), Instagram (11.5%), YouTube (5.8%), and Flickr (1%). During their trip, about 84 percent of travelers used their personal social media platforms including Facebook (72.1%), Twitter (20.2%), Instagram (50%), YouTube (21.2%) and Snapchat (19.2%). More than half of them (54.8%) used the social media frequently or very frequently and 22 percent used it occasionally during their trip. The major motives to use social media while traveling are to share their experience (63.5%), to update with their families/friends (53.8%), to record their own experience (42.3%) and to entertain themselves (37.5%). In terms of their consumption and creation of Olympic-related contents on social media, 66.3 percent travelers searched for Olympic-related contents on social media while more travelers (83.7%) created the Olympic-related contents on social media during their visit to PyeongChang. Most travelers (71.6%) said that they have read travel-related contents online posted by other travelers while traveling and think that the contents serve as a moderate, a large, or the sole influence on their restaurant (74.6%), activities (64.8%), attraction (61.9%) and transportation (60.5%) decisions. Less number of travelers consider other travelers' online contents to be influential on their accommodation (50.7%), shopping (49.3%) and travel date/time (40.9%) decisions.

Social media use and event experience/ destination image.

The t-test results show that there were significant differences between the official Olympic social media site users and non-users in terms of

their perceived image of South Korea and PyeongChang as a tourism destination. The travelers who used the official Olympic social media platform to plan their trip reported more positive image of South Korea ($M=6.24$, $t(101)=2.3$, $p=.022$) and Pyeong Chang ($M=5.84$, $t(101)=2.7$, $p=.008$) as a tourism destination than the travelers who did not use the sites ($M=5.68$ and 5.05 respectively). However, there was no significant difference in their Olympic event experience and the perceived images of South Korea and PyeongChang as an Olympic host country/city.

Event experience/destination image and travelers' behavioral intention.

Multiple regression analyses were used to

assess if the Olympic event experience and the image of destination predict the international travelers intention to recommend the destination and their intention to revisit. The both regression models (Table 1 & 2) were statistically significant and explained about 70% of the variance of intention to recommend and 30% of the variance of intention to revisit. The results indicate that the event experience ($\beta=.17$) and the image of South Korea as a tourism destination ($\beta=.68$) are significant predictors of the international travelers' intention to recommend the destination. For their intention to revisit the destination, the image of South Korea as a tourism destination ($\beta=.44$) is a significant factor.

Table 1. Factors of International Travelers' Intention to Recommend the Destination

Independent Variables	Beta	P-value
Event Experience	.169	.025*
Image of South Korea as a tourism destination	.675	.000*
Image of PyeongChang as a tourism destination	.053	.648
Image of South Korea as an Olympic host country	.058	.644
Image of PyeongChang as an Olympic host city	-.015	.913

R Square = .713; Adjusted R Square = .696; F (5, 86) = 42.76 ($p<.000$); * $p<.05$

Table 2. Factors of International Travelers' Intention to Revisit the Destination

Independent Variables	Beta	P-value
Event Experience	-.060	.591
Image of South Korea as a tourism destination	.442	.010*
Image of PyeongChang as a tourism destination	-.037	.833
Image of South Korea as an Olympic host country	.229	.223
Image of PyeongChang as an Olympic host city	.037	.854

R Square = .356; Adjusted R Square = .318; F (5, 86) = 9.496 ($p<.000$); * $p<.05$

IMPLICATIONS /CONCLUSION

The findings of study provide a number of implications. The results show that the event website is an online communication hub while the social media platforms expand the communication efforts. More travelers search and share the event-related contents using their personal social media platforms than the official event platforms, which suggests the needs of monitoring the online user-generated content and using the communication strategies to engage audiences to leverage their eWOM for the

event marketing. The results also indicate that the event host country's image is one of key factors influencing the travelers' behavioral intention. This indicates the importance of destination branding. While these findings provide a snapshot of international travelers' social media use and impacts in their event experience, perceived image of destination and behavioral intention, the findings should be understood with the following limitation in mind. This study conducted an onsite survey, which researchers could not fully control other factors that might influence on their trips and

experience. Still many questions remain unanswered. Future studies should further investigate this underexplored area.

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UNDERSTANDING THE PERCEPTION AND USE OF INFORMATION SOURCES among FILIPINO OVERSEA TOURISTS

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INTRODUCTION

The technological phenomenon that is the Information Technology (IT), has revolutionized economies and enterprises (Dimitrios Buhalis, 1998 p.3) and travel all around the globe. Considered as the lifeblood of the travel industry (Buhalis, 1998p.3), its use defies borders, bridging the gap between countries and culture. It provides seamless communication and makes everything within reach. Buhalis also describes this dynamic character of IT through its ability to “constantly increase computing speed, decrease equipment size, reduce hardware and software costs, and improve reliability, compatibility and inter-connectivity of numerous terminals and applications.” Expectedly, IT also plays an important role in the Tourism Industry, and is instrumental in the cut-throat competition among tourism-related companies and even among countries. It also serves as a competitive advantage among enterprises which makes it imperative for them to keep up with dynamic innovations. Buhalis (1998, p.2) emphasized that surviving competition in the new millennium requires entities to be creative and innovative.

The use of IT in Tourism seems endless. Specifically among tourists, IT through the likes of the Computer Reservation Systems (CRSs), provides easy access to information on travel, accommodation and leisure services, destinations, holiday packages and actual price display and comparison (Buhalis, 1998 p.4). Being industry-driven, it enables companies to satisfy the increasingly sophisticated needs of the market. IT

allows companies to predict supply and demand, market a certain destination by putting up websites and advertisement in various platforms e.g. social media (facebook, twitter, instagram, wechat, etc), emails, television and radio programs. The following discusses the major aspects of travelling, in particular and tourism in general, that are have become accessible through information technology: **Destinations.** IT provides easy access to information about a destination. This includes its physical and natural features, its history and culture, safety and security, uniqueness and authenticity of the experiences that it offers and other matters pertaining to environmental scanning. **Transportation.** IT allows one to determine the mode/s of transportation that will bring him/her to a destination. Maps that guide the tourists are also handy in the internet. Applications are also available for the tourists to compare prices, reserve/book tickets ahead of time and complete transactions through online payment. **Accommodation.** Scanning available accommodation or lodging facilities by the tourist in a certain destination is facilitated by IT through websites and advertisements in various search engines and social media platforms. **Food and Beverage.** A very important part of the tourist's experience is the array of food that the destination offers. Food serves as an identity marker for a certain destination. This explains why, the Philippine Department of Tourism implemented the One Town, One Product program to provide every municipality leave a mark to the traveler. Taiwan's FUN 2018 (Rocamora, 2018) is another example of a tourism program that aimed to promote the

local cuisines of a place, which in this case, was Taipei. Applications enable the traveler to pore through loads of information on food destinations including comparison for prices and services. The latter can be obtained through food blogs and reviews of food writers and people who have travelled to the place and have experience the food culture of the place. More features of IT have flooded the market, making tourism products marketable. IT like food blogs and the easy manner of recording touristic experience through mobile phones and digital cameras also forces companies to shape up. A single posting of a negative experience will do damage to the destination.

METHOD

The study is descriptive in nature to grasp the information channel usage of potential Filipino overseas tourists. The objective of this study focuses on five aspects of information source usage for planning overseas trips: (1) which information sources are used by Filipinos for planning overseas trips? (2) Which specific websites are used by Filipinos to plan overseas trips? (3) Which social media are used to plan overseas trips? The survey instrument was designed with the input of academics, representatives from several large travel agents, and tourism bureaus. After incorporating suggested changes, a pilot test was carried out with a diverse group of Filipino tourists who purchased overseas trip from travel agents (n=39). The final draft of the instrument implemented edits recommended by the pilot group. The survey data was collected via a self-administrative questionnaire from November 2018 - January 2019 around the National Capital Region (NCR) in the Philippines from a total of 300 respondents. The findings that are reported are part of a larger study of Filipino tourist information search. Questions included in this analysis are perception of information sources, the frequency of overseas travel, and travel motivation. Information sources had 14 categories including (1) travel agent, (2) internet website, (3), promotion received via email, (4) articles in newspapers/magazines, (5) advertisements in newspapers/magazines, (6) travel guide books, (7) word of mouth, (8) visits to trade, travel or sportsmen's shows, (9) television/radio, (10) advertisements on television, (11) mail, (12) past

experience, (13) maps, and (14) official travel guides/brochures. Respondents were asked to rate listed information sources on a five-point Likert scale of the extent of influence of information sources to their destination choice (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree), and of how easy to access those information sources. Percentage and rank average were used to give a better picture of multiple choices.

FINDINGS

Most Commonly Used Information Sources Before Travel. Participants were asked to report the mostly-used information source as planning overseas travel. The top four mostly used sources include: (1) internet website (67.5%), (2) advice of friends or relatives/word-of-mouth (45%), (3) travel agent (31.7%), (4) past experience/been there before. It is worth noting that human contact (word-of-mouth and travel agent) remain crucial. Before the trip, Filipinos mostly relied to visiting internet website (67.5%), word-of-mouth from trusted sources, like friends and relatives (45%), and travel agents (31.7%). These are the top 3 information sources used by Filipinos when planning their overseas trip. Since the Internet was invented and became more recognized in the 1990s, people across the globe can now easily access any information through websites. Thus, information about any destination is made available online and Filipinos, being largely consumers of the Internet, would make bookings online, taking advantage of seat sales. Internet websites such as blogs, airlines' website or other travel or planning websites are commonly used as they are more accessible, making it easier and faster to compare prices and to choose destinations to visit. Word-of-mouth (45%) and past experiences (24.2%) also have a bigger impact during the planning stage as it is common in Filipino culture, the sharing of experiences. People love to talk and share about their travel experiences to their friends and family. Word-of-mouth and recommendations of friends and relatives who have been to a destination has helped Filipinos make decisions as to where to travel, where to stay, what to do and what to eat. Filipinos also seek the services of travel agents when travelling in large groups. Travel agencies' services and offerings provide more options for activities and ease for travelling as

processing of VISA and airline ticket bookings and accommodations are taken care of by the travel agent. Many also use other information sources such as travel guide books (12.5%), maps (15.8%) and official travel guides or brochures from provincial/state/national organizations (11.7%). These are mostly available in the destination they are visiting.

Most Commonly- Used Website Before Travel. Filipinos commonly use travel planning/booking website (45%), other websites (38.3%), airline's website (37.5%) when planning for their overseas trips. As Filipinos plan their itinerary nearer to the trip, they would get information by using the website of an attraction (30%) and website of a hotel or a resort (25.8%). They tend to decide whether to stay in a hotel or with friends or relatives living in a destination. Very few would use a cruise line website (0.8%) and none would use a motorcoach website (0%).

Most Commonly Used Social Media Site For Trip Planning. Information on activities, event, and thing-can-do is available in different social media sites. People are so used in using social media in sharing their travel experiences which have also encouraged and motivated other people to travel as well. The growing population of Internet users spends at least an hour per day on social networking. On average, Filipinos have accounts on at least one (1) of any of the social media sites such as Facebook, Instagram and Twitter. Table 1 shows that Facebook

(28.3%), Blogs (18.3%), TripAdvisor (14.2%) and YouTube (12.5%) are on the topic channel choice of respondents for collecting overseas travel information. Globally, Facebook remains the top network for membership and active usage. In Global Digital 2018 report, Philippines topped the world in terms of social media usage for three consecutive years. Filipinos spent an average of 3 hours and 57 minutes a day on social media sites, mainly on Facebook. There are 67 million Facebook accounts (We Are Social, 2018) which supports the result of this study that Facebook is the most commonly used social media site for travel planning. Blogs ranked second, TripAdvisor, third while Youtube came in fourth. Although no specific blogs were identified in the survey, thousands of travel-related blogs are available online. TripAdvisor is also commonly-used due to its helpful reviews about the places, price comparison and ranking of destinations, accommodations and restaurants. From providing metasearch services, Facebook eventually ventured to direct booking, making it easier for consumers to book for a destination of their choice. YouTube is the world's second largest search engine and third most visited site after Google and Facebook (Brandwatch, 2019). YouTube features travel content videos as compared to blogs which contain mostly photos and written description of activities and destinations. Travel videos influence viewers to explore another destination. Celebrities and influencers also make a mark.

Table 1. The Number of Websites have you used in the past 2 years to plan overseas trips

Number of Websites	Percent	Rank
1	50.0	1
2	20.8	2
3	15.0	3
4	8.3	4
5	3.3	5
6	2.5	6

CONCLUSION

This results of the study indicate that the top four information sources that Filipino tourists traveling overseas include internet website, advice of friends or relatives/word-of-mouth, travel agent

and past experience/been there before. Before the trip, Filipinos mostly relied to visiting Internet Website, word-of-mouth from trusted sources (e.g. friends and relatives, and travel agents). The top channel choice of respondents for collecting overseas travel information include Facebook (28.3%), Blogs

(18.3%), TripAdvisor (14.2%) and YouTube (12.5%). These data will help tourism marketing agencies determine how to reach out to Filipino tourist on matters concerning travel planning and choices.

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MODELING VISITOR SATISFACTION IN A WORLD HERITAGE SITE: EVIDENCE FROM HOI AN ACIENT TOWN, VIETNAM

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INTRODUCTION

Heritage tourism has been one of the fastest growing tourism market with hundreds of millions of visitors travelling every year (Hollywood, Bolan, & McMahon-Beattie, 2017; Nguyen & Cheung, 2015). Therefore, the understanding of heritage tourist's satisfaction becomes very important for both academics and Destination Management Organization (DMOs). Previous studies focused on understanding tourist satisfaction from the comparison of service quality and customers' expectations (Bowen, 2001; Oliver, 1980, 1993; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2001). However, tourists' memorable experiences through their engagement during visitation should be considered as determinants of tourist's satisfaction (Szymanski & Henard, 2001; Wirtz, Mattila, & Tan, 2000, Taheri et al., 2014). In addition, perceived image of a heritage site also plays an important role in tourists' perception about a destination (Remoaldo et al., 2014). Considering these factors, the purpose of this study is to investigate the influences of during-visitation experiences and heritage destination image on tourists' satisfaction in the context of heritage tourism which have not yet been studies in the literature. This study provides managerial implications for DMOs to propose marketing and management strategies aiming to satisfy tourists at a destination site.

METHOD

The instrument used in this research was adapted from existing scales found in previous studies and modified to be suitable for the context

of Hoi An heritage tourism. In particular, visitor engagement was measured by six items: using guided tours, using videos and audios, using guided book and literature, seeking help from staff, playing with materials, using the on-site online facilities (Taheri et al., 2014). Eight items measuring memorable experience were obtained from relevant studies (Kim et al., 2012; Kim & Ritchie, 2013). "Perceived image of a heritage site" consisted of sixteen items adapted from the study by Remoaldo et al. (2014) on tourists' perceptions of world heritage destinations. Tourist satisfaction scale included two items cited from the study by Rojas & Camarero (2008), "I am pleased with my decision to visit this heritage site", "I will say positive things about this site" and one item cited from Žabkar et al. (2010), "Visit to the tourist destination exceeded my expectations". Respondents were asked to evaluate the level of agreement on all 23 measurement items using a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). In addition, respondents were also asked to provide their social-demographic information as well as information related their trip.

A self-administered on site survey was carried out to collect data from both international and domestic tourists in Hoi An Ancient Town. A total of 368 valid questionnaires were collected, however only 353 were qualified for data analysis after a data screening process including the examination of missing data, unengaged responses and extreme multivariate outliers.

FINDINGS

Demographic profile of respondents

Table 1. Profile of respondents of the study (n=353)

	n	%		n	%		n	%
Gender			Education			Times visiting Hoi An		
Male	143	40.5	High school or equivalent	36	10.2	Once	187	53
Female	210	59.5	College	43	12.2	Twice	36	10.2
			Bachelor's degree	197	55.8	Three times	30	8.5
			Post graduate	77	21.8	More than three times	100	28.3
Age			Region			Length of visiting		
15-24	151	42.8	Asia	199	56.4	1-3 days	240	68
25-34	117	33.1	Europe	92	26.1	3-5 days	66	18.7
35-44	21	5.9	North America	14	4	5-7 days	23	6.5
45-54	22	6.2	South America	1	0.3	More than 7 days	24	6.8
55-64	30	8.5	Australia	44	12.5			
65 and over	12	3.4	Africa	3	0.8			

Factor analysis

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) procedure was firstly conducted on 26 measurement items. Six dimensions were extracted with eigenvalues >1 . Nevertheless, three items, 'Beautiful weather', 'Vietnam's birthplace', 'Perfect safety' which had the factor loading lower than 0.4, were eliminated. A second EFA analysis was then conducted on the remaining 23 items, indicating that five of all factors should be retained. A procedure for measurement model evaluation suggested by Hair et al. (2014) was performed for five components which were extracted from 23 items after an EFA. Results shown in Table 2 indicated the adequate reliability, convergent and discriminant validity.

Structural model evaluation

Each hypothesized relationship was examined through regression coefficients (β). The evaluation of significance of β values is based on t-value, which was obtained using the Bootstrap procedure with 353 cases and 5000 resamples. The coefficient is considered significant if the empirical t-value is greater than 1.65 at significant level of 10% (Hair et al., 2014). Table 3 presents the results of relationships proposed in the conceptual framework. Accordingly, the tourist engagement, memorable experience and perceived image of convenience were found to be determinants of tourist satisfaction with a heritage site. While tourist engagement did not lead to perceived image, memorable experiences had significant influences on perceived image of a heritage destination.

Table 2. EFA and Measurement Evaluation of Factors

Items	EFA			CFA			
	Factor Loadings	Eigen-values	Explained variance	Cronbach's Alpha	Outer loadings	CR	AVE
Engagement		1.019	2.746			0.804	0.507
I use guided tour at the site	0.562			0.690	0.678		
I use videos and audios at the site	0.750				0.715		
I play with materials to understand about the site	0.618				0.713		
I use the on-site online facilities during my visit	0.445				0.740		
Memorable experiences		7.672	31.127	0.864		0.897	0.556
I am thrilled about having a new experience at the site	0.525				0.770		
I really enjoyed this tourism experience	0.503				0.775		
This is a once-in-a-lifetime experience	0.697				0.726		
This visiting is different from previous experiences of a heritage site	0.712				0.738		

Items	EFA			CFA			
	Factor Loadings	Eigen-values	Explained variance	Cronbach's Alpha	Outer loadings	CR	AVE
I have experienced something new about the site's local culture	0.655				0.722		
I feel refreshing while staying in Hoi An	0.518				0.781		
I was interested in the main activities of this tourism experience	0.423				0.702		
<i>Perceived image's dimension 1: Shopping and entertainment</i>		1.483	4.621	0.767		0.852	0.593
Good entertainment quality	0.715				0.853		
Considerable entertainment quantity	0.755				0.825		
Plenty of shopping opportunities	0.441				0.704		
Youth population	0.490				0.684		
<i>Perceived image's dimension 2: Convenience</i>		2.222	7.098	0.791		0.860	0.553
Regional centrality	0.401				0.637		
Diverse gastronomy	0.579				0.702		
Welcoming city	0.663				0.804		
High quality hotels	0.649				0.800		
Good value for money	0.570				0.761		
<i>Satisfaction</i>		1.752	5.782	0.792		0.890	0.730
I am pleased with my decision to visit this heritage site	0.780				0.849		
I will say positive things about this site	0.765				0.902		
Visit to the tourist destination exceeded my expectations	0.403				0.809		

Table 3. Results of path significance of structural model

Hypothesized path	Coefficient	t-value	Results
H1: Engagement -> Memorable experiences	0.321	7.259**	Supported
H2a: Engagement -> Perceived image Efficiency	0.041	0.911 ^{ns}	Not supported
H2b: Engagement -> Perceived image Shopping and entertainment	-0.009	0.164	Not supported
H3a: Memorable experiences -> Perceived image Efficiency	0.520	11.076**	Supported
H3b: Memorable experiences->Perceived image Shopping and entertainment	0.513	11.165**	Supported
H4: Engagement -> Satisfaction	-0.131	3.228**	Supported
H5: Memorable experiences -> Satisfaction	0.499	9.478**	Supported
H6a: Perceived image Efficiency -> Satisfaction	0.322	5.898**	Supported
H6b: Perceived image Shopping and entertainment -> Satisfaction	0.037	0.761 ^{ns}	Not supported

Note: ^{ns} non-significant, ** $p < 0.01$.

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The study provided the empirical evidence to validate a model of tourist's satisfaction in a heritage site. Tourist's satisfaction is directly influenced by tourist's engagement and experiences during their visitation to a heritage site. In addition, the image of a convenient destination perceived by tourists leads to their satisfaction of heritage trips. These findings make a theoretical contribution by providing the understanding the relationships between tourist engagement – memorable experiences – perceived image – tourist satisfaction in the context of heritage tourism that have been found in the literature.

From a managerial perspective, the results of study suggest some implications for DMOs. DMOs should invest in on-site activities to improve tourist's engagement such as using guided tour, videos, audios or advertised materials of heritage site and provide tourists with memorable experiences during their visitation. In addition, it is important for DMOs to develop a welcoming destination with diverse gastronomy, high quality hotels that contribute to satisfy heritage tourists.

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“LET'S GO AND SEE THE ‘SINKING ISLANDS’ OF TUVALU”: CLIMATE CHANGE, DISAPPEARING LANDSCAPE, AND TOURIST EXPERIENCE

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INTRODUCTION

With increasing awareness of climate change around the world, scholars of tourism have analyzed how the tourism industry has contributed to climate change by increasing greenhouse gas, and they have examined ways around the various effects climate change has on the tourism industry (Scott et al., 2012). In these climate change and tourism debates, some scholars have paid attention to a new niche tourism generated by climate change, i.e. the tourism of visiting “disappearing” landscapes (Lemelin et al., 2012). Until now, this type of tourism has been referred to by various terms such as last-chance tourism, disappearing tourism, doomsday tourism, and climate change tourism; among them, last-chance tourism seems to be the most common term. As “last-chance” indicates, tourists are supposed to rush to destinations in danger of disappearing, and these locations are often described as “Places To Visit Before They're Gone Forever” (Rodrigues 2018). Such descriptions presuppose that a landscape must never change, and if it changes, that means losing its essential value.

What I would like to show here is that people do not only seek “places to see before they're gone” but also to see the “disappearing.” In this case, the places become tourist destinations because they are disappearing. The previous research on last-chance tourism has already pointed out this, “tourists explicitly seek vanishing landscapes or seascapes, and/or disappearing natural and/or social heritage”(Lemelin et al., 2010, p.478); however overlooked this point to investigate. In this paper, I discuss a case in Tuvalu, Polynesia which is called “sinking islands” due to climate change induced sea-level rise. I will analyze how tourists experience the disappearing landscapes since it's not easy to literally see the disappearing.

BACKGROUND and METHOD

Tuvalu is a microstate with a population of about 10,000, comprised of low-lying atolls thought to be most vulnerable to sea-level rise. Mass media from developed countries including Japan have claimed repeatedly that the impacts of climate change such as erosions, saltwater inundations, and high tides are already occurring in Tuvalu (Farbotko 2010); however, some scholars have shown historical and social backgrounds for the impacts as well as global environmental change (Yamano et al. 2007). Tuvalu has been described as “the place to visit before it's gone”(Lonely Planet 2009), but it has never been a major tourist destination and tourism is not an important industry in Tuvalu (Prideaux & McNamara, 2013).

A Japanese NGO Tuvalu Overview has initiated ecotourism in the Funafuti atoll, the capital of Tuvalu in 2003, and organized events once or twice a year until 2013. The main objective of the NGO is to protect Tuvalu from climate change, especially sea-level rise. Ecotourism is a means of awareness-raising by providing opportunities to see and experience the impacts of climate change and the traditional way of life (Tuvalu Overview n.d.). The tour gathers 4 to 10 participants at a time. The participants range from school kids to elders, many university students, with slightly more women than men. They are mostly interested in environmental issues especially climate change, and their motivation is to see the “sinking islands” with their own eyes. The participants have knowledge about the impacts of climate change on Tuvalu through TV, newspapers, magazines, and the websites including that of Tuvalu Overview before they travel. The participants travel in a group guided by the staff of Tuvalu Overview. After arriving at Funafuti by airplane, they receive a lecture from the local expert. The next day they visit the sites

impacted by climate change on bus. On the third day, they take a boat around the islets of the atoll to see the erosion and to experience traditional life. The participants enjoy their free time on the fourth day, and they fly back on the fifth day.

This paper is based on qualitative research. I obtained the data through participant observation and semistructured interviews. I joined the ecotour as a local guide and interpreter in 2005, 2006, 2009 and 2010. I didn't ask the participants any research questions at the site but listened to their conversation and observed how they behaved. Especially I paid much attention to how they see and feel about the nature and culture in Tuvalu. I took notes after the fact. I conducted semi-structured interviews with the participants and the staffs in Japan. I recruited the interviewees through the mailing list of Tuvalu Overview. I have managed to interview 10 participants from 2006 until now. The age group of the interviewees are from 20's to 60's, still most are 20's, and the ratio of men and women is just half and half. Interviews are done years later after the trip but all of them clearly remembered the tour. The interview took about an hour and a half per person. I asked them to recollect the trip in chronological order.

FINDINGS

How did the tourists experience the disappearing landscapes? It is not an automatic process: as if you go to Tuvalu and you can see the sinking islands. Indeed, participants of the tour need to actively read the landscapes to see the sinking islands. All of the participants see roughly the same landscapes, such as coastal erosions, saltwater inundations, high tides, the so-called impacts of climate change. However, some did not interpret them as disappearing landscapes. A male university student said he went to Tuvalu without a keen awareness of climate change and thought there was nothing special, declining to interpret the sites as consequences of climate change. He also said that he had expected to be more shocked but that he was not. This shows that tourists' experience depends on whether they can read the landscapes in the context of climate change to see the sinking islands. Indeed, the ecotour is a process in which participants read the disappearing landscapes while traveling around the atoll. In this process,

participants superimpose known images onto the actual landscapes. For example, there is a site often featured in mass media where the saltwater springs up from the ground to inundate in February and March. When a tour group arrived there, a man said this is the place he had dared to see. This suggests he reconfirmed images created by mass media at the real site. In these readings, the guide played an important role. At the site, the guide showed how high the inundated saltwater went up by pointing to the wall of a building, telling them that the situation was getting worse. By doing this, the guide led the participants to read the landscape carefully in the context of climate change, not the peaceful island life it appeared.

However, they sometimes read too much into the landscapes, seeing more impact of climate change than was present. For example, a woman saw shops selling imported foods and the taro damaged by saltwater, and she grasped that climate change had destroyed the self-sufficient lifestyle so that people were forced to rely on imported food. It is a fact that people rely on imported food and saltwater had damaged the taro; however, the former is not the cause of the latter. Most of the population in Funafuti are from outer islands, who do not have land to cultivate. People have relied on imported food since the population on Funafuti rapidly expanded in the 1970s, when climate change was not a problem at all. In addition, the tourists' interpretations are not static but very dynamic and changing. Some of them reinterpreted what they saw after the trip. An elder man reflected upon his experience and doubted if Tuvalu was sinking or not; he wondered what he had seen in Tuvalu. He believed he saw the disappearing landscapes with his own eyes while staying in Tuvalu, but when he came back and was exposed to skeptical viewpoint on climate change—which claims that Tuvalu is sinking because of the subsiding of the land caused by the concentration of population and not by sea-level rise—he worried if his experience could in fact be interpreted in the context of climate change.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

This paper has shown how tourists see the disappearing landscapes by examining the case of the sinking islands of Tuvalu. The result shows that

tourists' experiences are highly dependent upon the active reading of the landscape: those who can interpret the landscape in the context of climate change saw the sinking islands with their own eyes. On the contrary, for those who could not interpret them as being a climate change induced phenomenon, the supposed impacts of climate change, such as erosions and seawater intrusions, seemed to be nothing special. In order to see the impacts on landscapes, tourists imposed the images produced by mass media onto the site, and the guides led them by providing the context of what they were looking at. The landscape is open for tourists to interpret in various ways, including, to one extreme, finding false cause-and-effects. And the tourists' experience is never fixed, it is subject to reinterpretation even after the trip. Experiencing the disappearing landscapes entails a dynamic and complicated process. Right in the midst of the process, tourists could envision uncertain futures of the earth through the lens of Tuvalu.

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TOURISTS' PERSPECTIVES ON VALUE CO-CREATION FOR DEVELOPING AUGMENTED REALITY HERITAGE APPLICATION

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INTRODUCTION

Augmented reality (AR) refers to any enrichments of the real world by computer-generated content (Rauschnabel, Rossmann, & tom Dieck, 2017). The concept of AR is linked to smart tourism as a social phenomenon arising from the convergence of information and communication technologies (ICTs) with tourism experience (Hunter et al., 2015; Tussyadiah, Jung, & tom Dieck, 2017). Today, the role of tourists has changed (Wikström, 1996) from a co-producer to a co-creator (Vargo & Lush, 2006; tom Dieck & Jung, 2017), leading tourists' active participation. The co-creator is based on the concept of the co-creation defined as a form of tourist involvement in the development of tourism products (Jung & tom Dieck, 2017). According to Roser and Samson (2009), co-creation paves the way for the relationship between tourists and developers, while creating shared meaning and a common sense of purpose. Therefore, the co-creation might be necessary in order to increase tourists' satisfaction and enhance the quality of tourists' experiences in tourism destinations. A phenomenon of crowdedness caused by a large volume of visitors can be easily observed in many World Heritage Sites (WHSs), which diminishes the quality of tourists' experiences and causes of visitors' negative emotions such as anger (Mok, 2017). The congestion of WHSs tends to be focused on only several places. Since the AR is useful for enhancing the real environment (Kalawsky, Stedmon, Hill, & Cook, 2000; Rauschnabel et al., 2017), the AR application might help to solve the permanent congestion of WHSs, enhancing the experience of

tourists with user-oriented information. Previously, many tourist applications have been developed without involvement of tourists. Even though the user-oriented information is important for successful tourist applications, tourists' involvement has not been considered in developing mobile AR Heritage applications due to managerial issues in reality, which receives little scholarly attention. AR technology is useful to bring hidden story to life for WHSs and tourists' participation/involvement is critical for the development of successful AR Heritage application. Thus, this study aims to identify tourists' perspectives on value co-creation for developing the AR Heritage application through the case study of Macau's WHSs.

METHOD

Since in-depth interviewing is a common data-collecting tool in the Grounded Theory approach (Tan et al., 2013), in-depth interviews were employed to develop themes in terms of the perspectives of tourists on the value co-creation for developing the AR application. In total, 36 tourists were interviewed from March 24, 2017 to April 27, 2017. As for the sampling venues, considering the biased visiting pattern of tourists in the WHSs of Macau which means that the three locations of the WHSs are over-used whilst the remaining 22 locations are under-used (Lee & Rii, 2016), this study chose A-ma temple (2 tourists) and the Ruins of St. Paul's (3) among the three over-used heritage attractions and ten locations among the 22 under-used attractions: St. Augustine's Church (5), Lou Kau Mansion (4), Sir Robert Ho Tung Library (5), Lilau Square (7), Moorish Barracks (1), St.

Joseph's Seminary and Church (1), Sam Kai Vui Kum Temple (1), St. Lawrence's Church (4), St. Anthony's Church (1), and Casa Garden (2).

FINDINGS

This study was undertaken to identify the

perspectives of tourists on value co-creation for developing the AR Heritage application through the case of the WHSs of Macau. This study generated four themes by the Grounded Theory approach: tourist as a key asset, tourist empowerment, co-creation tourism experience, and reflex of tourists' needs (Table 1).

Table 1. Summary table of open coding, axial coding and selective coding

Concepts generated from interview transcripts	Sub-themes	Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Considering tourists' requirement •Designing for tourists •Raising tourists' satisfaction •Means of tourism promotion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Tourist as a source of knowledge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Tourist as a key asset
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Authorizing tourist involvement for effective data collection •More professional by tourist empowerment •Protection of heritage by tourist empowerment •Organizing with DMOs* and government •Establishing of law •Decentralization of power •Non-professional •No enough time for co-creation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Authorizing tourist involvement •Protection of heritage •Necessity of legalization •Decentralization •Inefficiency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Tourist empowerment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •More humanization by tourist involvement •Leading the direction of the development by tourists' participation •Challenge •Broadening my horizon •Willing to be partner •Partnership with tourists for good opportunity to service tourists 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Tourist involvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Co-creation tourism experience
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Information about history, introduction of attractions, transportation, business hours, location, map, culture, scenery, ticket, surrounding hotel and restaurant, and other tourists' postscript 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Self-actualization •Tourists' willing to be partner •Needs for information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Reflex of tourists' needs
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Connecting with social network •Sharing with other tourists •Protecting Heritage •Relationship between users and developers •Helping tourists and government 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Needs for social relation 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Interesting •Like tour guide •Comprehensive •Specific •Making vivid history •Memorial •Romantic •Recalling •Site consultation •Simple •Not expensive •Security •Providing video game •To be connected to nearby surrounding •Connecting with all attractions •Interacting with the ancients •Sound information 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Emotional needs 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •QR code •Off-line service •Navigating •Multilingual services •Taking photos •Interaction •3D image •Android •Mobile App store •Improving map •Linking with Alipay, Uber, MeiTuan •Recording •Route planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Function-related needs 	

*: DMOs (Destination Management Organizations)

CONCLUSION

Theoretically, this study broadens understanding of co-creation by identifying tourists' perspectives in terms of mobile AR Heritage application. There are four themes generated by this study, which are 'tourist as a key asset', 'tourist empowerment', 'co-creation tourism experience', and 'reflex of tourists' needs'. These perspectives of tourists may pave a way that mobile AR Heritage applications might have a possibility to be developed through the value co-creation that transforms the tourists into an active partner for the creation of future value (Roser & Samson, 2009). However, although co-creation as an innovative approach fosters the partnerships between developers and tourists, trust between developers and tourists (Pera et al., 2016) and transparency with accessible business information and eliminating information barriers need to be prepared in advance (Pralhad & Ramaswamy, 2004) based on the generated themes by this study.

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FLOW PHENOMENON AS A HERITAGE TOURISM EXPERIENCE: THE CASE OF MARITIME GREENWICH, UK

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INTRODUCTION

The heart of tourism in today's world is the involvement and delivery of visitation experiences to a wider group of visitors who desire to gaze, appreciate and experience the nature of different destinations. The experiential component emphasizes on the personal experience of visiting the destination (Ye & Tussyadiah, 2011) as experiences are personal and unique, therefore there are high possibility that no two individuals will bear the same experience (Nguyen & Cheung, 2014).

Heritage tourism is increasingly regarded as both an individual and experiential phenomenon in addition to being related to specific attributes of a destination (Alexander, Bryce, & Murdy, 2016). The demand for heritage experiences has increased rapidly (Adie & Hall, 2016), and The World Tourism Organisation reported that heritage have become a factor in nearly 50% of all international trips undertaken (UNWTO, 2011). In 2018, 645 historic properties responded to the survey indicating that there were 69.8 million visits to historic properties in 2017. It was noted that the visits increased by 4% between 2016 and 2017 which is an increase of up to 55% since the survey began in 1989 (Historic England, 2018).

Tourists are constantly creating new heritage experiences to enjoy the natural and social environments. Having said that, it is significant to comprehend that tourist experiences are developed within a tourist depending on how their specific mood and state of mind reacts to the destination (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Pine & Gilmore, 2011 (Mao, Roberts, Pagliaro, Csikszentmihalyi, & Bonaiuto, 2016). Despite that, there is a surprising lack of understanding of visitors' perspective on the experience of visiting a heritage site (Nguyen and Cheung 2014; Adie and Hall 2016) especially using the flow theory perspective. The social scientists are also of the same mind that this discipline of heritage experiences is under-researched and less

investigated (Larsen, 2007). Additionally, it was noted that heritage studies in the scope of tourist experience also suffer from a lack of empirical studies. Flow theory presented by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) is an optimal experience that brings intrinsic rewards and has no extrinsic motivation or material rewards which any heritage tourist may experience anytime. Per Csikszentmihalyi (2016) because of intrinsic rewards, individuals are willing to duplicate their experiences whenever possible.

Hence, this study is based on flow theory perspective, where flow is defined as the "state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1992, p.4). This study aims to examine critically the tourist flow experience at a heritage destination, set within the broader concept of heritage tourism, tourist experience, flow experience and experience economy. This study seeks to shed light on the forces that drive tourist behaviour at a heritage destination to accommodate the paradigm shift in heritage visitation and consumption. This study, therefore, evaluates the experiences of tourists in a heritage destination, employing a questionnaire to clarify the relationships among the research variables. Further, the study uses structural equation modelling (SEM) to analyse various hypotheses, providing theoretical and managerial implications for research and industry.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Heritage Tourism

Heritage tourism is considered as one of the oldest forms of tourism, dating back to ancient records of explorers, sailors and traders. Hall and Zeppel (1990, p.87) acknowledged heritage tourism "...is also an experiential tourism in the sense of seeking an encounter with nature or feeling part of the history of a place". In contrast, UNWTO

defined heritage tourism as “an immersion in the natural history, human heritage, arts, philosophy and institutions of another region or country” (UNWTO, 2011).

UNESCO World Heritage Centre defines ‘heritage’ as “our legacy from the past, what we live with today, and what we pass on to future generations. Our cultural and natural heritage are irreplaceable sources of line and inspiration” (UNESCO, 2012). Studies show that heritage has become an important feature in tourism and the consumption of heritage is increasing annually through visitation (Nguyen & Cheung, 2014; Timothy & Boyd, 2006). Changes in the leisure, tourism and travel industry have shown that the ‘experience’ of heritage has become an important factor for tourists. Heritage tourism has crucially contributed to national and global knowledge by furnishing an opportunity for cultural, historical and human experiences (Wang, Wu, & Yuan, 2009). Robinson, Evans, Long, Sharpley, and Swarbrooke (2000) emphasized it would be difficult to visualize tourism without heritage.

Heritage tourism offers a unique tourist experience and has emerged as a part of new tourist practices for a destination. Heritage tourism has become ever-present these days in urban and rural landscapes and visiting and experiencing the past by way of heritage sites and museums has become a regular practice (Wu and Wall 2016). The production of heritage for tourism involves selecting and reclaiming a past, then turning it into an experience. Creating heritage experiences within a destination is a fundamental part of present growth. Heritage sites became the place where tourists head to experience the past.

Tourists want to relate to the destination by participating, learning and experiencing as it is believed that experiencing tourism is a route to experiencing happiness (Hall, 2011). Therefore, it is important for heritage destinations and tourism operators to consider incorporating strategies that will heighten unexpected experiences into their plans. Knowing the right strategies on how to excite tourists at a heritage destination in order to create enjoyable, engaging and memorable heritage experiences for tourists will put the destination at an advantage. Understanding what a memorable experience is in the mind of the tourists is crucial, as memories of visitors’ past experiences affect their

decision on whether to revisit the destination in the future (Adie & Hall, 2016). As (Pizam, 2010, p.343) pointed out that “creating memorable experiences is the essence and the raison d’être of the hospitality industry”.

Heritage tourism is essentially an experiential product. Creating heritage experiences within a destination is a fundamental part of present growth. Heritage sites became the place where tourists head to experience the past. In a heritage tourism environment, nearly everything a “tourist goes through at a destination is an experience, be it behavioural or perceptual, cognitive or emotional, expressed or implied” (Oh, Fiore, & Jeoung, 2007 ,p.120). Hence, it is crucial to understand the interaction of a tourist with a heritage destination to recognize the construction of the visitor’s experience.

Experience

The term experience has gained momentum for nearly two decades; many different meanings, interpretations and perceptions of it exist. Experience is at the heart of consumption, it is what tourists have come to seek, to enjoy, and it is time invested to create long lasting memories (Frochot & Batat, 2013).

Experiences are “manifold”. Tourism offers “an alternative experience of time, that is, time off or holiday time, which appears as an alternative rhythm, free from constraints of the daily tempo” (Wang, Wu, & Yuan, 2010, p.216). They engage tourists’ senses (Sundbo & Darmer, 2008).

The tourism industry is about selling experiences. Tourism destinations, attractions operators and heritage sites assume that experience can be packaged so that tourists will be offered exciting and memorable experiences; however, their assumption might not be so accurate (Ritchie & Hudson, 2009) as, firstly, experiences arise out of a tourist’s social and cultural background. The way people frame experience is embedded in the social order of specific societies and social groups. Tourists have different interests and backgrounds, which tends to lead to a variety of interpretations. Consequently, these different backgrounds lead to diverse interpretations of a single tourism product, hence why a single product will not interest and excite all tourists.

Secondly, experiences are multi-faceted

(Packer and Ballantyne 2016); experiences are formed from activities and the physical environment, as well as the social meanings embedded in the activities. Tourists have different experiences, even if they are doing the same thing in the same place. Thirdly, experiences are existential. They are embodied in tourists in that they are personally felt and can only be expressed. The visitor's experience is described to be the sense of feeling or thinking, and it is a personal feeling which can be expressed. In other words, experiences are highly personal, emotionally perceived, intangible, momentary and constantly ongoing. Tourists talk about how their own experience and their moods and personal feelings of the moment do affect their experience. Therefore, understanding these cognitive and affective characteristics is vital so that heritage products are able to induce memorable experiences for the tourists.

Pine and Gilmore (1999) noted that the more sensory an experience becomes, the more memorable it will be. Hence, even a simple cue can heighten an experience through a single sense. Due to the nature of personal constructs which varies from tourist to tourist, experiences cannot be entirely created (Engeser, 2012). Andersson (2007, p.46) proposed that "tourist experiences can't be bought", and the destination can furnish "input" that the tourist uses to create their own experiences.

"Experiences are highly personal, subjectively perceived, intangible, ever fleeting and continuously ongoing" (O' Dell, 2007, p.38). The expression of 'experience' itself leads to a different situation: the moment-by-moment lived experience (*Erlebnis*) and the evaluated experience (*Erfahrung*), which is a subject reflection and the prescribed meaning (Highmore, 2002). Evaluated experience is characterised as experiences that are being formed within a person who is engaged with an event on an emotional, physical, spiritual or intellectual level and leaves a memorable impression (Pine and Gilmore 1999).

For this research, experience is defined as "a steady flow of fantasies, feelings and fun" (Holbrook and Hirschman 1982, p.132) "that triggers simulations to the senses, the heart and the mind" (Schmitt 1999, p.25) and keeps individuals motivated, immersed and absorbed (Csikszentmihalyi 1992; Pine and Gilmore 1999). In addition to this, experience "engages individuals

in a personal way to create memorable experiences" (Pine and Gilmore 1999, p.12) as "a result of encountering, undergoing or living through situations" (Schmitt 1999, p.25).

Experience Economy

Experience economy created by Pine and Gilmore (1998) sets out the vision for a new economic era: the experience economy in which consumers are in search of extraordinary and memorable experiences. In this fast-growing experience economy industry, consumers look to gain emotional memories, sensation and symbolism which combine to create a holistic and long-lasting personal experience. In the process of creating experiences, several elements would play an important role: the physical attributes and qualities of the destination; the activities the tourist engages in; and interactions with people and places. Economists (Pine and Gilmore 1998) suggested that experience, as an economic concept, differs from service in that whereas services are intangible, experiences are memorable. In their view, services are delivered, whilst experiences are staged:

"An experience occurs when a company intentionally uses services as the stage, and goods as props, to engage individual customers in a way that creates a memorable event" (Pine and Gilmore 1998, p.95).

In the experience economy, experiences would be the main economic offering, hence creating quality consumption of experience as the main mission for service providers and the world of businesses. "Staging experiences is not about entertaining customers; it is about engaging them" (Pine and Gilmore 1998, p.30). Pine and Gilmore considered that experience is divided into four categories (entertainment, educational, escapist, esthetics - sic) 4Es, depending upon where they lie on the spectra of two dimensions, namely, absorption/immersion and passive/active participation (Pine and Gilmore 1998). The horizontal axis corresponds to the level of tourist participation, which is divided into active and passive participation. Active participation is "where tourists personally affect the performance or event", and passive participation is "where tourists do not directly affect or influence the performance" (Pine and Gilmore 1999, p.30). While, the vertical axis corresponds to the kind of connection, or

environmental relationship, that unites tourists with the event, performance or activity. Pine and Gilmore then also suggest that the ideal combination of four realms leads to the optimal experience. In this state of intensive involvement, when a person lets go of their consciousness and of the passage of time, one can say that the tourist experiences complete immersion into the activity.

Flow Experience

Flow theory is a popular theoretical framework for understanding the underpinnings of an individual's experience in various field of research such as psychology, information systems, online gaming, consumer purchase behaviour, marketing, work and sports. The flow theory has, since its introduction, gained acknowledgment in social sciences research too.

Flow experience is a concept defined by Csikszentmihalyi to describe those moments when a person is totally absorbed in an activity. As such, every other thing surrounding the person will be forgotten. The person will have the total concentration on the activity that they are engaged in (Csikszentmihalyi, 1992). Flow state refers to those optimal, extremely enjoyable experiences when an individual engages in an activity with total involvement, concentration and enjoyment, and experiences an intrinsic interest as well as a sense of time distortion during their engagement. As a result, when an activity produces such an enjoyable experience, even without any extrinsic motivation or material rewards, individuals are willing to duplicate their experience whenever possible because of internal motivations (Chen, Wigand, & Nilan, 1999; Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Mao et al., 2016).

Flow is the mental state of operation in which a person in an activity is fully immersed in a feeling of energized focus, full involvement, and success in the process of the activity. The flow experience is composed of the core experience of flow; close correlates of the flow experience (i.e. playfulness); antecedents of flow (i.e. skill, challenge, interactivity, focused attention, arousal); and consequences of flow (including positive effect, exploratory behaviour and control). The hallmark of flow is a feeling of spontaneous joy, even rapture, while performing a task although flow is also described as a deep focus on nothing but the activity

– not even oneself or one's emotions (Csikszentmihalyi, 1992).

Flow is also a psychological state that appears to arise during optimal human experience. Flow state also encourages an individual to seek an activity for the enjoyment it gives. While participating in tourism activities, flow experience enhances tourism satisfaction and happiness (Wu & Liang, 2011). Asakawa (2004) found that psychological happiness is present during a high state of flow, indicating that flow can enhance psychological happiness. Thus, for tourists, the attainment of a flow experience is the main reason for participating in tourism activities.

Flow is generally reported when a person is doing their favourite activity – gardening, listening to music, bowling, cooking and so on (Allison & Duncan, 1988). Very rarely do people report flow in passive leisure activities, such as watching television or relaxing. However, as flow is about performing certain activities just for the sake of intrinsic enjoyment, therefore leisure activities such as visiting heritage sites is included in this paradigm. Being “in flow” is described the subjective experience of engaging just-manageable challenges by attempting a series of goals, unceasingly processing feedback about progress, and changing action based on this feedback. Flow is completely focused motivation, a single-minded immersion into an activity where emotions are not just contained and channelled, but positive, energised, and aligned with the task at hand (Csikszentmihalyi, 2016).

Flow theory has been linked with positive consequences that lead to the intrinsically rewarding state of deep absorption. However, there has been a dark side to flow theory. As Schuler and Nakamura (2013) argued that the positive rewarding value of the flow experience can lead to an addiction to the flow-producing activity. This observation has been confirmed in different fields of operation, such as exercise addiction, internet addiction and cyber-gaming addiction. There is also an element of risk taking in flow in adventure tourism like rock climbing, kayaking and white-water rafting. Flow can contribute to risky behaviour in physical activities. Bad flow leads to negative, addictive, meaningless, and waste of time (Csikszentmihalyi, 2016) Salisbury and Tomlinson 2016). Bad flow also can create boredom and frustration. For activities that can lead to low risk awareness and

to risk-taking behaviour might even endanger one's physical integrity. While on positive side, flow state can be positive, meaning producing, satisfying enjoyable experience, meaningful, worthwhile and personal growth promoting (Csikszentmihalyi, 2016).

METHOD

This research adopts the post-positivism approach because the researcher intends to fill the research gap of lack of empirical results in the field of heritage flow experience. A quantitative research paradigm was implemented, based on a survey research using questionnaires. Quantitative research is the systematic scientific investigation of resources and phenomena and their relationship (Zouni & Kouremenos, 2008) where the production of precise and generalizable statistical findings are emphasized. A quantitative research method has been adopted for several reasons. Firstly, there is little quantitative data to date on heritage tourists, especially using flow theory. Early stages of research focused explicitly on the motives of tourists who visit cultural sites only rather than heritage destinations (Nyaupane, White, & Budruk, 2006). Secondly, More and Averill (2003) suggested that researchers borrow theories from other disciplines to examine the specific phenomena of tourism activities. Therefore, this study, based on Csikszentmihalyi (1992) flow concept, is used to investigate the experiences of tourists participating in a heritage tourism activity.

This research focusses on nine main constructs are enjoyment, telepresence, focused attention, time distortion and engagement, education, esthetics, entertainment and escapism that related to flow dimension to measure the tourists' experiences. An additional construct was fitted into this framework as indicators to examine their emotions after their experience, that is satisfaction. Evaluating satisfaction, insofar as the tourist's travelling experience, is a post-consumption process, and is vital to understanding how to get a tourist revisit (Kozak & Baloglu, 2011).

This study is conducted at Greenwich, UK due to its rich heritage and history background. Greenwich has maintained its historical core purpose and could be deemed an integral part of England's maritime heritage. Greenwich welcomes

over 18.5 million tourists per year and is now believed to be London's fastest growing destination (Visit Greenwich, 2015). Visit Greenwich predicts that the destination will see a further 28% growth increase by 2019. One of the main concerns for Greenwich is how to promote the benefits of the site to both a local and international audience as it is believed that the full potential of the designation status has not yet been tapped (Adie & Hall, 2016; Leask, Galloway, & Fyall, 2000).

AMOS version 25 software was used, which enabled the researcher to specify, estimate, assess and present models to show the hypothesised relationships among variables (IBM, 2015). The software lets the researcher build models more accurately than with standard multivariate statistics techniques.

FINDINGS

The questionnaire was completed by 648 adult respondents, of which there were slightly more female respondents (54.8%) than male respondents (45.2%). Most respondents had some form of college or university education (64.3%), with a bachelor's degree being the most frequent educational level (48.1%). The age of the sample varied from each group and the highest number of respondents in the 25-34-year old (45.1%). Also, 43.1% reported to have children under 18 living at home with most of them under 11 years old (22.1%). Of the respondents, 64.6% were living in the United Kingdom. The largest group of respondents were first-time tourists with 51.5%, while those who have visited Greenwich before were returning after 1 to 2 years after their last visit (48%) with a frequency of 2 or 3 times a year visit (35.5%). The findings on first-time and repeat visitors are consistent with the findings of

Lau and McKercher (2004) and Nguyen and Cheung (2014) who found that most first-time visitors were more interested in and visited mostly largely iconic and popular attractions. It is notable that one out of five adults who participated in heritage visited a heritage site at least once a month (Department for Culture Media and Sport, 2014)

The majority of tourists were on days out (39.2%) followed by those on a holiday of 4 nights or more (30.1%) and a weekend or short break which is 3 days or less (16.2%). Greenwich hosts

school trips, especially The Royal Observatory, where free workshops, immersive planetarium shows, and interactive space galleries are offered. Of the respondents, 3.9% were on a school trip. These respondents included a teacher leading a school group and university students.

Heritage tourists are claimed to stay longer and spend more time on holiday than other types of tourists (Kerstetter, Confer, & Graefe, 2001), however the length of stay at a heritage destination is believed to be much shorter than at others, such as beach resorts (Ashworth & Larkham, 2013). These findings validate Kerstetter et al. (2001) and Ashworth and Larkham (2013). Looking at the source of information that the tourists used, it is noted that the preferred channel for obtaining information for their visit was the Internet (83.8%), travel guide or brochures (64.8%), newspapers or magazines (54.9%), past experience (48.5%) and an information centres (25.8%).

Social media, particularly Twitter, played an important role as it provides information on exhibitions and events that are on-going (Euromonitor.International, 2014). Additionally, real-time updates help visitors plan their visit and, at the same time, it allows them to engage themselves before and after the visit. This allows tourist attractions to create a connection between the destination and the tourists. The importance of social media was verified in this study too, supporting Euromonitor International (2014) findings. The sample responded to tweeting about the visit (87%) followed by updating a Facebook status about their visit (45.1%). This certainly shows that social media is another way to move forward and engage with tourists.

Then, it is observed that most of the respondents travelled with their spouse or partner (25.9%), followed by those that travelled with friends (21.8%) and on their own (19.9%). Adie and Hall (2016) noted the majority of visitors in their research travelled in groups comprised of between two to five members.

Table 1 shows a variety of travel motivations were reported. The most frequently cited purpose of the visit for the sample was to visit Greenwich Park (67.9%) followed by a visit to the meridian line (67.7%) and visiting the museum (66.7%).

About 61.3% came to Greenwich as they had an interest in the history of this area and 51.4% were there to learn more about maritime heritage. These findings are consistent with Taking Part 2014/15. Their findings indicated that of adults who had visited a heritage site, 70% had visited a city or town of historic character, 59% has visited a historic building open to the public and 59% had visited historic park or garden. In addition, 48.1% stated that they visited Greenwich to see the location that was featured in a movie/film. Among the big-screen blockbuster movies shot in Greenwich include *Pirates of the Caribbean on Stranger Tides* (2010), *The King's Speech* (2011), *Sherlock Holmes: A Game of Shadows* (2011), *The Iron Lady* (2011), *Skyfall* (2012) and *Les Misérables* (2012), *Dark Knight Rises* (2012), *Thor: The Dark World* (2013), *The Man from U.N.C.L.E.* (2014) and *Muppets: Most Wanted* (2014). The Old Royal Naval College is a unique location for filming that has attracted tourists. Greenwich is a weather-dependent site although it can be visited all-year round. Thus, it is important to develop all-weather facilities in certain areas in order to maintain the constant flow of tourists into Greenwich.

The majority of the respondents (34.6%) indicated that they had quite a lot of knowledge on Greenwich's history and heritage prior to their visit, with a mean of 3.14. The sample also indicated that they had knowledge of Greenwich's history and heritage (44.2%). In order to see whether their interest for visiting a heritage site was related to their occupation, the sample showed that 80.7% who visited did not have a job connected with heritage sector and endorse Nguyen and Cheung (2014)'s findings.

The growing interest for heritage can be seen with the number of respondents having some form of heritage membership. Of the respondents, 48.6% are members with English Heritage, and 32.3% of them have National Trust membership, while 41.8% of the respondents don't have any membership.

Overall, 77.5% said that Greenwich is a good destination to visit for a holiday or leisure break compared to other major destinations. While 19.3% answered that Greenwich is excellent destination and another 19.3% agreed that Greenwich is fair destination to visit.

Table 1: Visit motive of the Sample

Visit Motive (n= 648)	Frequency	Percentage
To visit Greenwich Park	440	67.9%
To visit the Meridian Line	439	67.7%
To visit the museum	432	66.7%
Particular interest in history of this area	397	61.3%
To visit a gallery	336	51.9%
To learn about maritime heritage	333	51.4%
To view the location that was featured in a movie/film of the site	312	48.1%
Particular interest in scenery/landscape	230	35.5%
To escape from daily routine	209	32.3%
Touring around the country	126	19.4%
An activity-based break (i.e. golf, cruise etc.)	126	19.4%
To attend an event (i.e. concert etc.)	84	13.0%
Read an article in newspaper/online/magazine/book	83	12.8%
Staying with family or friends	63	9.7%
To attend a special occasion or celebration	42	6.5%
On Business	2	6.5%
To view the location featured in an advertisement/travel feature on this area	41	6.3%

While, the measurement model was assessed and where the model fit did not meet reasonable values was modified (see Figure 1). Kang, Jeon, Lee, and Lee (2005) state that the analytical results for the measurement model suggest that all indicators were acceptable, and this pattern should exhibit good internal structure fitness. The closeness of fit index ($p = 0.65$) is above the recommended level > 0.50 , which also indicates and provides a

conclusion to support that the model fits well. Overall, the model proposed by this study exhibited a good fit. From this structural model below, three basic fitness indicators were all met, as shown:

- (1) May not have a significant negative value,
- (2) Factor loading may not be below 0.5 or above 0.95, and
- (3) Should reach a level of significance.

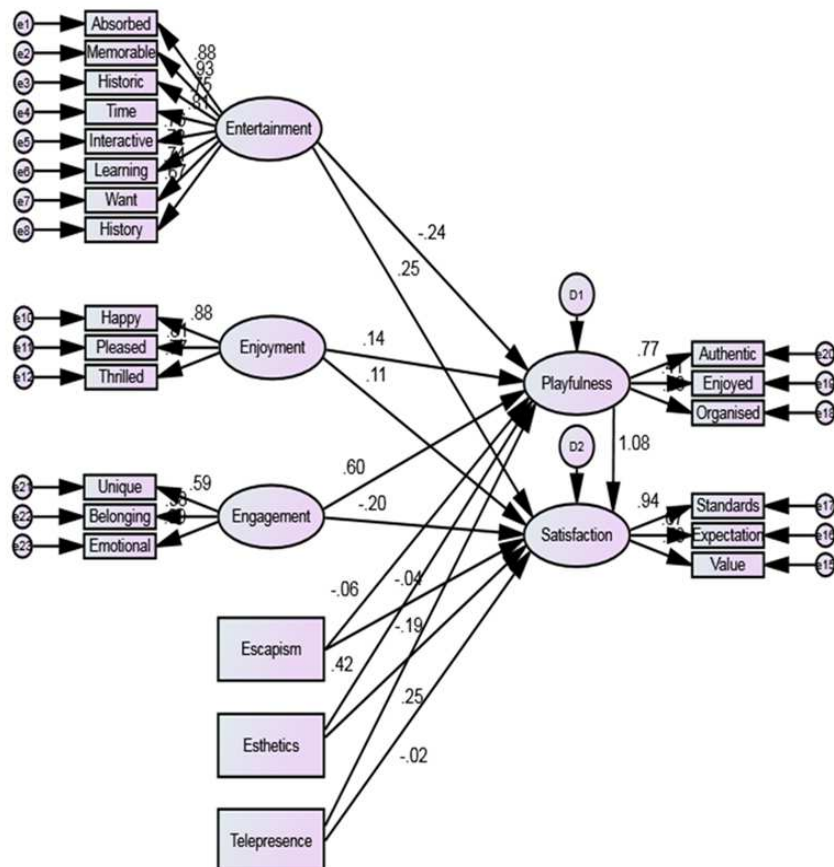


Figure 1. Standardised coefficients for the measurement model

The results demonstrated that a higher level of enjoyment, engagement, telepresence, and esthetics lead to a higher level of playfulness. In the state playfulness, it is acknowledged that tourists clearly experienced flow experience (Csikszentmihalyi 1992). As the results also demonstrated that a higher level of enjoyment and entertainment lead to a higher level of satisfaction. It is observed that the enjoyment dimension is the most important element as when visitors enjoyed their visit, they experienced flow which lead to satisfaction. Though, tourists also achieve flow experience when they able to interact, engage and indulged with the destination.

Interestingly also, when tourists were entertained, they did not experience flow experience, however, the feeling of being entertained did lead to satisfaction. Escapism did not generate any playfulness or satisfaction, a finding consistent with Oh et al. (2007) who concluded that escapism was not statistically a contributor to their respondents' satisfaction.

As a conclusion, enjoyment is an important factor in all flow experiences. This was consistent to the findings of Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and Hoffman and Novak (1996) where they confirmed that flow is an intrinsically enjoyable experience. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) also points out that flow happens when there is no ingredient of anxiety, boredom or worry. Flow was experienced in stages during their visit in Greenwich. The respondents experienced flow when engaged and immersed, for example when they are visiting the galleries and museums in Greenwich especially in the National Maritime Museum, Old Royal Naval College, Cutty Sark and Royal Observatory. This finding reflects the finding by Wright et al. (2007). While, Chen et al. (1999) revealed that 39.8% of their respondents had experienced flow at least once while engaging their activity. As known, National Maritime Museum is the world's largest and most-visited museum of seafaring (Visit Greenwich 2015), therefore the museum itself is able to create flow experience for the tourists by allowing them to immerse into the museum's 2.5 million items collection on maritime history. The museum too aims to illustrate for their tourists the importance of the sea, ships, time and the stars, and their relationship with people.

Overall, the findings show that when tourists

are able to enjoy, engaged and being indulged and entertained in the heritage environment, they experience flow with passive participation and low performance. This shows how vital heritage planners, marketers and destination promoters are as they need to be able to create activities to immerse the tourists.

CONCLUSION

Tourist experience is where creating a powerful mental and emotional image of the destination for the tourist is important (Prat & Aspiunza, 2012). The act of tourism itself offers multifaceted experiences, memories and emotions related to the destination, and it is arguable that tourists seek these engaging experiences at destinations. This makes it vital for a destination to understand their tourists and to initiate to position their products and services as "experiences" (Nguyen and Cheung 2014).

As a tourist, experiencing flow state leads to extremely positive experiences. Flow is generally reported when a person is immersed in an activity, in this case, visiting a heritage destination. Flow experiences also may be felt by ordinary people under rather common circumstances. It is not so much triggered by the activity itself but the ecstatic feeling that is experienced while conducting an activity (Maslow, 1964).

Recent research suggests that the enjoyment dimension is the most important element as when visitors enjoyed their visit, they experienced flow which lead to satisfaction. Though, tourists also achieve flow experience when they able to interact, engage and indulged with the destination. This was consistent to the findings of Csikszentmihalyi (1990) and Hoffman and Novak (1996) where they confirmed that flow is an intrinsically enjoyable experience. Csikszentmihalyi (1990) also points out that flow happens when there is no ingredient of anxiety, boredom or worry.

Applying the flow theory perspective, this study contributes to an understanding of the factors that promote heritage tourist experience. Flow experience plays an important role in tourist experience. This is the first study to implement an SEM model using flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi 1990) to identify the dimensions of heritage tourist experience.

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DESTINATION RESILIENCE MARKETING: TOWARDS A NEW MODEL IN TOURISM CRISIS MARKETING

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, a growing number of tourism destinations have experienced tourism crises, resulting from natural disasters, terror attacks, epidemics, political and economic instability, crime incidents and violent conflicts (Avraham and Ketter, 2017). In an era when the next crisis is always around the corner, a question arises regarding how destinations should pro-act to protect the tourism industry and the destination's image from the devastating effects of tourism crises (Mair et al., 2016). The current study examines the strategies and measures that destinations employ in order to recover from crisis, prepare for future crises and enhance the resilience of their brand.

According to the image repair theory (Benoit, 2015), an image is a critical asset for organizations and destination alike, and the parties affected should invest resources in repairing their image. One common body of knowledge on how to restore an image is the crisis communication theory, providing strategies and guidelines for managing image and communication before, during and following a crisis (Coombs, 2015). While these theories are mainly aimed at individuals and organizations, the multi-step model for altering place image (Avraham and Ketter, 2008) is a recovery-marketing model designed for tourist destinations. The model lists three groups of factors to affect how destinations will react to a crisis -- the characteristics of the crisis, audience and place -- and twenty-four strategies to restore destination image following a crisis. However, as these models focus on preparing for/ recovering from a specific crisis, a more general question rises regarding how to make destinations more crisis resilient? While many studies have examined the issues of tourism crisis recovery and of destination marketing and

branding, this question seems to create a unique meeting point between these two worlds of knowledge that have not been explored before.

METHOD

The current study examines how to enhance the resilience of tourism destinations in regard to tourism crises. Based on the CAP framework -- analysing the characteristics of the Crisis, Audience and Place (Avraham and Ketter, 2017) -- the analysis framework developed for the current study is the ACID framework -- Audience, Crisis, Image and Destination. This framework takes two of the three factors of the CAP framework as they are - audience and crisis, and takes the third factor of 'place' and divide it into two factors - the destination and its image. This, resulting from the immense importance of destination image in crises (Coombs, 2015).

The current research will use the method of case study analysis, focusing on the strategies and measures taken by destinations before, during and following a tourism crisis. The process of case study analysis includes the stages of identifying and pre-analyzing of relevant cases, data collection on each case, in-depth analysis and forming assertions (Creswell and Poth, 2017). The case identification and selection process was done via two online news platforms: BBC news (www.bbc.com) and the global tourism news website eTurbo news (<http://eturbonews.com/>), searching for tourism-related crises. The case selected (1) took place in the years 2008-2018; (2) had an apparent effect on international tourism for the destination; (3) contained information on the steps taken by the destination to repair its image and enhance their brand.

FINDINGS

The current study examined how destinations recover from crisis and enhance their crises resilience, using the perspective of the ACID factors. Starting with the factor of **Destination**, the study's key findings highlight the use of preventive measures by the destination to enhance safety and security (these include France's "Opération Sentinelle" following the 2016 terror attacks; Kenya taking new security measures on the Swahili coast following a series of terror attacks; Mexico stepping up security in response to drug-related violence). Moreover, destinations have the ability to develop new tourism products (Turkey developing Halal tourism; Nigeria to develop 'black heritage' tourism products); and conduct strategic and regulatory work for improving the destination's level of attractiveness (Israel to promote an 'open skies policy' to enhance its tourism competitiveness).

As for **Image**, destinations can strengthen their image with online hashtag campaigns on social networks (#LiveLoveLebanon, #WhyILoveKenya, #MadeInFrance, #WowPhilippines) or work with social media influencers/ micro influencers (Jerusalem hosting TBEX in response to terror attacks). Off the digital world, destinations might host mega events (Russia hosting the 2018 FIFA World Cup; Israel hosting the 2018 Giro d'Italia; Nice promoting several events following the 2016 truck attack) or employ popular culture products (Turkish soap opera "Big House" to strengthen the image of the Turkish Riviera).

With regard to **Crises**, several actions can be taken to handle the situation. In times of crisis, destinations can deliver a 'business as usual' message (London, Paris, Barcelona, Jerusalem); or try to scale down the crisis (post-earthquake Nepal, Egypt following terror attacks in the Sinai Peninsula). In addition, places can send a counter-message in order to battle crisis-related stereotypes ('Call Brussels' campaign to communicate Brussels is safe; #VegasStrong to deliver the message that Las Vegas is bustling with life following the mass shooting in October 2017; #ThisisEgypt campaign to shatter the negative stereotypes

about Egypt).

Lastly, the continuation of inbound tourism is dependent on the characteristics of the **Audience**, and noting how they perceive the crisis. As a result, destinations can try to attract new target markets that are more resilient (Thailand focusing on the Russian market; Lebanon, Turkey and Egypt to focus on the Middle East segment) or to focus on highly-resilient segments (post-earthquake Nepal promotes adventure tourism; Israel's focus on Evangelical pilgrims). Moreover, it is also possible to market for domestic tourism that tends to have a more favorable image of the place (Kenya; Israel following the 2nd Lebanon war).

CONCLUSIONS

The study's findings reveal how destinations that face a crisis are actively working in four dimensions to enhance recovery. In accordance with the ACID framework, destinations are focusing on the optimal audience; bringing the crisis to its end and communicating 'business as usual'; launching online and offline campaigns to enhance the place's image; and taking various measures to enhance the destination's level of attractiveness and preparedness for future crisis. These findings are compatible with the work of other scholars in the field of crisis and image recovery (Avraham and Ketter, 2017; Avraham, 2015; Beniot, 2015; Coombs, 2015, Avraham and Ketter, 2008).

However, the study's findings go above and beyond the multi-step model for altering place image, the theory of image restoration and the theory of crisis communication. The strategies and measures recorded using the ACID framework not only re-build damaged images, but build a stronger image that can better absorb future crises. Hence, in the ACID framework, destinations are proactively seeking to establish bulletproof brands that would have more solid foundations, be less vulnerable to tourism crises and could recover faster following a negative event. These efforts are directly linked to the definition of organizational resilience, as the destination

adjusts itself in the face of challenging conditions in a way that strengthens the current entity, as well as the future one (Vogus and Sutcliffe, 2007). In this manner, enhancing the destination's value proposition, creating a rich and positive image, tackling crises effectively, and attracting diverse audiences -- all these are means to recover from the current crisis, forge the destination's brand and become more resilient for future crisis events.

The change in focus -- from concentrating on preparation/ recovery for the current/ next crisis, to a broad perspective on becoming more crisis resilient and using crises to enhance the brand -- could also lead to a change in the scholarly discourse. While the theories of image restoration and crisis communication both focus on actions related to a specific event, the study's findings point toward a need for a new model on destination resilience marketing. Taking together the crisis recovery literature and the organizational resilience literature, this proposed model argues that destinations should constantly strive to enhance their image, making it more positive, richer and more crisis-resilient. In times of crisis, the destination will act not only to repair the current damage, but also to re-establish its image in a more effective way. This also calls for integration between the day-to-day marketing and branding work of every destination, and the additional functions related to crisis communication planning and to crisis recovery. Hence, the destination marketing organization is constantly engaged in enhancing the image, in managing issues related to the image and in promoting growth and stability for the destination's future. Hopefully, the suggested model of destination resilience marketing will better bridge the gap between theory and practice, and better guide scholars

and practitioners in turning crisis into an opportunity.

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EXTENDED MICE MARKETING TO FACILITATE LEISURE CONSUMPTION

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INTRODUCTION

Today destination marketing organizations (DMOs) including convention bureaus are getting more interested in marketing business tourism (also called MICE – Meetings, Incentive tours, Conventions, and Exhibitions) and leisure tourism concurrently. The goals of the MICE marketing are to stage better experiences for visitors and also facilitate more leisure-related consumption at a destination after meetings and/or business events. Statistics show that one fourth of MICE visitors' spending is related to leisure activities (e.g., tours, performing arts, and sport events (Expedia, 2018). Thus, understanding where and when business tourists spend beyond business events and how the spending contributes to local businesses and communities is becoming one of the important agendas in MICE marketing today.

Therefore, some researchers and professionals have created value chains to better serve this market segmentation (DEVCO & UNWTO, 2013; Poon, 1993; Song, Liu, & Chen, 2013; Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006). Most of them have been primarily interested in suppliers' activities and performances in line with Porter's (1985) value chain model, which describes how the value-creating activities are connected to one another (Porter, 1985). However, the ideas of value chains in previous studies are most likely geared to the development of a theoretical frameworks from the supply perspective rather than to provide empirical evidence to support their idea.

This study is to fill this gap in the literature by empirically examining emerging practices of MICE marketing in Korea, China, and Japan (arguably the major MICE destinations in Asia) to facilitate MICE visitors' leisure consumption. This call would be justifiable because the literature regarding the emerging MICE marketing is still lacking (Davidson, 2003; Lichy & McLeay, 2018; Yilmaz & Bititci, 2006).

METHOD AND FINDINGS

The present study used a qualitative research method. Marketing materials analysis (e.g., brochures, flyers, and websites) and a series of fieldwork in each destination of Korea (Incheon), China (Hong Kong, Macau), Japan (Yokohama, Chiba) were conducted in early 2019. Data showed that convention and exhibition venues and local convention bureaus in those three destinations currently manage a variety of marketing programs, which directly and indirectly leads extra spending of MICE visitors. By comparing and contrasting practices across the destinations, four different approaches of the extended MICE marketing were identified in this study; 1) giving information and price promotion, 2) offering themed tours and supplementary events, 3) utilizing unique venues, and 4) making partnership.

First, information and price promotion include marketing and advertising for local businesses (e.g., restaurants, cafes, and cultural events). Maps with discount coupons and promotion flyers are provided to event delegates as part of conference kit for price advantages. It is expected that the information encourages attendees to visit local restaurants, cafes, and retail shops (e.g., AEON special gift voucher in Chiba, Japan). Second, offering tours and events indicate factory tours, team-building activities, guided tours, and night life events. This approach is particularly effective to specific theme-based conferences and professional industry exhibitions. For example, an international education convention can consider technical visits to local educational institutes or schools (e.g., 2015 World Education Forum in Incheon, Korea) and an exhibition of beauty industry would provide cosmetic factory tours (e.g., K-Beauty & Cosmetic Show in Incheon, Korea). This type of marketing program can help participants to gain educational experiences and accordingly to absorb the information about the industry. Team-building activities are also getting popular to increase event delegates' unique

experiences and are expected to contribute to the distribution of tourism income even to less popular tourism areas at a destination. Meetings and Exhibitions Hong Kong (MEHK)'s brand-new marketing, "Challenge Central!", is one of the best practices in Asia. The MEHK promotes old town in Hong Kong as playground for team-building activities and venue for unique events.

Third, unique venues could be considered by event organizers and DMOs (e.g., traditional Japanese gardens and 19th century Red Brick Warehouse in Yokohama, Japan). Unique venues not only create unique experience for delegates but also help increase additional revenues because the facilities typically have their own business models besides MICE. For examples, the Yokohama Red Brick Warehouse includes retail shops, restaurants, cafes, local travel agencies, and event halls, so event attendees are most likely to spend money within the complex. Lastly, several partnerships between venues and local retail shops were found in some destinations (e.g., shuttle bus to local shopping center or downtowns in Macau, China, local coupons/promotion cards in Incheon, Korea).

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

MICE marketing materials analysis and fieldwork at each destination demonstrated that there is need to systematize the efforts made by DMOs and convention centers to implement cost-effective marketing and improve the quality of visitor experiences. Four different approaches were suggested in this study: marketing information and promotion, themed tours and events, unique venues, and partnership. Although some destinations have already applied some of the tactics, it would be more systematic and exhaustive marketing if DMOs integrate all the four approaches. From that point of view, systematizing the existing cases and identifying the fundamental approaches of extended MICE marketing in this study would provide the significant theoretical and practical implications.

The value-chain based MICE marketing could contribute to not only economic prosperity to a destination but also unique experiences of visitors. That is, business tourism income could be more fairly distributed across destination, which may have local SMEs (Small and Medium-sized Enterprises) more engaged in tourism and MICE industries.

From the visitor experience perspective, event organizers can also improve the perceived service quality of the event by providing delegates with multi-faceted destination experiences (educational, aesthetic, escapist, and entertainment) besides the business event experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

There are some limitations in this study. Due to the nature of qualitative research method, it was challenging to ensure validity and reliability of the findings as did quantitative research. Rather than statistically testing hypotheses, the present study conducted a series of fieldwork to collect real-life examples at destinations and tried to derive significant findings from the observations (inductive reasoning). Although there were consistencies in practices at different destinations, some differences still existed. To make the argument strong, more examples and data in diverse contexts should be therefore collected and supported. Empirical data (e.g., income and expenses for each marketing program) would be also helpful to understand the effectiveness of the extended MICE marketing. In addition, further study from the demand perspective is necessary to understand how visitors actually perceive the marketing programs, which in turn affect their behavior.

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THE IMPACT OF SOCIAL MEDIA INTERACTION ON THE TOURIST EXPERIENCE

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INTRODUCTION

In tourism, the importance of social media has been acknowledged by many studies in the past several years (Fotis, Buhalis, & Rossides, 2012; Lee & Gretzel, 2014; Munar & Jacobsen, 2013). The majority of studies have directed attention to two broad areas: first, the motivation and determinants of tourists' engagement in social media (e.g., Kang & Schuett, 2013; Yoo & Gretzel, 2008); second, the use and implication of social media as an alternative tourism information sources (e.g., Ye, Zhang, & Law, 2009; Yoo, Lee, Gretzel, & Fesenmaier, 2009). These studies greatly expand our understanding about social media phenomena. However, there remain concerns that the dynamic nature of social media has been overlooked (Pan, Xiang, Law, & Fesenmaier, 2011; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010).

One of the key issues in tourism social media studies is embedded at the interactions between tourists and their acquaintances on social media. A few studies have attempted to explore the impacts of social media interaction on tourist's emotion and behavior (e.g., Kim & Fesenmaier, 2017; Bosangit, Hibbert, & McCabe, 2015; Yu *et al.*, 2018). These studies postulate that social media interaction has great potential to influence the construction of tourist experience. However, the impact of social media interaction on tourist experience is still a relative new area of research, and very few attentions has been given to the intertwining between the modern technology induced social media interaction and the traditional theories of tourist experience. Therefore, it is meaningful to explore the role of social media interaction in the process of forming tourist experience. As such, the research has two specific objectives:

1. to investigate how social media interaction impact the construction of tourist experience from a cognitive perspective.

2. to investigate how social media interaction impact the construction of tourist experience from an affective perspective.

METHOD

The study utilized in-depth, semi-structured interviews to investigate how individual tourists interpret the influences of social media interaction during their travel. In-depth interview enables an exploration of the underlying mechanisms that shape the adoption, use and impact of social media within travel (Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier 2014). It is also an effective method to minimize the influence of pre-judgments and pre-suppositions, and thus to reflect on the fundamental nature and characteristics of researched phenomenon (Filieri, 2016).

Four screening criteria were used in selecting the interview participants, including: 1) they must be Chinese; 2) they must have travel experience within the past year; 3) they must have shared their travel experiences on at least one social media platform; 4) they are aged 18 years or over. There are several reasons for the focus on Chinese tourists. Firstly, participants were recruited through the author's personal network. The author had connections mostly based in China. Recruiting sufficient Chinese participants was more practical than recruiting participants from other countries. Secondly, as suggested by Lee and Gretzel (2014), cultural differences can affect the use and impact of social media. This study attempted to concentrate on the characteristics and impacts of tourist's social media interaction. Interviewing people from more

than one different cultural backgrounds may have produced cultural bias in the review results, blurring the boundary of social media interaction. The requirement of having travel experience within a one-year time frame was chosen to ensure that participants had fresh memories and were able to recall details about the trip and their interaction on social media, as well as enabling a wide enough time interval to secure a potentially large sample pool.

A total of 23 face-to-face interviews were conducted. Each interview lasted from 30 minutes to 1 hour in duration. All interviews were transcribed into written text for further analysis. Since interviews were conducted in Chinese, the author also interpreted the transcripts from Chinese to English. To ensure the accuracy of translation, two Chinese PhD students helped review the translated transcripts. Their comments and suggestions were adopted and updated in the final version of the transcripts. The software NVivo 11 was used to analyse the transcripts. The labelling, linking, searching and modelling tools in NVivo 11 have been widely applied in qualitative tourism studies to help classify, organize and arrange information.

Thematic analysis was employed as the data analysis method. The procedure of thematic analysis was guided by the framework proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006). The transcripts were read by the author multiple times before being imported into NVivo 11. Preliminary coding was conducted alongside data entry. Meaningful segments were identified and marked throughout the process. Initially the author attempted to identify as many relevant codes as possible in order to prevent missing important information in the coding process. A second round of coding was conducted by the author after one week to ensure coding consistency throughout the transcripts. The final themes in this study were carefully examined to ensure coherence and exclusiveness with regard to the entire data set. As applied in most qualitative studies, only vivid, compelling extracts were selected as evidence in the report of research findings.

FINDINGS

From the cognitive perspective, participants

reported that social media interaction expanded their knowledge about the destination, triggered travel activities beyond original plans, avoided potential travel risks, and helped to recollect travel experience.

Social media interaction expanded knowledge about the destination. Participants claimed acquaintances, especially those who had visited the destination before, would share their knowledge about the destination through the social media interaction. Restaurants and tourist attractions in the destination were the two areas that acquaintances were most likely to discuss on social media. Participants considered that knowledge shared by acquaintances through social media interaction are very useful. They tended to enter into further conversation to elicit more detail from acquaintances about the destination.

Social media interaction triggered travel activities beyond the original plans. Participants reported that they changed their original itineraries and carried out extra travel activities, as a result of information retrieved from social media. The changes to itineraries that were most likely were visits to local restaurants and other local attractions since these were most flexible.

Social media interaction enabled avoidance of potential travel risks. Travel risks was a common topic emerging within social media interaction. Participants reported that acquaintances who had visited the destination shared their experiences, especially the troubles and difficulties they confronted at the destination, to help participants avoid certain travel risks. Sometimes participants relied on social media interaction to understand the potential risks associated with their travel. They would raise an inquiry about the travel risk on social media and ask acquaintances for relevant information.

Social media interaction facilitated the recollection of travel experiences. All the participants confirmed they would review their interactions on social media from time to time after the trip. Participants also specified that they were not just reviewing their own postings, but also rereading the postings of acquaintances within the conversation. Participants described social media interaction as stimulating memories about the trip. The dialogues recorded on social media helped participants to recall details of their travel

experience.

Affect is another important aspect of social media interaction. Three attributions of affect emerged in the interviews, including: affect attributed to support gained from social media, affect attributed to the altruistic behavior of participants, and affect attributed to the process of social media interaction.

Affect is attributed to support from social media interaction. Participants expressed that their affective state could be influenced by the number of endorsements and comments they collected from social media encounters. Participants considered the endorsements and comments they received within social media interactions to be affirmations of their travel experience. The endorsements and comments acted as positive affirmations of the experiences shared on social media, and as indicators of positive attention from their social circles. The more endorsements and comments participants received, the better they felt about their travel experience.

Affect is attributed to altruistic behaviour of participants. Participants reported that they enjoyed answering acquaintances' inquiries about the destination within social media interaction. Participants believed the information they provided helped acquaintances solve the practical issues associated with travelling to the destinations. The feeling of helping people would also lead to strengthened sense of pleasure among participants.

Affect is attributed to the process of social media interaction. Participants' affective state can also be developed as a direct result of engaging in the process of social media interaction itself. That is, participants' affective state could be impacted upon by individual interactions on social media which created meanings for their travel experience. Social media interaction plays an important role in reinforcing or arousing participants' positive affect.

CONCLUSION

This study reveals the mediation role of social media interaction in the formation of tourist experience, which can be considered as an extension of research on how the use of smart phones changes the tourist experience (Wang, Park, & Fesenmaier 2012; Wang, Xiang, & Fesenmaier 2014; Yu *et al.*, 2017). That is, social media interaction alters both the physical and emotional engagement with the

destination, leading to several changes in the tourist experience. Regarding physical engagement, the information retrieved from social media interaction may trigger unplanned trips and activities, which increase tourists' level of engagement with the destination. On the other hand, tourists acquire information for lesser-known areas of a destination through social media interaction allowing them to avoid potential risks, which decreases the sense of adventure associated with a destination.

Regarding emotional engagement, the findings of this study suggest that the endorsements and comments tourists receive through social media interaction act as rewards, and enhance their own positive affirmation of the travel experience. In addition, tourists' positive emotional engagement with the destination can be further enhanced by altruistic feelings emerging as a result of social media interaction. Tourists consider social media interaction to be a way of helping others know about the destination. The information revealed through interaction offers useful guidance for others to travel to the destination in the future. Third, there is a tendency for the process of social media interaction to become part of the travel experience. Therefore, the valence of social media interaction may influence tourists' affective state regarding the overall travel experience.

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SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN CONSTRAINTS AND CONSTRAINT NEGOTIATION AMONG JAPANESE SPORT TOURISTS: THE CASE OF MASTERS GAMES PARTICIPANTS

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INTRODUCTION

Japan will host three major international sporting events: the Rugby World Cup Japan 2019, the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the World Masters Games (WMG) 2021 Kansai. The WMG is one of the largest international, competitive sport events for adults (Young, Bebbett, & Seguin, 2017). Thus, we can differentiate the first two events as spectator-based sport events from the WMG 2021 as a participant-based sport event. It is estimated that a total of 30,000 Japanese and 20,000 international masters athletes will participate in the WMG 2021 (The Organizing Committee of the Kansai World Masters Games 2021, n.d.). This participant-based mega sport event can be considered an important step toward the development of a physically active society in Japan. In particular, since 2004 the Japanese population has begun to decline (about 127 million), and the estimated population in 2050 will be about 95 million, with a large amount of elders (about 37 million) (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, n.d.). The healthcare expenditures of the 2016 fiscal year were about 42 trillion yen and 59.7% of the expenditures (about 25 trillion yen) were for patients 65 or older (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, 2018). Participating in sports is expected to enhance physical and psychological health, which consequently extends healthy life expectancy and reduces healthcare cost (Japan Sports Agency, 2017).

In this context, masters sports have become popular in Japan and Japanese people travel to participate in masters games (MG) domestically and internationally (Hikoji, 2018). For example, the number of participants in the Sports Masters Japan increased from 5,354 in 2001 to 8,957 in 2017

(Japan Sport Association, n.d.). Similarly, the number of Japanese participants in the WMG increased from 199 in 2002, Melbourne, to 792 in 2017, Auckland (International Masters Games Association, n.d.). However, it is important to note that domestic and international Japanese sport tourists appear to have different MG experiences; for example, the social aspect of involvement with MG participation positively related to happiness for Japanese MG athletes who participated in domestic, not international, MG (Ito & Hikoji, in press). Moreover, domestic tourists can be further divided into sport tourists who stay at least 24 hours at a destination and sport excursionists who do not stay overnight at a destination (Nogawa, Yamaguchi, & Hagi, 1996). This distinction seems particularly important when examining constraints and constraint negotiation among Japanese MG tourists given that travel constraints are more resource intensive (e.g., cost, time; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2008). Constraints refer to “factors that are assumed by researchers and/or perceived or experienced by individuals to limit the formation of leisure preferences and/or to inhibit or prohibit participation and enjoyment in leisure” (Jackson, 2000, p. 62). The strategies employed to overcome constraints are called constraint negotiation, which refers to “the effort of individuals to use behavioral or cognitive strategies to facilitate leisure participation despite constraints” (Schneider & Wilhelm Stanis, 2007, p. 392). Although these two themes are well researched in leisure studies, little research on them has been conducted in the context of sport tourism, especially MG (Ito & Hikoji, 2018). Additionally, investigating how these two concepts relate to the intention to participate in the WMG 2021 seems relevant in terms of theoretical and practical implications. Thus, the purposes of this study are

to examine: (a) similarities and differences in constraints to and constraint negotiation for MG participation on a regular basis, and (b) relationships among constraints, constraint negotiation, and intention to participate in the WMG 2021, across international sport tourists (ISTs), domestic sport tourists (DSTs), and sport excursionists (SEs).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sport tourism in Japan.

Sport tourism refers to “sport-based travel away from the home environment for a limited time where sport is characterized by unique rule sets, competition related to physical prowess, and a playful nature” (Hinch & Higham, 2001, p. 49). As mentioned above, Nogawa et al. (1996) highlighted the distinction between sport tourists who stay at least 24 hours at a destination and SEs who do not stay overnight at a destination. Based on Nogawa et al.’s distinction, Gibson, Willming, and Holdnak (2003) classified fans of the University of Florida football team into sport tourists and SEs and identified that the former spent more money on tourism-related behaviors (e.g., meals, retail shopping) than the latter while attending games. Sato, Harada, and Ohnishi (2009) also found that the relationship between perceived value and monetary price was stronger for Japanese ski excursionists than Japanese ski tourists. Furthermore, Nogawa (1992) found that over half of the Japanese participants in the Honolulu marathon experienced their first full marathon there, which indicates that Japanese ISTs might be less competition-oriented than their domestic counterparts. This international-domestic distinction is particularly important for Japan, given that Japan is an island country, so that Japanese international tourists have to travel by airplane (or vessel). In fact, Ito and Hikoji (in press) identified differences in the relationships of MG involvement and happiness between Japanese sport tourists who have competed in international MG events and those who have not. More specifically, the social bonding dimension of involvement positively associated with happiness only for the domestic group. Therefore, when examining constraints and constraint negotiation among Japanese MG athletes, the distinction of the three categories (i.e., ISTs, DSTs, SEs) seems relevant as well.

According to Higham and Hinch (2018), there are four major types of sport tourism: active (tourists who engage directly in sport activities at a destination), spectator events (tourists who watch high performance sport events at a destination), participant events (tourists/recreational athletes who participate in a sport event at a destination), and heritage (tourists who visit a sport heritage site at a destination). Travel for participation in MG fits the participant events category. Hinch, Higham, and Sant (2014) reviewed the sport tourism literature in the West and identified that this type of sport tourism (12%) has been understudied compared to spectator events (55%) and active (20%) sport tourism. Conversely, Ito and Hinch (2017) conducted a systematic review on the sport tourism literature in Japan and revealed that the majority of articles focused on active (32.7%) and participant events (30.8%) sport tourism. Rephrased, sport tourism research in Japan has focused on physically active sport travel experiences (e.g., Nogawa, 1992) more than its Western counterpart. Having said this, however, research in the MG contexts is largely limited in the Japanese sport tourism literature (Ito & Hinch, 2017), although masters sports have received academic and public attention in Japan because of the WMG 2021. Additionally, Ito and Hinch also called for more theory-driven research on sport tourism in Japan; therefore, the use of leisure constraints theory will fill this critical gap.

Constraints, negotiation, and sport tourism.

According to a conventional Western typology that Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey (1991) proposed, there are three types of constraints: (a) intrapersonal constraints are individual psychological qualities (e.g., personality traits) that affect the formation of leisure preferences; (b) interpersonal constraints involve the lack of a companion and social interactions with friends, family, and others, that intervene between leisure preferences and participation; and (c) structural constraints are external conditions in the environment (e.g., lack of time, money, and facilities) that prevent formed leisure preferences from manifesting into actual leisure participation. Similarly, Jackson, Crawford, and Godbey (1993) proposed two major constraint negotiation strategies: behavioral/action (i.e., an observable change in behavior) and cognitive/inaction (i.e.,

devaluing unselected or constrained activities). These typologies have been used to examine constraints and constraint negotiation in various leisure contexts. However, there have been ongoing debates about whether constraints and constraint negotiation can really be categorized into these three and two distinct types, respectively, and whether these Western typologies can be relevant in other cultures (Ito, Kono, & Walker, in press). To address these issues, Ito et al. (in press) conducted cross-cultural research between Canada and Japan to develop new typologies of constraints and constraint negotiation in the context of leisure-time physical activity (LTPA). Ito et al. conducted a free-listing survey in which participants provided a maximum of five free descriptions about each of the constraints and constraint negotiation. Their thematic analyses identified nine constraint categories (psychological, physiological and physical fitness, lifestyle, interpersonal, financial, time, commitment, environmental, and LTPA-specific) and nine constraint negotiation strategies (psychological, physiological and physical fitness, lifestyle, interpersonal, financial, time, and three LTPA-specific: modification, management, and self-adaptation). One of their unique contributions is the recognition of activity-specific constraints and constraint negotiation, which would better capture the great variability in constraints and constraint negotiation across various leisure activities (Godbey, Crawford, & Shen, 2010). Ito et al. further stated that “the heterogeneity issues in other constraint categories are diminished by adopting such activity-specific categories. More importantly, although our category is labelled as being LTPA-specific, researchers could tailor it to the specific types of leisure activities they are studying” (p. 14). Similarly, Filo, Fechner, and Inoue (in press), who examined constraints experienced by charity sport event participants, reported the existence of event-specific constraints (e.g., discomfort in asking for financial donations). Therefore, the use of Ito et al.’s typology of constraints and constraint negotiation seems reasonable in this study, because (a) it was developed partly based on Japanese data, (b) sport tourism aspects can be added by modifying the activity-specific categories, and (c) its LTPA focus seems relevant to similarly physically active MG experiences.

The concepts of leisure constraints and constraint negotiation have been examined in tourism contexts. For example, Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter (2002) confirmed Crawford et al.’s (1993) three types of constraints in the context of nature-based tourism. Fleischer and Pizam (2002), who examined tourism constraints among Israeli seniors, identified income and health levels as constraining factors for their vacation behavior. They also found that the former expanded until the age of 65, but the latter became more effective after that age. As with Ito et al. (in press), Hung and Petrick (2010) acknowledged the importance of activity-specific constraints when developing a measurement scale for constraints to cruising, by stating that “to understand travel constraints associated with a specific population or activity, the study should be situated in the specific context rather than directed at the general public or general travel context” (p. 212). Daniels, Rodgers, and Wiggins (2005) investigated constraints and negotiation strategies among travelers with physical disabilities. Their narrative analysis based on the three types of constraints indicated that 26.38%, 24.79%, and 48.83% of statements were concerned with intrapersonal (e.g., discomfort feelings), interpersonal (e.g., issues with traveling partners), and structural constraints (e.g., transportation), respectively. Daniels et al. (2005) also identified the following four negotiation strategies: traveler vulnerability and isolation, travel accessibility, innovative travel problem solving, and creation of personal meaning through travel. As with Hung and Petrick’s proposition in terms of constraints, these results also suggest that travel constraint negotiation should be understood by associating with a specific population and activity.

Recently, Japanese researchers have also applied the concepts of constraints and constraint negotiation to study participant events sport tourism. Nishio, Okamoto, and Ishimori (2013) examined constraints experienced by Japanese international sport tourists who participated in the Honolulu Marathon in 2010 and 2011. They identified five constraints (marathon event information issues, tourist information issues, companionship issues, safety and culture differences, and financial issues), and found that marathon event and tourist information issues negatively influenced revisit intention and satisfaction, respectively. Therefore,

constraints are expected to have a negative impact on the intention to participate in MG events. In MG contexts, Ito and Hikoji (2018) investigated constraints and constraint negotiation among Japanese MG athletes who traveled domestically and internationally. They discovered that: (a) both domestic and international tourists perceived time, physiological, and MG-specific constraints, while financial and travel constraints only applied to international tourists; and (b) both domestic and international tourists employed family, time, financial, and psychological negotiation. These researchers also emphasized that physiological constraints, play unique roles in the physically demanding MG experiences. Based on Ito et al.'s (in press) propositions, Ito and Hikoji also reported MG-specific constraints including equipment issues and lack of event information. Understanding this type of constraints seems practically important for promotion activities and event management of the WMG 2021. Additionally, as Ito and Hikoji identified, travel constraints (transportation, language) are also unique to sport tourism contexts, and this type of constraints was evident only in international contexts. Hikoji and Ito (2018) similarly explored constraints and constraint negotiation among Japanese MG participants in the WMG 2017 Auckland. The results of their semi-structured interviews indicated that the Japanese participants: (a) experienced time constraints related to work and family responsibilities, and (b) used time negotiation (e.g., managing work schedules) and interpersonal negotiation (e.g., gaining both understanding and support from colleagues and families). Their results indicated the importance of using the type of negotiation that matches a particular constraint one faces (e.g., time negotiation for time constraints). This relates to another unique contribution of Ito et al.'s typologies of constraints and constraint negotiation: most of the constraints and constraint negotiation categories are paralleled with one another. Therefore, as Hikoji and Ito reported, their parallel typologies allow for examining whether the congruence between constraints and negotiation strategies promotes sport tourism.

Summary and research questions. In summary, the Western and Japanese sport tourism literature lacks research on participant events and theory-driven research, respectively. Therefore,

investigating Japanese MG sport tourism behavior and experience based on the leisure constraints theory would further the sport tourism literature. Ito and Hikoji's (2018) and Hikoji and Ito's (2018) works offered important insights into constraints and constraint negotiation among Japanese MG participants; nonetheless, neither study took into account the three types of sport tourists (i.e., ISTs, DSTs, SEs) and their qualitative studies had small sample sizes ($n = 5$ and 8 , respectively). Moreover, although both studies acknowledged that Japanese participation is key to the success of the WMG 2021, unlike Nishio et al. (2013), neither examined relationships between constraints/negotiation and intention to participate in the WMG 2021. Therefore, this study examines similarities and differences in constraints and constraint negotiation as well as the relationships among constraints, constraint negotiation, and intention to participate in the WMG 2021, across ISTs, DSTs, and SEs within the Japanese MG context. The following two research questions guide this study:

(a) How do constraints to and constraint negotiation for MG participation differ across the three types of sport tourists?

(b) How do the relationships among constraints, constraint negotiation, and intention to participate in the WMG 2021 differ across the three types of sport tourists?

METHOD

We conducted an online survey with Japanese people who (a) were over 30 years old (the WMG's age qualification), (b) were born and raised in Japan, and (c) participated in MG within the last three years. We set this relatively longer time period (i.e., three years) to obtain enough of a sample size for the three groups (i.e., ISTs, DSTs, SEs). We worked with a major online survey company in Japan and our sample was drawn from its online survey panelists. A total of 627 panelists passed the screening to meet the above criteria, and 449 completed the survey (i.e., a response rate of 71.6%).

Our study instruments included measures of constraints, constraint negotiation, intention to participate in the WMG 2021, and demographic information (e.g., age, sex). Our measures of constraints and constraint negotiation were

developed based on Ito et al.'s (in press) new typologies of LTPA constraints and constraint negotiation (Kono, Ito, & Loucks-Atkinson, in press; Kono, Ito, Walker, & Gui, 2019). By taking into account Ito and Hikoji's (2018) findings, the measures were modified into the sport tourism and MG contexts. Specifically, eight types of constraints were measured: psychological (e.g., lack of motivation), physiological (e.g., pain), interpersonal (e.g., lack of family's understanding), financial (e.g., expensive registration fee), time (e.g., unstable schedule), travel (e.g., remote destination), commitment (e.g., family responsibility), and MG-specific (e.g., little event information). Similarly, the constraint negotiation measure was concerned with eight types: psychological (e.g., prioritizing MG participation), physiological (e.g., seeing a doctor), interpersonal (e.g., asking friends for MG participation), financial (e.g., seeking cheaper transportation), time (e.g., managing work schedules), travel (e.g., integrating a vacation into MG participation), MG-modification (e.g., choosing an appropriate level of competition), and MG-self-adaptation (e.g., collecting various MG information). MG-modification negotiation refers to strategies that alter aspects of MG participation, while MG-self-adaptation negotiation refers to strategies that cause a change in an individual's resources. Participants reported the extent to which these constraints and negotiation strategies were relevant to the most recent MG participation experience. We used a single item for each type of constraints and constraint negotiation with a five-point scale. Another single item with a five-point scale was also used to measure intention to participate in the WMG 2021 with a not applicable option (i.e., "I don't know about the WMG 2021").

Our data analysis consisted of three steps. First, based on the experiences of international and domestic MG, the participants were divided into three groups: ISTs who participated in international MG and possibly domestic MG as well, DSTs who participated only in domestic MG and stayed overnight, and SEs who participated only in domestic MG and did not stay overnight. Second, we conducted data cleaning. Responses having the same value for all eight constraint items ($n = 18$) and/or constraint negotiation items ($n = 22$) were replaced with missing values. By following Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) procedure, we

identified univariate and multivariate outliers in each group and replaced them with missing values. A pairwise deletion of missing values was employed for constraints and constraint negotiation. Third, by using the three groups of sport tourists as an independent variable, we conducted MANOVA separately for constraints and constraint negotiation. Follow-up ANOVAs were performed when MANOVA results were significant. Lastly, we conducted multiple regression analyses for each group by using constraints and constraint negotiation as independent variables and intention to participate in the WMG 2021 as a dependent variable.

RESULTS

We classified 196 participants as ISTs (196 males; mean age = 37.9 years), 141 participants as DSTs (134 males; mean age = 40.8 years), and 112 participants as SEs (104 males; mean age = 41.6 years). Their annual household income levels were similar across the groups, with the largest group earning 4,000,000 to 5,999,999 yen (30.8% of ISTs, 28.8% of DSTs, and 22.9% of SEs), followed by those who earned 6,000,000 to 7,999,999 yen (30.8% of ISTs, 22.4% of DSTs, and 21.7% of SEs).

MANOVA results were significant for constraints, Wilk's $\Lambda = .90$, $F(16, 838) = 2.99$, $p < .01$, and constraint negotiation, Wilk's $\Lambda = .91$, $F(16, 824) = 2.54$, $p < .01$. Both partial η^2 s were 0.05 indicating medium-size effects (Cohen, 1988). Table 1 reports the follow-up ANOVA and Tukey results. All ANOVAs were significant for constraints and the results of Tukey tests demonstrated that ISTs experienced constraints more than DSTs and SEs except for time constraints. A significant difference of time constraints was identified only between ISTs and DSTs. In terms of negotiation, all ANOVAs were significant except for psychological and physiological negotiation and the Tukey test results indicated that ISTs employed interpersonal, financial, and MG-modification negotiation strategies more than SEs. Additionally, ISTs and DSTs utilized travel and MG-self-adaptation negotiation strategies more than SEs. Lastly, DSTs employed time negotiation strategies more than SEs. All η^2 s ranged from .02 to .08, indicating small- to medium-size effects (Cohen, 1988).

Table 1. Results of ANOVAs and Tukey Tests for Constraints and Constraint Negotiation

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts were significantly different. * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

	<i>International Sport Tourists</i>		<i>Domestic Sport Tourists</i>		<i>Sport Excursionists</i>		<i>F</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>(SD)</i>	
Constraints							
Psychological	3.36 _a	(1.14)	2.75 _b	(1.19)	2.80 _b	(1.15)	13.55**
Physiological	3.50 _a	(1.07)	3.13 _b	(1.18)	2.99 _b	(1.15)	8.04**
Interpersonal	3.55 _a	(1.18)	2.89 _b	(1.22)	2.83 _b	(1.15)	17.77**
Financial	3.61 _a	(1.15)	3.06 _b	(1.18)	3.12 _b	(1.10)	11.53**
Time	3.63 _a	(0.91)	3.34 _b	(1.08)	3.44 _{ab}	(1.09)	3.55*
Travel	3.61 _a	(1.08)	3.20 _b	(1.12)	3.19 _b	(1.15)	7.16**
Commitment	3.36 _a	(1.12)	3.03 _b	(1.19)	2.98 _b	(1.13)	5.12**
MG-Specific	3.55 _a	(1.03)	3.13 _b	(1.08)	3.17 _b	(1.06)	7.64**
Constraint Negotiation							
Psychological	3.32	(1.01)	3.35	(0.86)	3.20	(1.07)	0.74
Physiological	3.24	(1.11)	3.45	(0.98)	3.11	(1.01)	3.01
Interpersonal	3.62 _a	(1.06)	3.48 _{ab}	(1.01)	3.26 _b	(0.98)	4.15*
Financial	3.45 _a	(1.08)	3.40 _{ab}	(1.04)	3.09 _b	(1.03)	4.36*
Time	3.45 _{ab}	(1.02)	3.50 _a	(1.00)	3.18 _b	(0.96)	3.39*
Travel	3.64 _a	(1.00)	3.67 _a	(0.97)	3.04 _b	(1.14)	13.96**
MG-Modification	3.49 _a	(1.04)	3.42 _{ab}	(0.97)	3.12 _b	(0.97)	4.66*
MG-Self-Adaptation	3.59 _a	(0.99)	3.61 _a	(0.99)	3.23 _b	(0.99)	5.45**

The results of multiple regression analyses were not significant for ISTs, $F(16, 149) = 0.88$, $p > .05$, for DSTs, $F(16, 94) = 0.51$, $p > .05$, and for SEs, $F(16, 66) = 0.49$, $p > .05$. These results indicated that constraint and constraint negotiation did not predict intention to participate in the WMG 2021 for each group.

DISCUSSION

The purposes of this study were to examine: (a) similarities and differences in constraints to and constraint negotiation for MG participation on a regular basis, and (b) relationships among constraints, constraint negotiation, and intention to participate in the WMG 2021, across ISTs, DSTs, and SEs. These purposes were translated into the two research questions, each of which is addressed separately in the following sections.

Research question 1.

The first research question stated: “How do constraints to and constraint negotiation for MG

participation differ across the three types of sport tourists?” Our results indicated that ISTs generally experienced higher level of constraints than DSTs and SEs. It is not too surprising to find that ISTs experienced constraints more because international travels require substantial resources(e.g., money) compared to domestic travels in general. These findings align with those of Ito and Hikoji (2018), in which MG athletes reported travel and financial constraints in international contexts in addition to time, physiological, and MG-specific constraints reported in domestic contexts. Ito and Hikoji also reported that although MG-specific constraints were identified in both international and domestic contexts, the sub-theme, personal record (“*I would hesitate to participate [in international MGs] if I didn't have a decent record*”; p. 122), was unique to international contexts. In contrast, there was no difference in time constraints between ISTs and SEs. It seems that SEs might have a lower level of involvement with MG participation than ISTs and DSTs as Ryan and Trauer (2005) called the former as novices/dabblers who are likely at the

commencement of their careers as MG participants. Although day trips required less time than international travels, their low involvement magnified their perception of relatively minor schedule issues. Another interesting finding is that DSTs and SEs did not experience any constraints differently. Rephrased, staying overnight in domestic contexts did not appear to add perceived constraints. This was unexpected because sport tourists generally spend more money and time than SEs (Gibson et al., 2003). One of the possible explanations for this null result is a difference between single-night and multiple-night sport tourists. Nogawa et al. (1996) suggested that single-night and multiple-night sport tourists may differ from one another in time and financial constraints. More specifically, they demonstrated that “time constraints seemed to affect the single-night sport tourists, whereas financial factors appeared to be the major element in preventing the multiple-night sport tourists from engaging in touristic activities” (p. 53). It might be possible that a majority of our DST samples were single-night sport tourists; therefore, they did not experience constraints differently from our SE samples. Future research needs to examine this possibility.

In terms of constraint negotiation, our results indicated that ISTs employed interpersonal, financial, and MG-modification negotiation strategies more than SEs. These strategies appear to allow MG athletes to pursue their international competitive careers. Having said this, our results also suggested that these negotiation strategies were similar between ISTs and DSTs (unlike motivation; Nogawa, 1992) and between DSTs and SEs (unlike expenditure behavior; Gibson et al., 2003). Furthermore, no significant differences in constraint negotiation were identified between ISTs and DSTs. Ito and Hikoji’s (2018) qualitative research also indicated similarities in negotiation strategies between international and domestic contexts. Although these two researchers did not specifically ask about overnight domestic MG experiences, their five interviewees might have recalled more of these events than day trips as the former would be more memorable than the latter. Both ISTs and DSTs employed travel and MG-self-adaptation negotiation more than SEs. Therefore, it is reasonable to state that these two strategies are key to overcome constraints related to overnight stay. In terms of

travel negotiation, Hinch and Higham (2011) acknowledged the effectiveness of travel negotiation strategies by reporting that 22% of the participants in the WMG 2005 Edmonton incorporated a vacation into their travel to Edmonton. Additionally, given that Nishio (2014) identified the lack of tourism site’s attractiveness as one of the constraints among general Japanese tourists, choosing an attractive event destination seems to be a relevant negotiation strategy for MG participation as well. This strategy largely overlaps with pull factors that “attract the tourist to a given resort” (Dann, 1977, p. 186). This interpretation also relates to one of the examples of MG-self-adaptation mentioned in the survey item, collecting various MG information. Thus, finding a MG event at an attractive destination appears to motivate Japanese MG athletes to stay overnight at the destination. ISTs and SEs employed time negotiation in a similar manner. This could be because of the similarity in time constraints between these two groups.

Research question 2.

The second research question stated: “How do the relationships among constraints, constraint negotiation, and intention to participate in the WMG 2021 differ across the three types of sport tourists?” The results of multiple regression analyses demonstrated that constraints and constraint negotiation did not predict the intention for each group. Although they did not align with those of Nishio et al. (2013), our results supported Moghimehfar, Halpenny, and Walker’s (2018) findings. Moghimehfar et al. (2018) attempted to extend the theory of planned behavior by adding the variables from the leisure constraints theory. They examined outdoor campers’ constraints, constraint negotiation, and pro-environment behavioral intention, and their structural equation modeling revealed that neither constraints and constraint negotiation directly impacted on intention. Rather, the influence of constraints and constraint negotiation on intention was fully mediated through attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. Therefore, these three variables and possibly involvement (Ito & Hikoji, in press; Ryan & Trauer, 2005) and motivations (Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Son, Mowen, & Kerstetter, 2008) may play an important role in predicting intention to participate in the WMG 2021

more than constraints and constraint negotiation.

Another possible explanation for our null results is that participants were asked about different MG events for constraints/negotiation and intention. Whereas the constraints and negotiation strategies were about the *past* MG event, the intention was about the *future* MG event. As some researchers (Filo et al., in press; Hung & Petrick, 2010; Ito et al., in press) reported, constraints and negotiation strategies seem to be activity-specific. Our results might highlight that constraints to and constraint negotiation for MG participation are also event-specific. More specifically, given that the WMG 2021 is a domestic MG event for Japanese MG athletes, constraints and negotiation strategies that ISTs reported in this study might have been different from those related to the WMG 2021. Similarly, depending on their locations of residence, some DSTs and SEs will participate in the WMG 2021 with a day trip and with an overnight stay, respectively. Future research should investigate this possibility by comparing the relationships of constraints, constraint negotiation, and intention between two different MG events.

Lastly, we were not able to test the congruence between constraints and negotiation strategies due to the null results. As Hikoji and Ito (2018) reported that Japanese participants in the WMG 2017 Auckland seemed to employ time negotiation to overcome time constraints, future research should examine this possibility by using an advanced statistical technique (e.g., structural equation modeling).

CONCLUSION

Our results indicated that, in general, ISTs differently: (a) experienced constraints from DSTs and SEs, and (b) employed constraint negotiation only from SEs. These results also indicated similarities in constraints between DSTs and SEs and in negotiation strategies between ISTs and DSTs. We also clarified that constraints to and constraint negotiation for the past MG were not related to intention of WMG 2021 participation across the groups. Our study contributes to the sport tourism literature by examining MG athletes' constraints and constraint negotiation across ISTs, DSTs, and SEs. The similarities and differences mentioned above suggest that the distinction of the

three sport tourist groups is important when examining their constraints and constraint negotiation. We suggest that this typology be used to study other behaviors and experiences of Japanese sport tourists (e.g., involvement, happiness, motivation, supplemental touristic activities; Ito & Hikoji, in press; Nogawa, 1992; Nogawa et al., 1996). Additionally, as with other tourism and leisure studies (Filo et al., in press; Hung & Petrick, 2010; Ito et al., in press), our results also indicated meaningful differences in MG-specific constraints and constraint negotiation across the groups. Therefore, research on constraints to and constraint negotiation for sport tourism should be situated in the specific context while taking into account the general public or travel contexts (e.g., visiting friends and relatives, leisure travel). There are also potential practical implications for MG event management. For example, in order to encourage Japanese MG athletes to stay overnight at a destination, it may be effective to provide supplemental touristic activities with them to integrate a vacation into MG participation. Also, ensuring easy access to the information on MG events may facilitate their participation from remote places. This being said, the organizing committee of the WMG 2021 needs to research specific constraints and constraint negotiation for the WMG 2021, rather than relying on the data from past MG events, in order to promote participation of Japanese MG athletes in the event.

As with any research, this study has limitations. First, we used the recollection method in which the study participants recalled their MG experience within the last three years. Therefore, their responses could be biased or incorrect to an extent. Second, our findings were limited in terms of causal inference because of the cross-sectional research design. Third, we studied online survey panelists who may be somewhat different from general MG athletes (e.g. education and income level). Lastly, our data analyses did not take into account types of MG sports. Athletes will compete in 34 different sports in the WMG 2021 (The Organizing Committee of the Kansai World Masters Games 2021, n.d.). They may experience constraints and employ negotiation strategies differently across various sports. Future research should address these limitations, which will contribute to not only sustainable sport tourism development in Japan but

also the global understanding of sport tourism development (Hinch & Ito, 2018).

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THE NEED FOR INCLUSIVE STATISTICS AND REGULATIONS: AESTHETIC/COSMETIC MEDICAL TOURISM IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION

Medical tourism has expanded rapidly because of low cost competitiveness, the technological innovations, recent time saving way, providing unique vacations. This new industry yields profit to medical institutions and proving countries but also raises concerns including problems caused by dishonest providers, that are often heard especially in aesthetic/cosmetic medical tourism field.

According to the Annual Global Survey completed by the International Society of Aesthetic Plastic Surgery (ISAPS), over 20 million cosmetic surgical and nonsurgical procedures were performed worldwide in 2014. The top five countries: USA, Brazil, Japan, South Korea, and Mexico, account for 44.8% of the world's cosmetic procedures. South Korea was also ranked in the top 10 medical tourism destinations around the world by the digital guidebook "Patients Beyond Borders."

According to "The Statistics on International Patients in Korea 2017," Korean hospitals and clinics accepted 48,849 plastic surgery and 43,327 dermatology foreign patients, including 5,947 (plastic surgery) and 9,277 (dermatology) Japanese. It is thought that aesthetic/cosmetic patients account for a large portion of plastic surgery and dermatology. Some clinics in Japan also accepted foreign patients who underwent aesthetic/cosmetic procedures including stem cell therapy, but no nationwide data available.

Aesthetic/cosmetic medicine has raised ethical concerns such as a lack of governmental controls and risk of complications from its birth, regarded as an elective beauty practice. In aesthetic/cosmetic tourism, these problems tend to be more apparent. Patients should be protected physically and legally regardless of whether the treatment is for disease or beauty, at home country

or abroad. Malpractices at unqualified medical institutions without appropriate regulations damage not only a nation's image but also the development of advanced medical technology. This paper examines the current scheme of medical tourism in Japan, focusing on aesthetic/cosmetic medicine, comparing it with that of South Korea where it is included with medical tourism.

METHOD

Publications and discussions relevant to aesthetic/cosmetic medical tourism in Japanese, English and Korean appeared from 2000, were mainly examined.

Main search terms used were, "medical tourism," "plastic surgery," "aesthetic/cosmetic surgery tourism," "health care system," "regenerative medicine," and "medical ethics." Also, we conducted several types of Interviews; face to face, email and telephone. The interviewees were persons involved in medical tourism and aesthetic/cosmetic medicine. The survey participant included the person in charge of the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI), Medical Excellence Japan (MEJ), the Korea Health Industry Development Institute (KHIDI), the Korean International Medical Association (KIMA), the Korea Culture and Tourism Institute (KCTI), the Korea Medical Dispute Mediation and Arbitration Agency (K-Medi), and some medical doctors who perform cosmetic/aesthetic medicine in both Japan and South Korea.

We do not focus on aesthetic /cosmetic medical tourist experiences and behaviors in this presentation. The literature reviews and interviews clarified the overview of medical tourism policy regarding aesthetic/cosmetic medicine in Japan and South Korea.

FINDINGS

Medical tourism in Japan. Under the universal health insurance coverage installed in 1961, aesthetic/cosmetic procedures have been differentiated from treatments for diseases, often seen as problematic.

Medical tourism was included into the New Growth Strategy in 2009, but there were objections and critics, including from the Japan Medical Association (JMA), to the industrialization of medical practices. “Medical tourism,” *iryō kanko*, was paraphrased by other terms among administrations such as *iryō toko* since *kanko* sounded too business oriented.

The Tourism Consortium that consisted of different ministries and agencies, was formed at the Japan Tourism Agency (JTA). According to the third consortium meeting in 2010, the overall picture of medical tourism and three categories were shown: 1) medical examination tourism such as complete physical checkup, 2) medical treatment tourism (for diseases) especially in advanced medical fields, and 3) beauty and health tourism such as spas, aesthetic treatments and healthy diets. In the above-mentioned scheme, aesthetic/cosmetic medicine does not belong to neither medical treatment or beauty and health tourism. This contrasts with South Korea where networks and regulations have been created for medical tourism including aesthetic/cosmetic medicine.

Each ministry and agency is supposed to work in the close relationship. JTA, under the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (MLIT), is responsible for 1) overseas promotions, 2) building a system for foreign medical tourists, 3) diversifying medical tourism. METI is responsible for 4) training and assuring the quality of agencies that arrange medical tourism, 5) training medical translators and supporting networks between translators and medical institutions. The Ministry of Health Labor and Welfare (MHLW) is responsible for 6) improving the quality of medical institutions, 7) searching medical technology that attracts other countries. Both METI and MHLW are responsible for 8) expanding networks among medical institutions.

In reality, ministries and agencies have conducted operations based on their own interests, to deal with increasing number of foreign tourists

and workers: more than 30 million foreign tourists visited Japan in 2017 (2012: 8.3 million) according to the Japan National Tourism Organization (JNTO). MHLW created the accreditation system called “Japan Medical Service Accreditation for International Patients (JMIP).” 48 medical institutions were approved (Oct. 2018). JTA selected medical institutions for foreigners that fulfill the conditions that include: accepting emergency patients a year-round, around the clock, and having multiple departments (including an emergency department, an internal medicine department, a surgery department and pediatrics department), and referring to JMIP. About 900 medical institutions were approved in total (2017). Most private cosmetic clinics do not meet the above-mentioned criteria for registered institutions. METI has also proceeded with medical tourism, but cosmetic/aesthetic medicine such as cosmetic surgery and cosmetic dentistry is excluded from their responsibilities. Under METI, MEJ started the accreditation system called “Japan International Hospitals (JIH)” in 2016 and approved 41 in total medical institutions (2017).

Statistics on aesthetic/cosmetic medicine. The Japanese government has not gathered data about aesthetic/cosmetic procedures such as number of procedures, amount of import volume of unapproved materials, as they are carried on patients’ own expenses.

The first statistics on aesthetic/cosmetic procedures in 2017 was completed by the Japan Society of Aesthetic Plastic Surgery (JSAPS). A paper-based questionnaire was emailed or mailed to 3,656 medical institutions that were assumed to practice aesthetic/cosmetic procedures, regardless of their membership. 521 (the response rate: 14.3%) institutions returned questionnaires. 1,603,318 surgical and nonsurgical procedures were undergone. JSAPS estimated national market size: 3,207,079 procedures (surgical: 425,653, nonsurgical: 2,781,426), almost twice times as many as JSAPS 2017 data (1,678,610).

CONCLUSIONS

In Japan, there is no one umbrella body governing medical tourism. Ministries and agencies have already operated measurements based on their interests. The current scheme of medical tourism

mainly aims at foreign tourists who undergo medical examinations and standard treatments, therefore, aesthetic/cosmetic medical tourists are outside target. This might not seem a significant problem as aesthetic/cosmetic medical tourism has already proceeded in South Korea and other countries. Medical tourism, however, should be thought from ethical perspective. The technology can be used in a wide range of procedures, and unapproved methods and materials can be used at facilities in countries with lax or little regulations. Inclusive statistics and regulations, including aesthetic/cosmetic procedures are indispensable to protect individual patients, clarify and develop domestic medical procedures, and sustain a solid tourism industry. Professional societies involved with aesthetic/cosmetic medicine have a potential

for gathering data about all procedures.

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THREE IN ONE: A THEORY OF SPIRITUAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN DA-NANG – VIET-NAM

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INTRODUCTION

Following Tomasi (1998), spiritual tourism likely dates back to at least 776 B.C. in ancient Greece when people traveled to particular temples to worship various gods. A variety of spiritual sites exist with the Mecca in Saudi Arabia, the old city Jerusalem of Israel, and the chain sites of Lumbini – Bodhgaya – Sarnath – Kushinagar in Nepal and India are the most famous spiritual destinations due to their religious originalities, large scale, and significance. According to the World Tourism Organization, an estimated 300 to 330 million tourists visit world religious sites annually (UNWTO, 2014). While worldwide faith tourism represents US\$ 18 billion in expenditures (FranceGuide, 2011), North Americans spend over US\$ 10 billion yearly on religious tourism (Newland & Taylor, 2010). The first UNWTO International Conference on Spiritual Tourism for Sustainable Development explored ways to sustainably integrate culture, tradition, and beliefs to tourism (UNWTO, 2013). Regionally, the Asia Pacific region is considered the world's religious core with highest number of spiritual tourists that accounts for over half of 600 million spiritual voyages in the world (UNWTO, 2011). Also, follow the analysis of Future Market Insight (2019), religious tourism is one of the fastest growing segment of tourism industry in the Asia Pacific region due to the stable politics and income increase of the emerging middle-class population of this region.

In Vietnam, historically, spiritual activities formed from three fundamental elements: the ancestral worship, the folk religion Mẫu (Mother), and the essential agriculture of Viet-Nam. The Lunar New Year represents all of these and the Vietnamese use the occasion to visit passed

ancestors, relatives and religious temples, do good deeds, and to celebrate the festivals of New Year. From 1955, these activities were limited by war and hardships of life then re-emerged along with the Viet-Nam's reformation in 1986 that the Vietnamese people travel to more distant religious establishments and sacred places. In the context of the contemporary definition of spiritual tourism in terms of business, tours, experiences, and so on, in 2007 the term "spiritual tourism" officially appeared in the Viet-Nam mass media. Since then, spiritual tourism became a "growing trend" (VNA, 2012, web page) of Viet-Nam tourism. Despite the longevity of Viet-Nam spiritual tourism, its development remains understudied through the scarcity of Vietnamese spiritual literature and spiritual tourism is only mentioned generally or a part in tourism researches topics.

Therefore, the purpose of this research is to generate a theory on spiritual tourism and its development in Vietnam's largest city, Da-Nang. Practically, this research contributes to the understanding a panorama of the current spiritual tourism development that can be evaluated, adjusted, and planned for steady development within and across government sectors. Further, industry will be more informed about the most distinguished facets of spiritual tourism and can use this to explore, invest, and publicize attractions.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Through the continuum of tourism development research, many models and theories are explored, discussed, and applied for the sake of tourism development, of which two prevalent models and seven theories are presented below and served as the foundation of this research.

Development Models

While the concept of development has long been discussed by various authors and disciplines, it “is used in many everyday contexts, such as development for an individual, an organization, a place or for society as a whole. But what do we mean by development? ... It might also be useful to ask the following question: development for whom, how, and to what?” (Aronsson, 2000, p. 31-32). A broad and general model framework of tourism development can be found in Sharpley and Telfer (2002), who established the relationship between tourism and development studies, demonstrating the interdependence between tourism and the multiple issues in which it develops. Among the existing tourism development models, two distinguished models seem particularly suited for this project: Butler’s cycle (1980) and Flognfeldt and Onshus’s structural development approach (1996).

Butler (1980) argued a tourism destination cycle that includes six phases:

- (1) Exploration: when tourists begin to explore a new place.
- (2) Involvement: building tourist facilities begins.
- (3) Development: truly exists with all successes and consequences of tourism operation.
- (4) Consolidation: in which all tourist resources are fully exploited.
- (5) Stagnation: as fewer or no more tourists arrive.
- (6) Rejuvenation or Decline: the choices are whether (A) to continue with new initiatives, (B) to modify capacity levels to bring them in line with demand, (C) to readjust with some maintenance, (D) to decrease competitiveness, or (E) to drop by severe interventions that ends the tourism life cycle.

Although tourism development is not always an orderly progression, this model remains a good conceptual approach as to how destinations develop (Swarbrooke, 1999). Similarly, although Butler’s cycle very clearly illustrates the process of tourism development over time, Aronsson (2000, p. 129) also notes that it “has been criticized as too deterministic and not taking into account that places are unique... One exciting question is how the new differentiated and, in some cases, small-case forms of tourism fit into Butler’s model. The model, it can be argued, is not wholly adequate for analyzing the development of these forms in an area except in those cases where the small-scale form of tourism opens up an area for mass tourism.”

Meanwhile, Flognfeldt and Onshus (1996) present a five-step model of structural tourism development with levels:

- (1) Temporary stopping places: simple service for visitors.
- (2) Overnight accommodation: some choice of tourist facilities.
- (3) Specialized tourism service: good selection of service and tourist activities.
- (4) Tourism centres: where attractions are predominant features.
- (5) Advanced service offering: cities or places with highly specialized service.

This model “is easier to fit the late modern forms of tourism into this model than into Butler’s” (Aronsson, 2000, p. 130).

The models are complementary in that Butler’s concept of evolution mentions the consequences of tourism development through the five options of continuation, modification, readjustment, decrease, and dropping after the stagnation phase; product diversification is presumed after the last step of advanced service offering in Flognfeldt and Onshus’s model. Further, while the structural tourism development approach focuses on the specialization of tourist products, the life cycle focuses on development of space and destination.

Tourism Theories

Beyond conceptual approaches, tourism development is currently classified by seven different theories (Andriotis, 2000; Sharpley, 2000, 2003; Andriotis & Vaughan, 2009; Awang, Hassan, & Zahari, 2009):

- (1) Laissez-faire: This is the traditional development that suggests, without much interference of government and operations of individual entrepreneurs, the production and goods exchange, or tourism development in this context, can be attained by themselves thereby raising local standards of living. This form of development is also known as neo-classical.
- (2) The diffusionist paradigm: A development process that extends from one location to other locations, better understood as emanating from the core development to peripheral areas. A prerequisite for this to happen is innovation, which does not need to be new, but either exists in certain areas or refers to tangible objects or intangible phenomena. Innovation can also be actualized

through land value differentials in different regions forming the development complex.

- (3) The dependency theory: A development at peripheral countries, regions, or areas in which large corporations and foreign headquarters of tourism-generated countries exploit and control many development facets such as investment capital, resources, major services, and main tourism expenditures.
- (4) The sustainable development approach: A development that emphasizes the preservation of resources and maintains them for the needs of future generations, increases productive potentials, ensures equitable benefits for all communities and tourists, while maintaining capacity for continuous development.
- (5) Modernization theory: Tourism is approved as a development strategy that generates foreign exchange, increases gross domestic product, attracts investment capital, facilitates technology transference, promotes employment, introduces modern occidental values of life, which are to be determined through the development stages of a nation.
- (6) Neo-liberalism: A tourism development in which the government, affected by certain unexpected domestic or foreign events such as an economic crisis, restricts its support to and management of tourism and yields to the private sector to regulate the tourism industry.
- (7) Alternative development: Based on the concept of sustainability, this tourism development focuses on a range of strategies of conservation, greenness, responsibility, control, friendship, and community, which brings common benefits to both the tourism environment and to local residents and tourists alike.

Given the prominence of spiritual tourism and lack of understanding of its development particularly in Asia and Vietnam, this project fills a research void and contributes to practice understanding of spiritual tourism.

METHOD

To develop a better understanding and theory of spiritual tourism, this project used a grounded theory approach with interviews and document review in the central large city of Da-Nang. Details of the research method follow.

Study Site

Da-Nang is located in the centre of Viet-Nam with a 2017's population of 1.064.070 and is one among the five largest cities in Viet-Nam (CTTĐTTPĐN, 2016). A variety of tourism products exist in Da-Nang and as of 2019 Da-Nang offers six main spiritual tourism products. First, the Five Movements Mountain is a natural formation that consists of five mountains named after the five oriental cosmologic elements of Metal, Wood, Water, Fire, and Earth (BQLKDLTCNHS, 2018). Second, the national Avalokitesvara Festival organized annually since 1991 for commemoration and honor to this Bodhisattva (CQTA, 2017). Third, the 70 m high Da-Nang Christianity Main Cathedral built by the French in 1923 adopts the gothic style of architecture (CTTĐTTPĐN, 2016). Fourth, the Temple of Caodaism Missionary Society built in 1956 for a religion of the Vietnamese (CTTĐTTPĐN, 2016). Fifth, the new Buddhist pagoda Sacred Efficacy inaugurated in 2010 with the 67-meter highest statue of the Avalokitesvara Bodhisattva in Viet-Nam (Nở, 2010). Sixth and last, the yet-to-be-completed Five Movements Mountain Cultural Spiritual Park is being built in an area of around 1.30 km², which aims to redesign this location into a leading tourism spiritual product for the city (KTVN, 2010, web page). Currently, Da-Nang's communities still are developing various realistic spiritual activities to meet the needs of tourists when coming to this sea city (Khánh, 2018).

Approach

This research uses grounded theory design (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The inductive reasoning approach is adopted as Da-Nang spiritual tourism development is emerging and hence a solid foundation for development is a necessity. In-depth interviews were conducted with participants connected to the Da-Nang Department of Culture, Sport, and Tourism, Department of Culture and Tourism of Five Movement Mountains district, directors of tourist companies, tourist guides, and Buddhist bonzes. Twenty structured and open-ended questions addressed spiritual tourism resources, challenges and opportunities, and development orientation. Data were collected in Da-Nang city from January to March 2012, which is also the season of spiritual tourism in Viet-Nam. Each interview,

conducted in Vietnamese, was entered into the software NVivo9 and, along with observations and memos, coded and constantly compared through three phases of open, axial, and selective coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Data saturation was reached at the 10th interview with two tourist governmental officers, three tourist directors, four professional guides, and one Buddhist bonze. Refer to the theoretical visualization of Morrow and Smith (1995), to best match the tourism development context and provide a clearer understanding, the words of some original element titles of the theory (in parentheses) are adjusted.

FINDINGS

The Theory

Based on the relationships that emerged among the development contents, the theory is officially named “The spiritual nature theory of Da-Nang spiritual tourism development” (Figure 1) and consists of five elements: *causal conditions*, *development theme* (phenomenon), *development strategies* (strategies), *contextual conditions* (context), *intervening conditions*, and *corresponding consequences* (consequences).

1. Causal conditions

These are the primary reasons and motivations

that encourage the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism. Whether implicitly or explicitly, these conditions are the foundation from which Da-Nang spiritual tourism is established and developed. Among them, the typical nature of Da-Nang is considered as a small version of Viet-Nam’s nature, as many participants confirm: “We have seas, rivers, mountains... we even have mountains in the city. We have a mountain pass, we have temperate zone of mountain Bà Nà, as well as peninsula and spring; this means that whichever natural elements Viet-Nam have we also have them.” Regarding the long-standing spiritual tradition of Da-Nang, the “Ancestor worship is the primary and ancient spiritual tradition of the Vietnamese,” whether they are Buddhist, Catholic, Protestant, Hoahaoist, Caodaist, or non-religious. As nature is rehearsed, the function of nature can be seen as a remedy for the soul, as spirituality, is explained by a participant: “Nature establishes balance for the spiritual life of a human being. One can release the tension, modify the sorrow in a more positive way, and achieve peace.” Thus, nature of Da-Nang should be seriously conserved as “We should maintain nature as well as the related and surrounding environments. We should preserve it.” As a supplement, constructions should be harmonized with natural characteristics, even to “Avoid, if appropriate, modernization because this will ruin nature.”

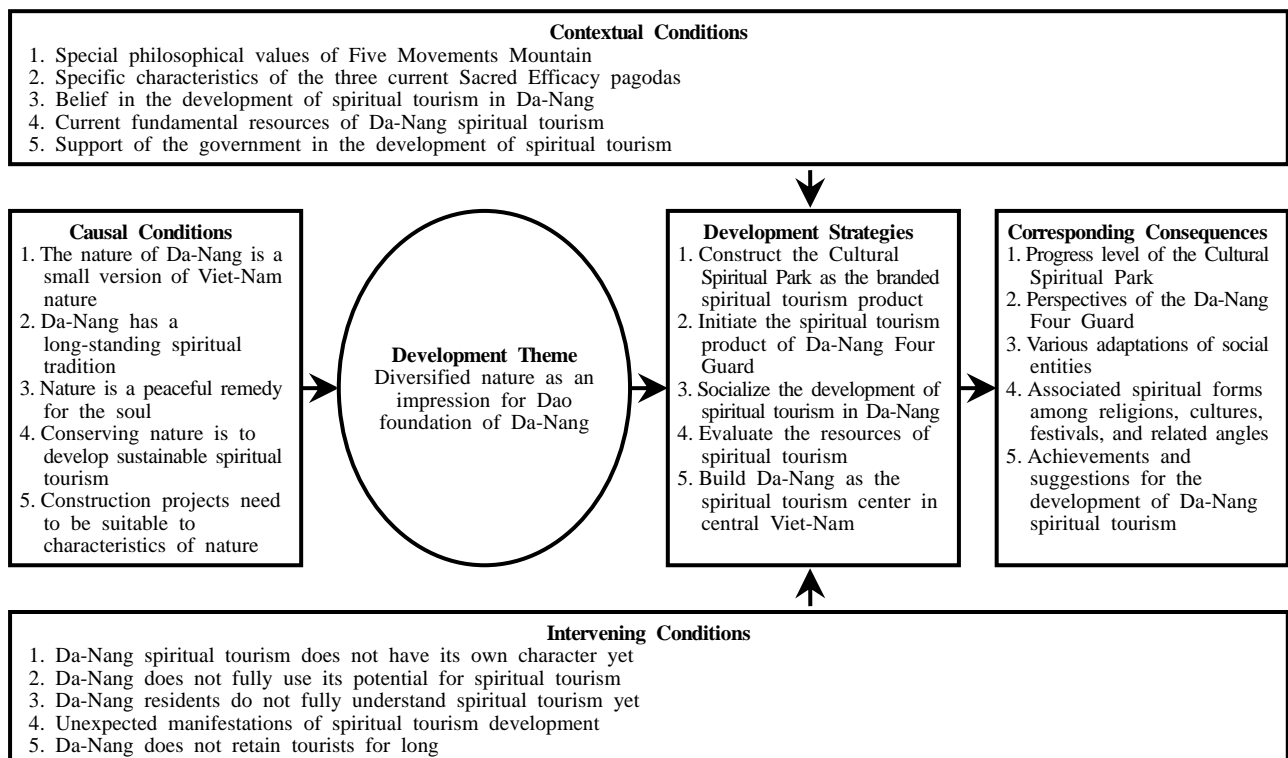


Figure 1. The spiritual nature theory of Da-Nang spiritual tourism development.

2. Development theme

This is the leading idea of Da-Nang spiritual tourism development resulting from the causal conditions. Considered as the core postulate, this theme reflects the typical development trait of current Da-Nang spiritual tourism. Essentially, the diversified nature of Da-Nang brings on an impression for tourists at the first sight in the perception towards the Dao – or path, or spirituality – of the Da-Nang land and residents. One participant firmly affirms that “Just nature is enough to provide attractiveness.” This can be reflected through “After participation in the Avalokitesvara Festival, visitors used to climb Mount Water to contemplate nature.” The distinguished nature of Da-Nang is once again emphasized that “It is rare to have a town that has rivers, mountains, and seas at the same time as well as a large statue of Avalokitesvara Bodhisattva looking out at the sea.” In associating nature and spirituality, one participant suggests: “Some, not necessarily too many, spiritual spots are incorporated into nature, this will create an occasion for visitors to come and the area will be developed as well.” In fact, the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism is perspective as “There are many elements such as churches, pagodas, rivers, and seas, etc. for the development of spiritual tourism. Currently, Da-Nang is building an environmental city that is greener, cleaner, more beautiful in appearance, and more civilized and cultural in terms of tourism.”

3. Contextual conditions

These are the inherent, positive, and advantageous situations of Da-Nang spiritual

tourism’s sites and space. Besides the conditions exploited, they are also the inspiration and potentials for a more firm development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism. Within, the Five Movements Mountain with its oriental philosophic and cosmologic values is a highlight, which a participant poses a question that inherently encloses the answer: “Is it by chance that the contiguity between the coast line of Viet-Nam and the East Sea reflects the symmetrical curve between the two forces Yin and Yang, with the island Hainan of China represents the Yin in the Yang and the great lake Tonlé Sap of Cambodia represents the Yang in the Yin, of which the Five Movements Mountain of Da-Nang city is the center of the symbol? [(Figure 2)].” Another specific potential also mentioned is that, based on the three distinct locations, “The three Sacred Efficacy pagodas illustrate a tripod that has a meaning of steadiness to create the perseverance for the people.” Thus, it is not an exaggeration as most of the participants express a similar belief: “I believe that the development of spiritual tourism in Da-Nang will be efficient.” Da-Nang spiritual tourism becomes more and more known not only by the typical nature and different religions, but also from a very fundamental spiritual resource, that is “The yearly festival of Avalokitesvara is an amazing event because Da-Nang is not a Buddhist center as Hué city nearby.” As a participant relates: “Many of the city’s leaders are passionately concerned about and have a will to develop spiritual tourism,” this reflects the positive and supportive attitude of Da-Nang government as another favorable condition for the development of spiritual tourism.

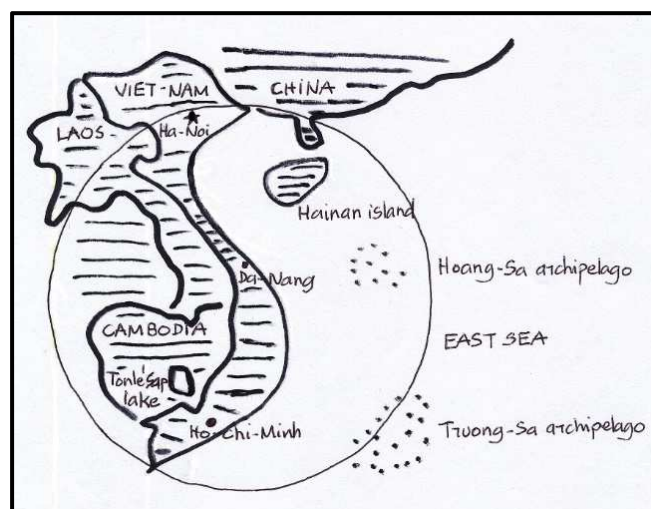


Figure 2. Application of the Yin-Yang symbol to the Viet-Nam form. (Source: Authors)

4. Intervening conditions

In contrast to the contextual conditions, the intervening conditions are the existing, negative, and disadvantageous circumstances of Da-Nang's sites and space. However, they are also useful when evaluated as the motivations that push and promote the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism. For instance, in showing a shortcoming of typical characteristics of Da-Nang spiritual tourism, one participant remarks: "Da-Nang spiritual tourism is not as large as the Bái Đính site in the North or as diverse as the Châu-Độc town in the South." There is some indication that Da-Nang does not fully exploit the resources of spiritual tourism because "The potential for spiritual tourism in Da-Nang is abundant enough, but there is a serious lack of the necessary conditions to exploit." This can be understood as conditions of human, fund, conservation, marketing and so on still are limited and are also shared with other tourism products of culture, entertainment, or relaxation. Besides, the limited understanding of residents to spiritual tourism is also a hindrance for development, as "Spiritual and sacred things that are transmitted from generations used to be favorably accepted and followed, while new things such as spiritual tourism are hard to accept right away." The misunderstanding of residents sometimes induces some negative manifestations of development such as "Inventing new worship chants that are strange to tradition, burning too many joss papers, and then excessively feasting so that the solemnity of the worship places is lost." Besides, despite the efforts to attract tourist, Da-Nang does not yet retain tourists for long due to its location, as "Da-Nang is a transit for tourists to take another flight north or south, or continue to visit important neighboring sites such as the Hội-An ancient town and Mỹ Sơn sanctuary."

5. Development strategies

These are the relevant approaches and actions that, resulting from the contextual conditions and intervening conditions, bring the development theme to reality in order to develop spiritual tourism in Da-Nang. These strategies are the most visible part of the development and are just the current development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism. Currently, Da-Nang is constructing a branded spiritual tourism product that aims to highlight the spiritual nature of the Five Movements Mountain and also to attract more tourists. That is, "The Cultural Spiritual Park is the starting point to create a brand for Da-Nang tourism that differs from that in the North and South." Another initiative, no less authentic, is based on the Vietnamese concept of four guards, as "We already have three Sacred Efficacy pagodas in East, West, and South guards. Now I propose building another Sacred Efficacy pagoda in the North. I call this is Da-Nang Four Guard [(Figure 3).]" In such the spiritual tourism projects, the appeal for cooperation, investments, and socialization from every societal entity is needed for an efficient development, in which "A unified guidance from the city's highest leaders should be determined first. Next is the cooperation of religious entities, then the contribution of the business community, and then the involvement of residents." As an adaptation, the local authorities, such as the Five Movements Mountain district, are carrying on an evaluation of spiritual resources with "First, we are carrying out scientific-based research in order to confirm the resources of the Five Movements Mountain area. Second, we recover an amount of festivals and to concentrate on constructing spots." Certainly, those efforts and contribution of Da-Nang government and communities are purposed to create a spiritual center in the centre of Viet-Nam, as a participant affirms: "Da-Nang is a destination for MICE events, resort tourism, and now for spirituality."

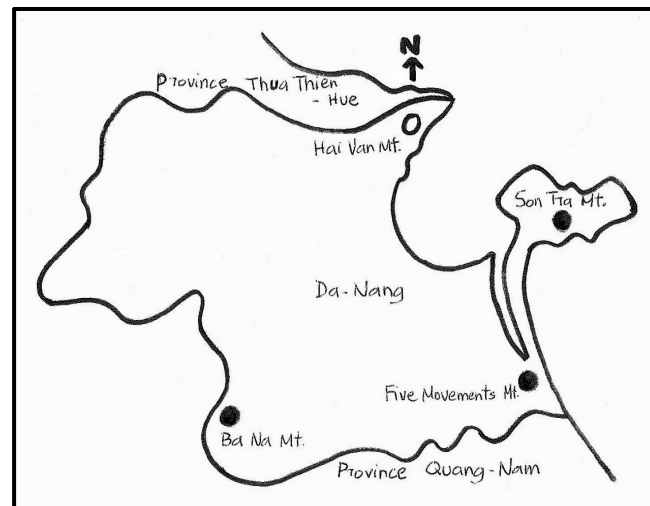


Figure 3. The initiative of the Da-Nang Four Guard (Three Sacred Efficacy pagodas [black spots] and the expected fourth one [white spot]). (Source: Authors)

6. Corresponding consequences

These are the current and continuous working processes, results, and suggested directions for the beneficial development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism that have been obtained from the execution of the five Development Strategies discussed above. These consequences can be seen as the status quo of Da-Nang spiritual tourism development, in which the development opportunities and challenges still remain. Regarding the progress of the large scale Cultural Spiritual Park, “The government is negotiating land prices in order to appropriately compensate land owners for moving away.” From onsite observations in this area, many residents have already departed, many dwellings are destroyed, many new streets have been built, but the relocation program still continues. The perspectives of the product Da-Nang Four Guard, as four Buddhist pagodas with same name located in four mountains at four directions, are still a concern with the assessment of the initiator himself: “We are able to serve the group who has specific needs and the development of economic and socio-cultural facets of the surrounded area.” In a general view, the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism also induces some different reactions and adaptations, such as some participants’ remarks about the mass media that does not relevantly and fully report yet the development process of this tourism type. Even though, almost all participants avow that “While the government sees that adequate investments should be put into spiritual tourism, the business communities also share it. Most people approve it,

and want to follow this direction.” Besides, during the process of development, currently, spiritual tourism is not only preserved for certain tourist segments but can also be associated with other non-spiritual tourists. “There are pure spiritual tourists. Nevertheless, business tourists and eco-tourists also have a need to burn incense. Hence, spiritual tourism will become a supplemental tourism type but not an alternative.” Nonetheless, despite some results achieved, a main challenge remains and is constantly suggested by participants: “The human resources side is not so strong, and generally does not fully meet the expectations of customers. Human resources should always be upgraded, and invested in adequately.”

Principal Traits

Da-Nang spiritual tourism still is young and its development is assumed to relate to the second “Involvement” phase of Butler’s concept of evolution (1980), and is broadly understood as an improvement of spiritual-friendly facilities, amenities, and services, an increase in spiritual products, and an appeal to societal cooperation in moving towards true development. Regarding the step model of Flognfeldt and Onshus (1996; reproduced by Aronsson, 2000), this model can explain the Da-Nang spiritual tourism in the middle step of Specialized Tourism Service with some good choices of spiritual products and activities that are being managed, enhanced, and initiated continuously. With the religions and beautiful nature that spiritual tourists can contemplate while

enjoying some local cultural traits from nearby traditional craft villages, Da-Nang spiritual tourism can still be developed while supporting spiritual tourism that includes religious motivation and non-religious activities of sightseeing and cultivation as viewed by Mu, Li, Jian-Hong, Ji, Yan-Geng, and Xiting (2007). In the domain of a city, Da-Nang spiritual tourism illustrates all four development spaces of urban (the Christianity Main Cathedral and the Caodaist temple), rural (the Avalokitesvara Festival and the Sacred Efficacy Pagoda), peripheral (the expected 4th Sacred Efficacy Pagoda), and island tourism (as spiritual cruise to Hoàng-Sa islands, currently absent, but Da-Nang still has the possibility) defined by Telfer (2002), Hall and Jenkins (1998), and Botterill, Owen, Emanuel, Foster, Gale, Nelson, and Selby (2000). Tourism development in such various spaces supports an important development principle: equal distribution, which solidifies and strengthens the development foundation of a destination. The Da-Nang government still has policies and initiatives to support religions in the development of this spiritual-religious tourism. Such a stance is not purposed to control religions in a way that is favourable to government, such as an implication of hegemony and political ideology in tourism development discussed by Henderson (2009), but in fact, this merely is the overall development structure of a new city in which the development of spiritual tourism is one element. The Da-Nang community also positively participates in development through thematic seminars, spiritual tour development, inter alia. However, this participation still includes a limited perception towards the development contents of spiritual tourism, which reflects a lack of training. Although the role and benefits of community involvement in tourism are highly evaluated (Timothy, 2002; Prideaux, 2008), a tourism development may become indistinct and lack attractiveness if the involved community does not have adequate understanding and knowledge of such a tourism development. The current development strategy of Da-Nang spiritual tourism focuses on a product strategy and this is natural and essential for a young form of tourism that strives to affirm itself step by step. Regarding obstruction for the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism, short of human resources and professionalism, and limited spiritual activities

are main issues. Consequently, current tourist consumption of spiritual tourism is referred a type of classification consumption (i.e., personal discovery of spiritual tourism) rather than integrative consumption (i.e., assimilation into spiritual tourism) as discussed by Sharpley (2002). As such tourists acquire a basic understanding of place, do not spend much money, leave soon, and cannot contribute much in promoting the development of spiritual tourism. Currently, publicity for Da-Nang tourism is for the most part reliant on word-of-mouth communication (T. C. Cường, personal communication, August 11, 2013). This situation reflects a status of inadequate finance allocated to the marketing of Da-Nang tourism, which means potential European and American markets are less informed and familiar with Da-Nang spiritual tourism. Da-Nang may want to establish another supplemental policy of finance in order to reach distant markets. For example, religious charitable trusts, by supporting religious sites and encouraging pilgrims to visit these sites, contribute to the tourism religious economy (Shinde, 2010). By overcoming financing challenges, the quality of Da-Nang spiritual tourism can take another step forward.

The Orientation

Spiritual tourism in Da-Nang remains not fully developed and is mainly reserved for domestic tourists and some foreign visitors from Asia. The characteristics and issues of Da-Nang spiritual tourism discussed in a previous section have resulted from a development direction that was not clearly confirmed at the start of the development. Following the viewpoint of this study, particularly for Da-Nang spiritual tourism, the orientation is of a genuine significance that the host and tourists can understand, perceive, and experience, and in which both can construct, maintain, and enhance the experience as tourism further develops. To answer the research question “Is the current development of spiritual tourism in Da-Nang city as well oriented as expected?” the answer is “No.” Therefore, what orientation should be affirmed for this first step of development?

An orientation on human resources is not deemed as relevant, because Da-Nang knows this matter and knows how to improve it. Should it then be on the orientation of spiritual products? No,

because this is a matter of course that Da-Nang is certainly thinking about. Is the economic orientation applicable? No, because a true spiritual tourism does not emphasize too much economic facets of development although they are always present and critical to success. The environmental orientation is not a central focus either as it is already a part of Da-Nang development orientation and is not being directly tied to spiritual development. Perhaps the cultural orientation is sound? No, because although culture can enhance local spiritual values, this orientation is not so appropriate at this point of time when spiritual tourism has not yet been truly developed. Instead, something that is fundamental, basic, and rooted in spirituality is more relevant. Thus, the recommendation for orientation is the spiritual orientation for the development of spiritual tourism in Da-Nang. Stated differently, to spiritually orientate is to emphasize the spiritual values of Da-Nang (e.g., religious spirituality especially Buddhism, natural spirituality such as Five Movement Mountains, or human spirituality) so that the picture of Da-Nang spiritual tourism becomes clearer, more specific and especially, more evident. To orientate spiritually Da-Nang spiritual tourism should aim to enhance spirituality in the minds of Da-Nang people. This should include whether to introduce and literally explain the spiritual significance of Da-Nang through media, to interpret more clearly a spiritual site to tourists, or to promote the spiritual values of a certain festival. Spiritually orientating Da-Nang spiritual tourism should also minimize superstitious behaviors. This orientation would serve to clarify the typical spiritual traits of Vietnamese and Da-Nang people and help to publicize Da-Nang spiritual tourism more convincingly to international tourism markets.

As a support to the spiritual orientation, referring to the five Development Strategies, the following five applications are suggestions for Da-Nang tourism authorities:

- (1) The Cultural Spiritual Park: consider using five different colors for each construction cluster at Five Movements Mountain, such as black for mount Water, green for mount Wood, red for mount Fire, white for mount Metal, and yellow for mount Earth; these colors symbolize the five elements of the Five Movements principle.
- (2) The Da-Nang Four Guard: consider building a small or medium-sized fourth Sacred Efficacy pagoda with a large yard for potential special activities or festivals; while a large pagoda is good, it may not be necessary because the Vietnamese concept of four guards is inherently unique, authentic, and significant.
- (3) Development socialization: consider organizing one or two contests per year for spiritual writings or art exhibitions to reflect the meaning of spirituality through concrete concepts and forms, as a means of spiritual communication among people and visitors.
- (4) Spiritual tourism resources evaluation: consider selecting clear-cut spiritual resources for tourism, because a certain boundary still exists between culture and spirituality, in order to appropriately maintain, conserve, and bring into play those real spiritual tourism resources.
- (5) Da-Nang as a spiritual tourism center: consider cooperating with the government, tourist companies, religious leaders, cultural writers, and spiritual scholars in designing and planning publicity programs for the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism.

Theory Discussion

Spiritual nature theory

The spirituality of Da-Nang nature can be understood from two aspects. First, in the hearts and minds of Vietnamese, the sacredness assembles where beautiful, impressive, and diversified natural elements exist. Second, the ontology and cosmology of the Five Movements principle support and control all things. In the harmony between spiritual nature and religious beliefs, the religious tourism of Da-Nang developed as spiritual tourism.

A foundation of theoretical spiritual nature can be found in Schroeder (1992, p. 26), who reasons that “when archetypes are projected onto natural environments, these environments evoke powerful emotions and take on a profound significance for the individual.” The immanent characteristic of spirituality in nature is indeed similar to the spiritual nature of Da-Nang. However, the spiritual nature of Da-Nang is based on, not the psychology discipline, but the oriental philosophy (Hoàng, 2012). Further, the spiritual nature of Da-Nang is compared with the spiritual nature semantics of Taylor (2007), in terms of religious spirituality of Da-Nang people and the

traditional spirituality of Da-Nang's land. These respectively interpret the two dimensions of the conceptualized "nature religion" proposed by this author (Taylor, 2007, p. 867): "(1) A perception that nature is sacred (in some way) and worthy of reverent care, [and] (2) Feelings of belonging and connection to the earth-of being bound to and dependent upon the earth's living systems."

An application of spiritual nature theory is to reveal spirituality in nature and use it as a foundation for the development of spiritual tourism products. Usually, the spirituality of nature lies on typical landscapes that challenge the human mind in the expression of a perception or feeling, or radiate an invisible wave that harmonises with the energy of a serious observer and makes him/her gradually aware of something reconciling in his/her mind. For instance, Russian taiga and tundra with particular biomes and without a trace of human habitation can offer tourists an experience of losing themselves while integrating with the vast wilderness (Big Earth, 2014). By contrast, the chain of red rocks in arid Sedona, Arizona (USA) has a strong impact on the spirit of visitors. Brown (1991, p. 61) also appreciates the desert of Australia as it "was seen to have a meaning beyond its sand, spinifex and stone. It seemed to speak of a spiritual dimension with opposing forces." Another source for application is from the five types of spiritual experiences classified by Norman (2012): healing (correction or amelioration), experiment (review or revision), quest (discovery or knowledge), retreat (sacred time or ritual renewal), and collective (being part or convention). Tourist developers may want to refer to Norman's experience types as suggestions while searching for spiritual nature, which may fit with any of these five spiritual experiences. Besides, in striving for a significant natural spirituality for spiritual tourism, tourist developers may also want to directly experience nature before introducing a spiritual nature to tourists.

Alternative theory

Analysis has shown that the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism is most compatible with the alternative development theory of Sharpley (2000, 2003) and Awang et al. (2009), in terms of both development content and development form.

Considering the development content of Da-Nang spiritual tourism which includes all things,

activities, and events such as pagodas, prayers, festivals, etc. they meet most of the concepts of conservation, greenness, responsibility, control, friendship, and community embedded in alternative development. For instance, regarding conservation, understood from a broad meaning rather than conserving the natural environment, the development of Da-Nang spiritual tourism is a conservation of traditional spiritual values for future generations. Further, referring to spiritual nature to develop spiritual tourism also leads to a respect of nature and the protection of greenness. In terms of responsibility, just the essence of spiritual tourism conveys a spirit of human responsibility in that it directs people to live better and nobler lives. Spiritual tourism is also friendship tourism because people can share their experiences of how to live, sympathise with various circumstances, and establish new relationships. For Da-Nang community characteristics are strongest because spiritual tourism is established by Da-Nang locals and residents and shared with visitors for common benefits, as a main principle of alternative tourism development. Regarding the development form, Da-Nang spiritual tourism should be understood as an element or item of the general Da-Nang tourism development. So far, Da-Nang still promotes tourism as a central sector contributing to the city's development and economy, referring to the theory of modernization, with a focus on the potential of nature, culture, relaxation, and tourist events to create tourist products. By relying on the devotion of the Vietnamese, Da-Nang develops spiritual tourism to diversify the current main tourist products to meet the needs of spiritual tourists as well as enhance the attraction of the city. Consider the semantic meaning of "alternative" tourism as an option in traveling, the development of this tourism type is a right and logical alternative development because this tourism meets the tradition of Vietnamese especially in the period of Lunar New Year. As tourists in this time usually search for the good and embark on a significant journey, spiritual tourism is a most appropriate selection. Hence, functionally, spiritual tourism is also beneficial as it can start the operation of other existent tourist products, motivate the development of Da-Nang tourism, and inspire tourists to take trips in the future.

In the general framework of community-based

tourism, alternative tourism usually implies tourist activities or types that connect with, are close to, are derived from, or direct to resident communities such as ecotourism, agritourism, wildlife tourism, and volunteer tourism, and spiritual tourism can be added to this list. In encouraging developing spiritual tourism, Tarlow (2011, p. 31) also argues that “[b]ecause faith-based travelers are committed travelers they tend to save for these religious experiences and travel despite the state of the economy. [Hence,] [f]aith-based travel can provide a steady flow of income to a local tourism economy.”

Essence theory

The review of the history and development process of Da-Nang spiritual tourism allows another theory to be offered. As described, the type of spiritual tourism found in Da-Nang was originally developed from the spontaneous activity of residents that transformed itself into a form of tourism development. In such a typical transition, this tourism development suggests a theory that can be termed as essence, which is not mentioned in the establishment of tourism development theories. It involves a connection with the community such that tourists can experience the way of life of certain locals, tribes, or communities. The theory of essence development can be understood as tourism development that refers to, is based on, and concentrates on the essential or original values of a particular activity; yet, it does not modify them too much, so that they can be faithfully reproduced along with the development that ensues. Put differently, this is the development of long-standing community activities that have been traditionally maintained for the potential and benefits of tourism. Selection of community based activities and traditions should be made with respect towards the quality of essential values that can be associated with tourism. Regarding Da-Nang spiritual tourism, the essence, or essential values, can be regarded as the reliance on the supernatural power of the iconic Mother, gratitude to ancestors and historical heroes, following religious masters, and the innermost way of living, from which typical rites, festivals, pagodas, and so on take shape.

Three concepts can be developed to construct this theory for application in tourism development, namely the adaptive administration of government,

intimate relationship between tourist business and the community, and the active stance of community. Regarding government and its relationship with tourism developers, the essence theory can inspire them to design flexible tourism policies and regulations rather than rigidly conforming to an outline of tourism development. Such an adaptive administration is more easily agreed to by the community and at the same time, it can empower the community to manage activity tourism in an allowable framework. For example Da-Nang government has established a common voice between government and religions through the Musical Festival of Religious Organizations (Quang, 2012). The building of the Cultural Spiritual Park is a promotion of spiritual tourism at the Five Movements Mountain (Hiên, 2013). Also, Da-Nang is considering some relevant management solutions for the ancient religion Mother that aim to prevent superstitions and abusers (Hà, 2014). Tourism that is developed in such a way will not be developed under pressure to increase the number of tourists or compromise community goals. On the part of tourist operators, this theory can motivate them to open an intimate relationship between tourist business and the community, where mutual and truthful cooperation, recommendations, and especially consultation are promoted for the benefits of both sides. An illustration of such cooperation is if the government allows for the wish of community to contemplate and worship the International Peace Jade Buddha statue once again, the Da-Nang Travel Association is willing to request the owner of this statue and cover the transportation cost to Da-Nang while this statue is toured and exhibited somewhere around the world (Hùng, 2012). During the interview, three tourist directors also presented their recommendations to communities which included to protect the environment, create interesting activities, and to increase its perception towards a spiritual tourism development model (Hùng, 2012). An example of consultation is the launch of the spiritual tour Da-Nang Four Guard in April 2013 (Dũng, 2013), which the company Vitours Da-Nang needed to consult with Buddhist monks for the activities of vegetarian diet, praying, preaching, meditating and so on. Based on such a type of relationship, tourist operators can market tourism more soundly and exploit tourism more beneficially for both operators

and community residents. With respect to community, this theory can assist it to take an active stance in conserving, renewing, and promoting essential values of activity related to tourism while conforming to existing policies, regulations, and other regulations. For example, residents of Hòa-Phú volunteered to contribute US\$ 33,000 to restore and conserve the 400-year-old temple Hòa Phú (Suong, 2013). The renewal of spiritual values can be seen clearly through the annual Avalokitesvara Festival, in which Buddhist communities create new activities and invite new foreign Buddhist bonze delegations (CQTA, 2012, 2013, 2014). To promote typical spiritual activities, the agricultural community of Phong-Lê restores the ancient and unique folk festival of Herd Child (Lộc, 2014). Potentially, as long as the community seriously perceives the essential values of an activity, tourism will be more conveniently associated with such an activity, more clearly determined, and thus can maintain health, depth, and sustainability along with the development. Perhaps, the essence theory with its three concepts argued above can be considered as the solution for the concerns of faith tourism planning argued by Woodward (2004) towards a holistic urban planning, a necessity of local circumstances in micro management, and real action plan and goals that all stakeholders are familiar with in the planning of sacred sites. Hence, an initial confirmation can be made that the theory of essence development is a determinable theory but remains associated with certain development theories of Da-Nang spiritual tourism.

CONCLUSION

Interview data and a qualitative approach using grounded theory lead to theory of Da-Nang spiritual tourism development. Within, four essential generalisations contribute to tourism development: orientation, spiritual nature, alternative tourism, and essence development.

Orientation in tourism development is a pillar that sustains the true spirit of tourism development, a vehicle that drives tourism development in the most useful way, a bridge that links tourism products, management, and marketing and serves as a barrier that prevents so-called exaggerated, superficial, and deformed phenomena emerging in

a typical tourism development. Orientation in tourism development is better clarified and established before tourism is developed. As orientation is the implicit strength of tourism development in the long-term, it deserves more attention.

To separate Da-Nang spiritual tourism from general Da-Nang tourism, the first theory of spiritual nature explains the “means how” Da-Nang spiritual tourism is being developed. Two typical characteristics are highlighted: (i) the immanence of spirituality in nature from the land with diversified natural elements and (ii) the cosmologic spirituality in nature based on Oriental philosophy. Immanent spirituality still draws attention as the reasoning of meaningful nature, whereas the concept of cosmologic spirituality for tourism applications is rarely mentioned and applied to spiritual destinations. As spiritual nature is certified in and supports studies of philosophy, psychology, culture, and psychotherapy, the theory of spiritual nature in tourism study is important in the supplementation and construction of typical products as well as potential spiritual experiences, for the sake of tourism and spiritual tourism development.

The second alternative theory presents the “reasons why” Da-Nang is developing spiritual tourism. Based on the main features of greenness, friendship, and community t Da-Nang spiritual tourism does not harm the environment but enhances the role of nature, does not generate outstanding economic values but still contributes its share, and does not induce cultural conflicts but potentially harmonizes the differences between host and tourists. Thus, spiritual tourism is considered a notable representative of alternative tourism theory that not only conserves the inner force of host but also dedicates this force to all visitors.

Regarding the third theory of essence, this is an initiation of tourism development theory to gain “insight into what” Da-Nang spiritual tourism developed originally. Fundamentally, this emphasises the real and traditional values of a community in a direction to reveal, conserve, and bring them into play. Da-Nang does not develop spiritual tourism by a conventional tourism process of planning then operating, but from the traditional belief activity of local residents. The theory of essence development reflects a continuation of age-old values that supplements the reasoning of

current tourism development theories, by a new perception that tourism theorists can refer to for further expansion, and by a new application that tourism entities can refer to for further operations. While tourist products are constantly created, the presence of essence theory can be postulated for a selection of appropriate products that tourism can develop more authentically.

This study is the first study of spiritual tourism of Da-Nang. Several future research opportunities exist and include integrating the tourism perspective, integrating more levels of societal entities and tourists, and longitudinal research to better understand and track development process.

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GOLF TOURISM – IS IT A NICHE? THE CASE STUDY OF THE HUNGARIAN DEMAND

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INTRODUCTION

The paper concentrates on the globally increasingly popularity of golf tourism in a country, where the roots of this sport had been demolished in the communist era. Although, several steps had been done since the political system had changed at the end of the 1980s, golf and the related tourism still remained small scale, meanwhile in international context the golf market has gone through a strong diversification (Humphreys, 2016). This contradiction

LITERATURE REVIEW

Plenty of surveys have been conducted on golf demand and supply in destinations heavily affected by golf tourism (Petrick, J. F. et al. 2001; Petrick, J.F. 2002a, 2002b; Petrick, J. F. – Backman, S. J. 2002a, 2002b; Kim, S.S. et al. 2005; Wilson, J. - Thilmann, D. 2006; Correia, M. - Pintassilgo, 2006; Kim, S.S. et al. 2008; Hennessey, S. M. et al. 2008; Humphreys, C, 2014; 2016), and on the elements of infra- and superstructure required for receiving players, and publications presenting golf tourism in its entirety have been also released (Hudson, S. – Hudson, L. 2010). Consequently, it was proved that golf is not about a narrow, marginalized group of players, but it is a wide – and not negligibly solvent – range of demand that moves millions of people among tourist destinations over the borders.

According to Hudson, S. - Hudson, L. (2010) golf tourism is a branch of sports tourism, one of the most rapidly developing fields of tourism as a whole. It was Robinson, T. – Gammon, S. (2004:229) who attempted to sum up golf tourism in a framework typical for sports tourism built on motivation. As such, they distinguished between golf sports tourism and golf tourism sport. They identified a soft and hard subtype in each case.

Considering the form of golf tourism, at the

beginning of the development of golf it could be defined as the part of – the then not yet defined – alternative tourism, which means an active tourism product attracting the personal interest of individuals, since it was not a mass tourism product with respect to the magnitude of demand. Certain golf tour operators aimed to maintain and increase the number of customers by paying attention to the individual needs of golfers.

METHODOLOGY

As the aforementioned fact that the Hungarian golf society is relatively small, therefore an online survey was conducted among the regular, registered golfers to be able make segmentation among them. The questionnaire was shared among the Hungarian golf club members and also by their social media groups with a convenient sampling personally. As a result, 89 questionnaires were filled, which meant 4.38% of the total registered golfers' (2028) of the country (Hungarian Golf Federation).

The methodological presentation of the research was supplemented by a pair-pattern t-test (among those with both domestic and foreign experience), factor and cluster analyses were conducted, the latter serves to organize the 33 and 35 variables into more simple groups. The aim was to segment demand and define golfer types, so that they are commensurable and comparable to international research results and segments, and by the application of factor analysis, to detect the dimensions behind golfers' attitudes. Are there any themes and dimensions along which respondents typically think about golf?

FINDINGS

Regarding the gender distribution of the sample roughly was the same as the country statistical figures reported by KPMG (2010): 80% was male and 20% female (69% male, 21% female

and 10% junior. The age distribution of the sample is mixed, but online sampling was not affected by age groups, since every golfer uses the internet – even for work purposes – regularly.

In the survey, the selection aspects of home golf courses also had to be provided. The related 33 attitude components proved to be suitable for carrying out a factor analysis ($KMO=0,731$, Bartlett (528) =1477,2, $p=0,000$). The conducted analysis resulted in the following 10 factors, which explains the 72.26% full variance. Factor 1 relating to home golfing is additional services to the golf course (quality accommodation, meals, wellness, spa, all of these in a package and connected to recreation), which are mostly available locally (Kim, S. S. et al. 2002). Factor 2, club- and social life, community existence and experience show belonging and reinforce the social merits of golf sport (e.g. personality development). Factor 3, excursion opportunities in the area (natural, cultural, entertainment facilities etc.) all display sharp contrast to the quality of the golf course, which means that the more important the quality of the course for someone, the more likely that the facilities in the area are not important aspects in selecting the golf course. Factor 4 is the natural environment which refers to spectacle value and landscapes. It is found interesting and appealing, but not of primary importance. Factor 5, the prestige of the golf course, delivered one of the most interesting results, as the responding Hungarian golfers were not interested in the reputation or the designer of the golf course or the number of competitions held there in the case of foreign or Hungarian courses either, yet it appeared as a well-distinguished factor in the analysis. Factor 6

is family golfing, recreation, relaxation and more favorable climate than home, which are all conditions that often prevail in a golf-lover's life. At best, the whole family plays golf, thus this common hobby is a family bonding recreational activity that especially gains space during golf vacations abroad where climate is more favorable. Factor 7 is (physical and financial) accessibility and value for money, that is for golfers the length and cost of the return journey, thus it is not only the amount of money spent on transport but duration is also important. Moreover, the latter is an even more important factor than the material side. Price sensitivity was mentioned earlier, and it is strange in light of the fact that golf is a middle and upper-class sport, yet the concept of sparing also appears here. Factor 8 is the role of staff, the professional and personal preparedness of human resources, which provides the packaging for the club and the course. There is no successful golf club without prepared and kind hospitality taking into account the interests of tourists. Factor 9 is getting to know and play on new courses, which in practice means that for players – playing outside their membership club - the most important thing is that the course should match with their skills, because they go to a new course to play golf and gain new experience and not to suffer from the difficulty of the course. Factor 10 is the difficulty or challenge of a golf course, which involves that for some, the nearness of the course is not relevant at all, but the difficulty of the course is, all the more. The summary of Hungarian golfers' selection priorities of domestic or abroad golf courses compared in Table 1.

Table 1. Factors influencing the Hungarian golfers in selecting golf courses

Most important variables abroad	Value	Most important domestic variables	Value
Good price level of the course	3,4	Good price level of the course	3,5
Course quality	3,2	Course quality	3,3
Climate of the country visited	3,2	Easy accessibility of the course	3,2
Playing new courses	3,1	Politeness of course staff	3,2
Beautiful natural surroundings	3,1	Qualification of court staff	3,0
Easy accessibility of the course	3,0	Cheap accessibility of the course	2,9
Cheap accessibility of the course	3,0	Difficulty of the course	2,8
Recreation, holidaymaking	3,0	Beautiful natural surroundings	2,8

Source: Kiss, R.

Golf destination selection is summarized below, and the cluster analysis which is built on the results gained from the general opinions given on golf, the aim of which is not market segmentation and categorization based on playing skills (HCP), but to create Hungarian golfers' groups with common features based on playing skills, habits and characteristics, and certain demographic variables. In this case, five clusters can be created from the variables provided, where the following aspects were in the focus of the analysis: playing skills (HCP), how long ago and how often golf is played, respondent's gender, age, profession, qualification, marital status and income per capita. The clusters created this way well represented the consumer groups outlined by the qualitative research, and they will be presented below in more detail. Group 1 (N=22) includes health and environmentally conscious, retired (aged 60-69) married men that work or worked as top managers or senior managers. Of all the categories listed in the survey, they are the golfers with the longest golfing experience (11-20 years), they play rather often (2-3 times a week), have very different golfing skills and are interested (the only ones from the five groups) in the tourist facilities of the area as well. Group 2 (N=18) comprises of intellectuals in favor of course prestige and new courses, who upkeep their 4-10 years' experience by playing regularly (weekly), belong to the 50-59 age group and are married. Based on playing skills they are on amateur level, but not only starters (with 27-36 or 19-26 HCP), they hold multiple degrees, and the gender distribution of the group follows that of the base population. For them, establishing new golf courses is the direction of golf development. Group 3 (N=17) includes male golfers from top management and entrepreneurship, who have played for 4-10 years, minimum once a week on average but sometimes more often, belong to the 40-49 age group, are married, college or university graduates and have basic playing skills (27-36 HCP). Group 4 (N=10) consists of career-oriented women, who recently started to play golf (1-3 years ago) so are therefore starters (half of them with 27-36 HCP, and the other half above 36 HCP) and play 2-3 times a week. They mostly represent the 30-39 age group, perform middle management, intellectual work, and are singles with college or university degree (the number of married respondents and

those not wishing to answer were also high). Time spent with golfers, rich, atmospheric club life as well as the search for social experience (singles) are all integral parts of their business and social life. Group 5 (N=22) comprises of singles that like nature and club life, who have played golf for 1-10 year(s), 2-3 times a week, are young or middle aged (19-49) single men with secondary education or higher education qualification, and with reliable golfing skills (19-26 HCP). In addition to nature and club life, they also place emphasis on health consciousness.

CONCLUSION

Although the sample of Hungarian golfers seems small it is in line with international literature, the paper attempted to perform the segmentation of domestic golfers. Instead of creating statistical population categories merely on the basis of handicap (HCP), not only golfing skills, but habits, characteristics (e.g. playing frequency), and certain demographic variables were also applied. Based on these, the author created the following segments of golf tourists:

- health and environmentally conscious pensioners
- intellectuals in favor of course prestige and new courses
- male golfers from top management and entrepreneurship with a desire to relax
- career-oriented women
- singles that like nature and club life

The segments are comparable to golfing groups of other countries, though due to the significantly different sample and population sizes and diverse destinations the similarity of the segments was only noted in the case of VisitScotland (2007). Despite of the tiny domestic market, based on the survey results it can be determined that the market is small, but still shows special segments in this

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COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM AND DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM DESTINATION

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INTRODUCTION

While the roles of tourism in the economic development of cities and in bringing several benefits to the locals are well recognized, tourism development has also affected communities in many ways (Eshliki and Kaboudi, 2012). Particularly, Community-based tourism (CBT) emerged as an alternative to mainstream mass tourism (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009). Today, a lot of studies have reported the development and implement of CBT.

This paper focuses on the relationship between university and local industry in CBT. The academic subject of tourism lends itself very well to engagement with industry. There is a general willingness of business to engage with academia to address challenges (Budeanu et al, 2016). Enterprises would regard universities not only as a mere source of supply of human resources, but also as a partner for creating creative technology seeds and as an outsourcing destination for human resource development. According to Pookaiyandom (2013), the creation of business plan proposals for community-based tourism (CBT) by students promotes understandings of the concept of CBT. Apart from integrated learning from planning and field work to research, the business plan proposals by students are expected to be invaluable suggestions for communities and the potential for new innovations.

Kanazawa city is the one of the foremost tourist areas in Japan. The number of tourists visiting Kenrokuen Garden, where is the most popular tourist spot in the city, is 2.75 million people in 2018 and 420 thousand of them came from abroad. The number of foreign tourists has been constantly increasing (the growth rate in the number of foreign tourists was 13.0% from 2017 to 2018). However, some problems with an environment that accepts foreign tourists has been identified. For example, there are concerns that service in English is insufficient at eating places, and that tourist

multilingual information is inefficient. Particularly, not much is known concerning foreign tourist's behavior. It would be essential to grasp the problems based on the research of foreign tourists' behavior and to present solutions to them.

In May 2017, the project "Reach KANAZAWA (RK)" lunched supported by Kanazawa University and an advertising agency in Japan. In this project, international and Japanese students organized. They took lectures about tourism management by experts on the subjects, and designed independently original tours for foreign tourists visiting Kanazawa. They provide fee-charging guiding tours acting as a tour guide and interpreter. This project would be a good practice in terms of not only a practical educational program but also a resolution of public issues. The guiding tours could make it possible for foreign tourists to connect to the local industries and to touch the everyday lives of local people.

Therefore, we set two objectives of this paper. Firstly, we aim to identify the specific character of the guiding tours conducted by students through analysis of the tour management and consciousness of students and local enterprises which are cooperative with the project. Secondly, we aim to propose improvement of guide tour system according to the feature of the project. The findings would be a first step toward developing the city of international tourism. We believe that it would be applicable to other cities.

METHOD

To attain these purposes, firstly the management of RK and the transition of its tour programs were researched to comprehend the general framework and character between July September 2018 and December 2018.

Secondly, the questionnaire survey to the students who engage the project was conducted. This survey was carried out in November 2018. The

number of respondents was 20 persons (Japanese students: 14 persons, international students 6 persons). The question items are designed to reveal their motivation and incentives to join it, such as personal roles for the project, relationships between Japanese students and international students and opinions to cooperation with local enterprises.

Thirdly, the interview survey was carried out to the cooperative enterprises with the project. This survey was carried out toward 2 owners of guesthouses, 1 Sake brewery and Fisheries Cooperative Association in November 2018. In this survey, we asked them the contributions to the project and analyzed whether the project is sustainable. Finally, we proposed improvement of a guide tour system for RK in order to grasp the underlying problems and solve them.

FINDINGS

Firstly, this study found that tour management by the students in RK can contribute to grasping tourists' needs. The students design many kinds of guiding tour. Tourists can contact with student guide before his/her travel. This communication makes it possible to arrange a tour plan corresponding to individual needs of tourist. In addition, students value the international experience and development of individual capability more than earning money. Such a consciousness can provide flexibility to the tour contents. If nobody applies for one guiding tour in one period, they replace the tour plan for

a new one.

Secondly, this study revealed the relationship between the students and the local enterprises by questionnaire and interview surveys. The local enterprises cooperate with the project because they want more foreigners to know about the city and to take awareness to their business. Students' guiding tours help the enterprises to develop multiple businesses such as providing a service in English. In other hand, because of the unique feature that the project is managed by the students, it is difficult to hold guiding tours every day. Sometimes they cannot help declining tour application because they don't have time in the regular school day. Additionally, the staffs of local enterprises want the students to develop the tour programs such as experience tourism and to become more deeply involved in.

According to the specific character of RK, we present an improvement plan of a guide tour system. A tourist behavior research function is combined with the tour programs. Specifically, the student who work as a guide ask the detail of action in Kanazawa to the tourists during the conversation when guiding tour. The collected data are accumulated and a tourism laboratory in Kanazawa university analyze them. The results are fed back to RK and the members can redesign guiding tours matched with international tourists' need. Moreover, analysis results will be open to the public for development of the city as an international tourist destination.

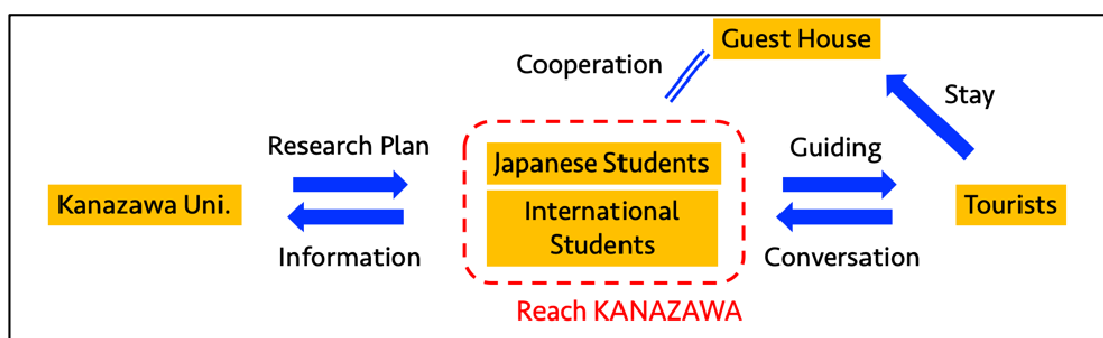


Figure 1. Guiding tour system combined with research function

IMPLICATIONS

RK equips a mechanism to observe and respond to invisible needs of inbound tourists by changing the tour contents flexibly. This means that

it will keep corresponding to a change of demand by inbound tourists. This project has a unique nature that the members don't regard economic profit as an important. By utilizing these features, it is possible to grasp international tourists' needs and

to conduct many kinds of guiding tours on a trial basis. This challenge would lead to the development of the city as an international tourist destination.

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COMMUNITY CAPITAL AND ECONOMIC RETURNS OF COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM: A CASE STUDY OF KOH YAO NOI COMMUNITY, PHANG NGA PROVINCE

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INTRODUCTION

Nearly three decades, Thai government had pay attentions and drives community-based tourism (CBT) continuously with hope that tourism will be a part of the economic development and enhance the quality of life of people in the community. Furthermore, they would like to use tourism as a tool to create and distribute income as well as be a new alternative way for the community to earn money, especially the one who suffered from the economic crisis caused by the recession of income from the main traditional occupation. Hence, the government announces the “*Thai way of tourism*” as a national agenda and has established a sustainable community-based tourism strategy plan (2016-2020) to solve the problems of Thailand’s CBT. As well as upgrading and developing the standards of CBT in order to distribute income to the community and achieve concrete sustainability. In addition, one of the key aspects of the National Tourism Development Plan II (2017-2021) is the distribution of tourism development to new areas with strategies to promote and focus on CBT.

Community-based tourism (CBT) is a form of tourism that is based on the community management. This management requires the participation of people in community and collaboration of stakeholders from all sectors in planning, decisions, management and troubleshooting on various issues associated with tourism (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Wahab and Pigram, 1997; Williams et al., 1998; Okazaki, 2008). CBT is a characteristic of community integration, which

jointly controls and owns the service activities related to tourism (Mitchell and Redid, 2001) by using social capital to drive the participation of people in the community and promote the creating of value-added from existing resources with tourism activities (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000; Okazaki, 2008).

Although CBT is a tool to generate income for the community, the tourism management by community has to rely on various community capitals such as natural capital, cultural capital, human capital, social capital, financial capital. It is a joint investment of the community in applying diverse capitals that exist within the community, both private and public capital, to produce goods and services that are related to tourism such as accommodation (home stay), food, and recreation activities. Many activities are direct investment by villagers (both money and labor). Therefore, considering the economic return only from tourism revenue may not be shown the truly net return (or benefits) that the villagers receive, because they have the cost of investing in both monetary and non-monetary term.

The literature review finds that most previous studies in Thailand focused on how to develop tourism products in the community, while the studies about community capitals and economic returns of CBT are still few (Kaosa-ard and Untong, 2014). Therefore, this article aims to study the community capital that is used to develop the tourism, the tourism management by community, and estimate the economic returns of each activity related to CBT. The sample area in this study is Koh Yao Noi community at Phang Nga Province. This is because it is one of the examples of successful CBT in

Thailand, which is guaranteed by the awards from both the national and international institutes, and it is often chosen to be a study trip for other communities who are interested in CBT.

The results of the study will be crucial information which gives an understanding of the community capitals for CBT development as well as the net economic returns that are different in each activity related to CBT. Both data are an important for policy making, promotion, and management of CBT base on distinct community capitals and economic returns, which lead to the sustainability of community-based tourism development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review is divided into five parts that are a summary of the important aspects related to CBT, social capital, participation, the economic impact of CBT, and the sustainability of the development of CBT. The detailed in each part is as follows:

The community-based tourism (CBT)

Community-based tourism is an approach that is used to generate income and promote community participation, including strengthening community empowerment. The tourism activities under this concept focused on two important issues. Firstly, it is the community-based management which gives an importance to the participation of people in the community since the decision on resource usage, operation, management, and the allocation of benefits. Secondly, it has a good management which generates the truly benefits to the community without create negative effects or conflicts. In other words, it can manage and make a balance between the benefit and cost appropriately which is an important condition that will lead to the sustainability of CBT, which is challenging the community in managing the balance of economic, social and environmental aspects (World Tourism Organization, 1998; The ASEAN Secretariat, 2016).

Basic principles of CBT emphasize community participation, decentralization, and cooperation process by using social capital to connect the relationships within the community and stakeholders, including various related sectors such as public sector, private sector, etc. (Okazaki, 2008). The community should be the owner and leader in

tourism management (Chiappa, Atzeni and Ghasemi, 2018). The formal and informal linkage between stakeholders is one of the key factors that contribute to the success of the development of CBT that will strengthen community empowerment and bring benefits to the community sustainably (Tolkach and King, 2015).

Social capital and community-based tourism

Social capital is a fundamental factor that makes CBT successful and it is an important part that enables smooth collaboration and achieving goals (Okazaki, 2008). That is because CBT is an activity that requires cooperation, unity, and participation of people in the community to join in the activities throughout the supply chain of CBT management. Furthermore, social capital also helps to reduce the transaction cost and monitoring cost (Coleman, 1988; Kata, 2004) as well as cause the economy of scale from group integration.

The social capital is divided into four dimensions: communication, networks, institutional and synergy (Woolcock and Narayan, 2000). The network is a popular dimension that applied to assess the community participation in tourism management. This dimension is separated into three forms: 1) bonding social capital, 2) bridging social capital and 3) linking social capital. The relationship of all three forms of network dimension will indicate the status of the current social capital of CBT (Okazaki, 2008) as well as use to consider the accumulation and increase of social capital of communities that use for tourism development.

Participation of communities in tourism management

Community participation can be considered as a bonding social capital that is a relationship of people in the same community (Okazaki, 2008) and a main condition for sustainable tourism development (Cole, 2006). That is because people in the community are ones of the important components that create good hospitality atmosphere. Therefore, allowing people in the community to participation in tourism development will make them satisfy and support the tourism activities (Simmons, 1994; Untong, 2006; Dyer et al., 2007; Kim, Uysal and Sirgy, 2013). Community participation also shows the transparency of operations, and the equitable benefit sharing between stakeholders in the development

of CBT (Brohman, 1996).

Moreover, public participation is another important condition to make CBT differ from other kinds of tourism. The community which is just a tourist attraction whereas people in that area do not participate in the management and do not receive a benefit from tourism will be called as "*Tourism in the community*," which is not truly "*Community-based tourism*."

The economic impacts of community-based tourism

CBT is causing the economic, social-cultural, and environmental impacts in both positive and negative aspect (Kim, Uysal and Sirgy, 2013; Zaei and Zaei, 2013). However, most of the previous studies found that the economic impact is a major benefit from tourism development and given first priority (Ritchie, 1988; Akis, Peristianis and Warner, 1996; Ko and Stewart, 2002; Untong, 2006; Untong and Kaosa-ard, 2012). While, the social-cultural and environmental impacts are often presented as the negative impact of tourism development, which is mentioned and have an important in the secondary order (Kreag, 2001; Yoon, Gursoy and Chen, 2001; Dyer et al., 2007; Untong, 2006; Untong and Kaosa-ard, 2012). High and clear economic benefits eventually cause people in the community to accept social and environmental problems from tourism development in a certain extent (Untong, Guntawongwan and Anantanasa, 2018).

The economic benefits from CBT include an increase of employment, which leads to the rise of income of people in the community as well as the income distribution to the relevant person, thereby reducing poverty in the community (World Tourism Organization, 1997; Sebele, 2010; Sutawa, 2012; Tolkach and King, 2015; Thongpanya, 2017; Zaei and Zaei, 2013). CBT also contributes the investment, especially small and medium-sized businesses, and can create economic benefit to related businesses as well (Zaei and Zaei, 2013; Thongpanya, 2017). Moreover, CBT helps to develop the standard of living and quality of life of people in the community, improve infrastructure and transportation (World Tourism Organization, 1997; Zaei and Zaei, 2013; Thongpanya, 2017; Roseland, 2005; Sutawa, 2012). At the same time, CBT also helps to develop a local economy that leading to community development and sustainable development (Zaei and Zaei, 2013; Sebele, 2010;

Tolkach and King, 2015; Prince and Ioannides, 2017).

The negative economic impacts from CBT such as the rising price of good and service, which results in an increase of the cost of living for people in the community (Weaver and Lawton, 2001). Land prices rise (Lundberg, 1990) that cause the problem in land sale and make the change in economic structure of the community from the agricultural sector to the service sector (Sutawa, 2012). Moreover, in some case CBT makes people dependence on external funding, and the community changes the target of tourism development from enhance the well-being to focus on seeking the profit.

Sustainability of the development of community-based tourism

Sustainable management of community-based tourism is a trade-off between tourism development and the impact on stakeholders in the community (Butler, 1999) which depends on the conditions and various factors that can be summarized as follows:

1) Identity characteristics of the community are an important condition that attracts tourists to visit and create a unique and authentic experience to tourists (Astuti, et al., 2016). Tourism activities that propose to tourists should be aware people in the community and reflect the real way of life of the community with have the standard (Kunjuramand and Hussin, 2017). In addition, it also requires the friendliness of the people in the community to impress tourists, which will lead to good future behavior that will help to develop the brand of CBT (Fredline and Faulkner, 2000; Gursoy, Jurowski and Uysal, 2002; Simpson and Signaw, 2008; Chen, Dwyer and Firth, 2014).

2) Human Resources or people in the community need to have proper knowledge and understanding about tourism, service, tourism management by the community and the ability to use technology to promote and develop tourism by the community (Smith, 1997; Bhan and Singh, 2014; Kunjuraman and Hussin, 2017). In addition, leaders are another variable that is important to the success of CBT. The leader should play a role in caring for problems in providing services, have skills in tourism management by the community (Kunjuraman and Hussin, 2017) and should have a vision for tourism development in the community.

3) Funding is one of the key terms in the development of the services CBT as a standard such as having enough and clean bedrooms, hygienic bathrooms, etc. (Kunjuraman and Hussin, 2017) However, if the community must rely on external funding rather than self-financed may cause the community to lack ownership and less participate in tourism development (Sebele, 2010).

4) Facilities and infrastructure are factors that are important for decision making to travel and use the services of tourists (Sutawa, 2012; Bhan and Singh, 2014; Kunjuraman and Hussin, 2017), especially soft CBT travelers who still need convenience from the services that provided by CBT.

5) Community safety is another factor that is important to tourists' decisions to visit CBT (Bhan and Singh, 2014; Kunjuraman and Hussin, 2017).

6) The climate of the community, such as the occurrence of monsoons, makes it difficult to access community attraction, or inaccessible, etc. (Mustapha, Azman and Ibrahim, 2013).

METHOD

The research methods in this study are divided into two major parts as follows:

The first part is the application of qualitative research by using both groups and individual interview methods with ten key informants from the purposive sampling. All of them are the leader of the Koh Yao Noi community-based ecotourism club with group discussions and in-depth interviews, as well as written notes. In addition, using participant observation by residence in the community together with the villagers, and collecting data from previous research papers related to tourism by Koh Yao Noi community. The data triangulation is applied to checking the accuracy and reliability of data before using thematic analysis coupled with content analysis to analyze the data and applied the concept of CBT and CBT management by community organizations. Moreover, the social capital model proposed by Okazaki (2008) is applied to analyze the accumulation and increase the social capital of the community that is one of the factors that contributes to community participation in tourism development.

The second part is an analysis of economic returns by applying the cost-benefit analysis to

evaluate the economic returns of six main economic activities related to the Koh Yao Noi CBT: accommodation services, shuttle services, tour boat services, lobster farm tours, housewife group (production of batik for souvenirs), and Thai massage services. This part collecting data from structured in-depth interviews with community leaders and stakeholders in each activity group and choose voluntary informants who are willing to provide detailed costs and revenue from activities. In addition, the data collected from the revenue and expense accounts of each activity group is also used.

The analysis of the data in the second part is the analysis of financial returns that the community will receive from CBT management that divides the analytical approach into 2 forms as follows:

1) Profit and loss account analysis using the income statement analysis method which is the business operation in one year, comparing income and expenses incurred in the accounting period that causes profits or losses. The cost of fixed assets (lifetime over one year) invested will be systematically allocated throughout the life of the asset. That will show the cost of fixed assets in the form of "depreciation", which is the only expense incurred in accounting, does not actually pay cash. The income statement will help the owner of the activity (villagers) know: How the activity has performed? How is the revenue structure? What is the profit or loss of the business comes from? To improve operations and predict future performance and will make the villagers understand the real financial return.

2) The financial analysis applied financial cost-benefit analysis that shows the cash inflow and outflow, which is a comparison between return (revenue) and cost (expenses) of activities in the form of actual money each year and evaluates the return on investment in activities or possibility of profitability of the activity. The villagers who are the investors, how much will receive a return or profit?, and how long will it take to invest? This study determines the duration of the activity for ten years and will evaluate the economic returns from various indicators as follows:

2.1) Net present value (NPV) is the present value of the net cash flow of the activity each year. There is equal to the present value of the return or cash inflows minus the present value of the cost

or cash outflows and using the interest rate as a discount rate. If $NPV > 0$ indicates that the activity has the net return.

2.2) Benefit-cost ratio (B/C ratio), which explains that “How much will be the 1 US\$ investment generate?”. If B/C ratio > 1 shows that the activity gets the return. The B/C ratio is indicators that are easy to understand but cannot measure the size of the net return. Therefore, in presenting the results of the analysis should propose both NPV and B/C ratio.

2.3) Internal rate of return (IRR) is the discount rate that causes the present value of the net return to be equal to zero ($NPV = 0$). Therefore, the activities get the net return should have an $IRR >$ market interest rate (discount rate).

2.4) Discount payback period (DPB) is the amount of time that the present value of the net cash inflow from the activity is equal to the present value of the net cash outflow. It can be said that the operation of the activity is not profitable and without loss. The present value of the net cash inflow is positive or has the present value of the return after this time. DPB has a unit of measurement for a period (year or month).

In the study, estimates of revenue followed by the structure of revenue that consistent reality in each activity, including revenue received through and not through the club, and separate revenue according to the tourism season, which is different in terms of price. For the cost, the estimate is divided into two parts: 1) the investment in fixed assets, which is calculated as depreciation per annum, such as building, the decoration of the room or place, car, boat, etc. Determining of the lifetime on appropriate and in accordance with the reality such as the building has a 30-year lifetime, the car and boat have a 10-year lifetime, the boat's tail has the 3-year lifetime, etc. 2) That are operating costs, such as labor costs (or labor opportunity's cost), public utility's cost, material cost, production inputs cost, etc.

The analysis of the financial considered 10 years, only the production of souvenirs (Batik) by housewife group that has a period of five years, while the lobster farm tour is an activity that only has been operating costs since the investment in the lobster farm is a sunk cost, hence it is not taken into account as rental fees. The study uses the minimum loan rate (MLR) at a rate of 7 percent per annum in discounting, to estimate the present value of revenue

and costs. For the assets that have a lifetime more than 10 years, after the 10th year, the remaining value of the present value will be deducted from the investment value (considered only the used value in 10 years). In addition, in determining the revenue and operating costs of some items such as fuel, production inputs, etc., increase by 2 percent per annum according to the average inflation during 10 years ago (2008-2017).

FINDINGS

The results of the study are divided into five parts. The first part is the presentation of important basic information of Koh Yao Noi CBT. The second part presents the results of the analysis of factors driving the Koh Yao Noi CBT and then presenting the management of Koh Yao Noi CBT, and accumulation and increase the social capital of Koh Yao Noi CBT. The last part is the results of economic return analysis of activities related to Koh Yao Noi CBT. The details in each section as follows:

Koh Yao Noi community-based tourism

Koh Yao Noi community is a Muslim community that inhabited on the island and has a career based on local fishing. There are tourism resources that are important highlights such as natural resources, both sea and on land, Muslim culture, and the way of life of the fisher folk community. With the strength of the community through the participation process to fight the crisis of local fisheries and has a small-scale area; therefore, suitable to apply the tourism management guidelines according to the concept of “*community-based tourism*” used community development. Hence, the responsible ecological social tour project (REST) chose the Koh Yao Noi community as the first pilot area for community-based tourism development in the south of Thailand in 1995 (and the first in Thailand). REST help and encourage the community to develop tourism by paying attention to the participation of people in the community in joining and developing tourism management, including the allocation of benefits arising from tourism.

Until being awarded the “World Legacy Award 2002 for Destination Stewardship” from Conservation International and National Geographic Traveler, which is the ones that reflect the success of CBT management at the international level.

Including many other awards thereafter such as ASEAN Homestay Award 2016, ASEAN Sustainable Tourism Award 2018, Thailand Tourism Awards 2010, etc., Therefore, Koh Yao Noi community is one of the successful examples of CBT that is often chosen as a study trip for other communities, who is interested in CBT in Thailand.

Koh Yao Noi CBT is a perfect blend of community-based lifestyle tourism and nature tourism. The way of life of the community is one of the tourist resources that are important in attracting tourists to visit. The community allows tourists to participate in everyday activities with people in the community, such as local fishing, rubber tapping, rice farming, living with villagers who are homestay accommodation, etc. These activities were a real way of life in the community and give real experiences to tourists. It is one of the examples of CBT management that demonstrates the ability of communities to manage tourism along with the conservation of coastal resources, local fishery restoration, and preserving the way of life of the community. There is guaranteed by the outstanding award in the maintenance of travel destinations from Conservation International and National Geographic Traveler in 2002, with excellent highlights in the homestay management, coastal resource conservation, local fishery restoration, and preserving the way of life of the community [1 in 3 of the world]. Hence, it is suitable for tourists who want to relax, like simple peace, want a real experience that is different from other places, and also travel to the sea in Phang Nga Bay.

Factors driving the Koh Yao Noi community-based tourism development

Koh Yao Noi CBT consists of important factors or components of CBT that supports and drives tourism services of the community as:

1) Natural resources and culture: Koh Yao Noi community has natural resources, culture, and outstanding unique the way of life. Natural resources cover marine resources such as Koh Yao Yai, Koh Phak Bia, etc., the beaches on Koh Yao Noi and Koh Yao Yai, and local fishery resources such as shrimp, mussels, crabs, fish that have become fresh food for tourists, include fish and lobster farms that are interesting excursions for tourists.

Moreover, there are resources on land such

as hornbill, rain forests, mangrove forests, rice field, etc., and culture and community life, especially the Muslim culture that has a unique tradition, rice farming, local fishing (making equipment until getting out to catch fish in the sea) as ones of tourism resources. The variety of tourist attractions and related activities, tourists can manage own trips for learning and experience community life according to their needs, although the club has already offered a standard tour program.

2) Community organizations: it is one of the important mechanisms for driving tourism through the participation of people in communities that have a sense of ownership in activities that are being conducted. Koh Yao Noi CBT has the “*Koh Yao Noi Community-based Ecotourism Club*” is an informal community organization that separates itself from “*Local Fisheries Club*”. The club is a central organization to create participation of people in communities that are interested in tourism management. Their use tourism as one of the community development tools and generate (extra) income for people in the community.

A religious leader as a counselor and give suggestion and conciliate when faced with problems and conflicts within the organization. So, it can be said that the club is like the social capital that people who are interested in tourism management together tourism activities of community to create value from resource surplus in the form of (extra) income for people in the community. Including, other benefits that occur with networks and people in the community such as better community development, increased quality of life of people in the community, etc.

3) Community-based management: this is to define the working mechanism and rules for tourism management that can connect tourism to benefit the overall economic and social development of the community. Through the establishment of the club management system based on decentralization that divides the structure and spreads the work into 7 parties based on interest and expertise (no salary) that is consistent with tourism management. Each party can make decisions and carry out their own activities freely according to the authority through the joint resolution of members.

There are clear rules for both members and tourists who are visitors. The club has the distribution of equal benefits between members,

which most of them provide accommodation services. The club has a queuing system that tries to manage the total amount of revenue for the whole year with little difference and can be checked. There has an account book that monitors the revenue and the number of tourists each year. In addition, benefits are distributed to group and other networks of the community through tour programs such as the group that provide shuttle services, the group that provides tour boat services, housewife groups, etc. Moreover, their collecting money from tourists in the form of donations to the environmental fund for use in public activities such as mangrove forest planting, youth camps, etc.

4) Travel activities that provide real experiences in a specific way: that is to create an impression and satisfaction for tourists. Most of them are tourism activities, which are learning styles that give rise to awareness and understanding of different ways of life and culture between communities and tourists, such as taking tourists by car to visiting the Muslim community's way of life around the island. The local fisherman's way of life that is sitting and making or repairing fishing tools. The coconut plantation way of life that has selected young coconut fruits to open to drink fresh coconut water, as well as breaking the coconut to eat soft meat with a spoon made from coconut shells. The farmer way of life that is looking through the rice fields, along with the buffalo flocks soaking mud in the off-season. The lobster farming by visiting and touching live lobsters, including feeding various kinds of marine fish such as frog sharks, shark finfish, snakehead fish, fish, starfish, etc.

There is also tourism activities that promote the reduction of environmental impacts caused by tourism such as use tiffin or food box, including a bottle of water for lunch, when traveling to various islands. Which is kept back to clean at home and no garbage is dumped in various islands. The homestay owners use cloth bags to go shopping at the market, etc. The various tourism activities managed by the club most of them are activities that create awareness and really experience on the nature, culture, and way of life of the communities. Members who serve accommodation must be telling history community struggle in the conservation and restoration of coastal resources that are more than 20 years old for tourists to know. Such activities show the pride of the community and also contribute to

creating awareness about natural resource conservation. In addition to conveying meaning about telling history, there is also a description of the way of life of communities that are Muslim culture and local fishing.

All four basic factors have social capital as a lubricant to create mutual benefits of the community based on the trust relationship in the form of kinship. A religious culture connecting and coordinating relationships when the crisis of faith or conflict within the community. At the same time, religious leaders are still advisors and conciliate when conflicts within the community. In addition to the four basic factors, the club also gives importance to the potential development of members and people in the community through a shared learning process, both internally and externally. The community participation is the heart that supports and drives the success of the goal as achieving sustainability of CBT since the sustainability of CBT can occur if people in the community have a common sense of ownership caused by intention without compulsion.

Therefore, enhancing and developing the potential of members and people in communities that are human capital development is one way to increase the social capital of the community. There is like building relationships with external networks and government agencies (linking social capital). The community participation through the distribution of benefits from tourism activities and giving priority to participation in decision making and determining the direction of tourism development of members that is one of the ways to prevent the erosion of social capital of the community. Both factors are considered as important factors that support and drive tourism development by the Koh Yao Noi community to be successful and sustainable, which will briefly describe the details in each section as follows:

Strengthening the capacity of members and people in the community

The club has organized the activities of study trip and exchange of learning with other communities that are networks and/ other organizations. After a study trip, the club will summarize the lessons learned from the study trip through monthly meeting together (two times per month). All members will jointly analyze the tourism

situation, which occurred in the area there went to visit, both in view of the changes that have occurred, the impact of tourism development, external impacts on tourism development, including the strengths and weaknesses of the management of community there went to visit, and use as information for improving the tourism of the community itself.

Furthermore, all members have equal rights. If there is an organization and/ agency invite the club to send representatives to attend the meeting or training more knowledge. The club has queued according to the potential and readiness of each person representing the household before presenting to the meeting to have a resolution and make a joint decision in selecting an agent to attend a meeting or training. After returning from meeting with an external agency or organization, the representatives must report and discuss, exchange experiences and lessons learned with the other club members when having the meeting.

In addition to the above operations, the monthly meeting is also important for members to have the opportunity to discuss, exchanges their attitudes, knowledge, and experiences together within the group. That includes reviewing and analyzing lessons in past tourism activities of clubs. The various activities help to develop and enhance the potential of members and people in the community, which compares as if helping to increase the social capital of the club. That led to the club's drive to work efficiently and effectively or lead to sustainable success in the management of Koh Yao Noi CBT.

Participation of people in the community

Koh Yao Noi CBT operated and managed by the club with all members being people in the community. Almost all members of the club are involved in tourism management, from booking tours, booking accommodation, coordinating boat and shuttle, accommodation and food service, tour on the way of life on the island, and the tour on the places and islands as specified in the tour program (or the tour program that manages by tourists). In addition to the members, people in the community also participate in determining ways to develop tourism, both in the form of suggestions through meetings or talking through the club's members in the manner of being told in the form of the coffee forum or communicating through

religious leaders of the community.

In addition, people in the community also participate in the benefits that arise from tourism in the manner of joining, providing tourism activities through various groups and/ networks (Including religious organizations) such as housewife groups, homestay groups, group of the shuttle, and tour service providers, etc. There can be selling products to various groups that to be used in activities related to tourism such as selling crab fish shrimp to homestay owners at reasonable prices for make food to tourists, selling batik to tourists, etc. The various groups and networks will coordinate with the club and there will be a division of work to do activities together according to the aptitude of the group, such as housewife groups will training and show making the batik for tourists who visit.

The management of Koh Yao Noi community-based tourism

Koh Yao Noi CBT has an administrative through the “Koh Yao Noi Community-based Ecotourism Club” is an informal community organization with decentralization management. That focuses on the participation of people in the community in both policy and practice. The club has role distribution or division of work and sharing and allocating fair benefits that are consistent with the concept of tourism management by community organizations, which details in each element of the management briefly as follows:

1) Participation of people in the community in the form of being a member of the club or being a member of the group and/ other networks within the community, do not discourage the exclusion of participation in tourism activities by the community (in 2018, the club had a total of about 300 members). In addition, the club also provides opportunities for people in the community to participate in providing services to tourists in different ways and according to their own aptitude.

If considering the level of participation according to the community participation model in CBT management proposed by Okazaki (2008), found that Koh Yao Noi CBT that operated by the club is community participation at the level of control by the community (citizen control). The community is the operator of all self-tourism management, from planning to decision making

together through the resolution of the club meeting. The government officials-related agencies, including various organizations, support the operation but did not participate in the planning, operation, and decision.

2) Division of roles according to the members' responsibility and in accordance with various activities of tourism. Thus enabling management to be more flexible and members can perform their roles and potential in an efficient and effective manner. In the year 2018, the club divided the work structure into seven parties are the contact party that was separated into the department of international market coordination and domestic market, house management party, car party, finance party, accounting party, and reception party.

Although the overall operation of the club is conducted through members' meetings under the work that all members are equal in offering opinions, there can decide to order work related to their own parties in certain matters without having to go through the meeting or have the power to take decisions to solve problems according to their duties. If certain operations have to be related or may have an impact on other parties or most members or are problems that cannot be solved and decided, each party can bring the matter to the monthly meeting for members to consider and take decisions together. The club giving priority to the resolution of the meeting that is the consensus, the members of the club are equal and able to freely express their opinions (because the club's mainstay is not a political person or local administration, and most of them have similar economic status). In addition, the club also manages without the official club president, because they do not want the image of the power of command and decision to come to one leader who is the characteristic of centralized management.

3) Distribution of benefits, the club has managed the benefits of tourism that can be distributed to people in the community and members of different groups. It can divide the distribution of benefits arising from tourism into two groups as:

- Direct benefits are benefits that members of the club or network that linked to the club receive directly from the services of activities related to tourism, such as revenue from accommodation (homestay) tour guide, shuttle service, etc., which have different service rates. In addition, the club

also offers tour programs according to the interests of tourists. The revenue from the tour program after deducting donations to the environmental fund (100 baht/person or \approx 3 US\$/person) is allocated in two parts. Part I: allocated to the homestay owner and those who are involved in the activities related to tourism with a proportion of 90 percent. Part II: deducted for being the management fee of the club that is fixed at a rate of 10 percent.

- Indirect benefits are benefits that non-members of the community receive through the environmental fund, and from the donations of the study trip group. The club will bring money from the environmental fund to support public activities such as planting mangrove forests, release he mothers crab to return to nature, youth camp activities, dustpan in the sea, the activities of the mosque, etc. In addition; the club also has other indirect benefits such as bringing tourists (or visitors) to visit various housewife groups, introducing and forwarding tourists to other groups and networks in the community, and the agreement of the homestay service providers to purchase products from people in the community, etc. The people in the community of Ko Yao Noi recognize the importance of CBT that is distributed to people in the community (multiple effects). The study of Untong, Guntawongwan and Anantanasa (2018), it was found that Ko Yao Noi people perceived the benefits of tourism at a high level and more than the disadvantage, with statistically significant at 0.05. The importance of tourism development on Koh Yao Noi is to increase employment opportunities and increase income for local people, including community business opportunities.

4) Transparency and accountability, the club has the finance party to record income-expenses and has an accounting party that makes the income-expense accounting to easy-to-understand. The members or persons and/or external agencies can check at any time. In addition, the accounting party will report income - expenses to members every time when having a monthly meeting. For the expenditure of the environmental fund, a resolution must be sought from the meeting before uses the money for public activities within the community.

In addition to the systems and transparency of

financial, the club also has a systematic homestay service provision rule set up in order to thoroughly control the distribution of income for members (trying to control the revenue between homestay as little difference possible). The homestay queue management has a system for organizing tourists in two types are 1) to use the queue system to circulate respectively, and 2) if tourists come in groups and want to stay near to each other in order to facilitate activities together, they will queue to stay in close proximity. There provided that each homestay will receive a maximum as six visitors per time, and for the fair distribution of benefits, there are additional rules that if the homestay receives more than 10,000 baht (or \approx 300 US\$) in revenue, there is stopped receiving tourists in next round.

5) Measures to control and prevent the natural and cultural impacts that may arise from tourism, the club has clearly defined the guideline of tourists and communicates to tourists every time, such as the prohibition of dressing up in the community, the prohibition of drinking or drinking alcohol, prohibition of gambling, do not store shells and coral, the ban on garbage dumping in tourist attractions, etc.

Although most people in the community are Muslims and strictly to the prohibition and rules of Muslims, that culture does not affect tourism. Because people in the community have to communicate and understand tourists about the practices while visiting the community. Most tourists accept and are willing to follow, such as in the case of alcoholic beverages that are available to tourists just at hotels, resorts or some accommodation or some restaurants only, but not sold at convenience stores both as a general grocery store Minimart shop or convenience stores like 7/11.

In addition to the practices of tourists, to reduce plastic waste, most of the homestay service members use cloth bags when they go to the market. Moreover, there is an agreement that they will not use plastic bags to pack food served to tourists while visiting various islands and must collect garbage that occurred while traveling back.

For control of homestay service standards, there are rules of service that are collective agreements of the group, such as having a home medicine, hygienic bathroom toilet, the house must meet the homestay standards of the Ministry of Tourism and Sports, etc.

The conditions of the food menu at the homestay that is provided to guests in each meal (except breakfast) must have four food items per meal (unlimited quantity food). The food items must consist of shrimp, crab, fish, and vegetables, (some homestays will add an omelet if tourists cannot eat spicily), and have fruit with tea-coffee service. If there are trips to other islands, the landlord must prepare the fruit, drinking water and lunch according to the usual items, then put in a box or a tiffin (do not use plastic bags), there is stop by for lunch on the island, which is during the tourist route (the owner must have dinner with guests).

Accumulation and increase social capital of Koh Yao Noi community-based tourism

If applying the social capital model proposed by Okazaki (2008) together with considering the evolution of tourism development by the community of Koh Yao Noi. It was found that Koh Yao Noi CBT strengthened and accumulated social capital through operation by Koh Yao Noi Community-based Ecotourism Club. In the beginning, the focus was on the development of the bonding social capital by building relationships with the networks within the community through management in terms of decentralization and distribution of tourism benefits to various groups within the community. It helps stimulate participation in tourism development of people in the community.

Later, there developed and gave importance to bridging social capital through the relationship between networks that are organizations and / other communities that interested in tourism management by the community until the incorporation and becoming to a network at the regional and national levels. The network has a shared exchange of knowledge through education, study trip, and meetings together.

During the last five years, Koh Yao Noi CBT has further developed social capital that is a relationship with government agencies. (linking social capital) through cooperation between communities and various agencies in tourism and community development, such as working with TAT in PR, the bank provides loans and grants for home improvement and environment, etc.

In addition, if considered according to the concept proposed by Okazaki (2008), can conclude

the current status of tourism by the community of Koh Yao Noi that there is a level of social capital at the level 1 (social and economic well-being form tourism development). Since it is a community that has a high level of relationship in all aspects within the community, there is a strong social capital in the form of cooperation and good relationships between networks and groups within the community (called bonding social capital). However, the community continues to strengthen social capital in the form of relationships between communities and organizations and / external communities (called bridging social capital) and in the form of relationships with government agencies (called linking social capital).

At the same time, the community also participates in the development of tourism at the level of community control (citizen control). The community is responsible for managing all tourism services and participates in the sharing of benefits arising from both direct and indirect tourism, as mentioned in the previous section. Therefore, even though some members have separated themselves to conduct business related to tourism but still support and participate in the activities of the club continuously and consistently. Because of having to rely on the social capital of the club to create marketing opportunities through public relations and receiving awards, including applying for budget support and assistance both from government agencies, private sectors, and organizations.

From above, it can see that the social capital of Koh Yao Noi CBT comes from the strong foundation of social capital at the community level. That is constructed from various elements such as religious culture, a relationship like a kinship, the consciousness of conservation of coastal resources that are the main source of livelihoods, folk fishery lifestyle, etc. Participatory management that is emphasizes the importance of maintaining tourism development levels. So that tourism is still a tool for community development, including create extra income for people in the community and prevents deal with the negative effects that arise from tourism development.

The economic returns of activities related Koh Yao Noi community-based tourism

Koh Yao Noi CBT causes economic benefits both directly and indirectly through a variety of

related activities. This study analyzes only the economic returns of six activities related to Koh Yao Noi CBT that is:

1) Accommodation service in the form of a homestay that is a sharing of accommodation in the home for tourists, and guesthouse in the form of accommodation that is separated from the home but is in the same area as the residence, which has both invested in renovation and rebuilding. In the year 2018, the club has about 25 homestay members, but that is ready about 15-18 homestay (accommodating tourists about 100-150 people per day). There are only 10 homestays and the rest is homestays with guesthouses. This study will analyze the activities that provide accommodation services in two cases: in the case of homestay that investment in the new building, and in the case of homestay with guesthouses.

2) Shuttle service between accommodation and pier, and travel around the island. The club has about four members (on Koh Yao Noi, there are about 40 cars for tourists). Most will buy second-hand cars to add roofs rather than using a new car, which the price of the car much is not more than 4 hundred thousand baht (or ≈12,500 US\$).

3) Tour boat service charter to travel around Koh Yao Noi and Phang Nga Bay, with about 20 members of the club serving (Koh Yao Noi, there are boats that the tour is approximately 40 vessels). The long-tail boat made of wood with roofs of trucks traveling no more than 10 people.

4) The lobster farm tour with various kinds of marine fish, with only one farm opening from the total of lobster farms, approximately 40-50 farms, with a fee of 50 baht per visit (or ≈ 1.50 US\$ per visit).

5) Housewife group that incorporation to produce batik is one of the groups that receive indirect benefits from tourism by the community of the club. Because the club will bring tourists to visit the batik demonstration without charge. Tourists can try to make batiks by themselves if interested, the cost of training in batik- rate piece of 200 baht per piece (or ≈ 6.25 US\$ per piece).

6) Thai massage shops that have about 10 shops. Although they do not receive direct benefits from CBT but received indirect benefits from the development and expansion of tourism on Koh Yao Noi. However, the Thai massage shop, which is a

case study, is a shop that has income from customers who use the homestay of the club, which has the ratio about 10 percent of the total service hours (customers call to provide services at the homestay).

Table 1 shows the cost and return of activities related to Kok Yao Noi CBT. Considering the annual revenue estimate for each activity (topic 1 in Table 1), it was found that Thai massage shops and lobster farm tour are activities that have the highest revenue (approximately 1.03 and 1.14 million baht per annum (or \approx 32,200 and 35,630 US\$ per annum) respectively), followed by tour boat service and housewife group (batik) (about 5.6 and 3.4 hundred thousand baht per annum (or \approx 17,500 and 10,630 US\$ per annum) respectively). While the accommodation service and the shuttle services are two activities that have the least revenue (accommodation service has revenue of approximately 1.3-1.7 hundred thousand baht per annum (or \approx 5,300-4,100 US\$ per annum), and the shuttle services have revenue of about 1.8 hundred thousand baht per annum (or \approx 17,500 US\$ per annum)).

In addition, the information in the sleeping row "proportion of revenue from the club" shows that the homestay with guest house service is activities that rely on revenue from clubs, in the highest proportion compared to other activities (about 37.21 percent of the total revenue received each year). Shuttle services and homestay that invested in a new building have a proportion of revenue from the club of approximately 19.49 percent and 16.13 percent of all revenue in each year, respectively. The lobster farm tour is one of the activities have the highest revenue, relying on revenue from the club only 9.71 percent. The rest of the activities, it is impossible to clearly identify the source of revenue from the club.

The total cost of each activity that showed in topic two in Table 1, it was found that the housewife group was the only activity with a proportion of total cost per revenue of less than 50 percent (over 78 percent of the total cost as operating costs such as color, candles, etc.). While accommodation services are activities that have a total cost per revenue of up to 84-95 percent of all revenue. The homestay that invested in a new building (create a new home with room to accommodate tourists) has the depreciation ratio is higher than half of the total cost. The homestay

with guesthouse (investment to build a room in the guesthouse style) has the depreciation of approximately 22 percent of the total cost. If considering the operating cost structure of both accommodation services, it was found that the food cost, labor cost, and electricity cost are an important operating cost of accommodation service.

Shuttle service is an activity that has a proportion of total cost per revenue about 74 percent of total revenue; approximately 71 percent of the total cost as operating costs that have fuel and labor costs as an important cost (the proportion is about 30 percent and 37 percent respectively). The remaining activities include tour boat service, lobster farm tours, and Thai massage shop are an activity with a total cost of approximately 54-59 percent of total revenue and more than 77 percent of the total cost as operating costs, which has labor costs as an important cost.

Topic three in Table 1 shows the expected return that the owner of the activity will receive. It can be seen that the housewife group is the highest net return activity, with a net return ratio of approximately 59.28 percent of total revenue. The homestay that invested in a new building gets the lowest net return compared to other activities (with a proportion of net return per revenue of approximately 5 percent of total revenue) due to the high investment in fixed assets that are buildings with a higher depreciation ratio than other activities. It is different from the other homestays that have been small invested for room renovation or additional bedding. However, with the price of homestay accommodation at 300 baht (or \approx 10 US\$) per person per night and with the food costs that close to the price set by the club. Hence, the homestay receives low net return compared to other activities (about 16 percent of total revenue). The rest of the activities (except shuttle service) will have a net return from operations of approximately 41-59 percent of the total revenue.

In addition to the owner of the activity will receive a net return, the owner also has the opportunity to receive more return from wage if there is no employment (self-employed). Only the homestay, the owner will receive net return plus wage less than half of the revenue. Other activities, the owner will receive a wage plus net return in excess of half of the revenue. It is worth noting that, although some activities have a return on

operating costs in the proportion of less than 50 percent of total revenue, but if plus wage (considering the cash that the owner received from

the operation) found that all activities have a proportion of return on operating costs plus wage more than half of the revenue.

Table 1. Cost and Return of Activities Related to Koh Yao Noi Community-Based Tourism.

Item	Homestay (new invests)	Homestay with Guesthouse	Shuttle services	Tour boat services	Lobster farm tour	Housewife Group (Batik)	Thai massage shop
1. Estimate revenue (US\$/person/annum)	5,314	4,063	5,625	17,500	32,188	10,625 ^{1/}	35,625
- Proportion of revenue from the club (%)	16.13	37.21	19.49	-	9.71	-	-
2. The proportion of total costs per revenue (%)	94.71	83.97	73.60	58.88	54.10	40.72	58.92
- Depreciation	53.90	21.79	28.62	15.88	-	22.06	6.36
- Operating costs	46.10	78.21	71.38	84.12	100.00	77.94	93.64
3. The returns of the owner will receive ^{2/} (%)							
- Wage	9.32	8.60	27.34	19.35	23.30	- ^{3/}	- ^{4/}
- Returns on operating costs	56.34	34.33	47.46	50.47	54.13	68.26	44.83
- Net return	5.29	16.03	26.40	41.12	45.09	59.28	44.08
4. Financial analysis results (10 years) ^{5/}							
- Net present value (NPV) (US\$)	-24.22	3,306	9,538	54,148	-	21,616	118,720
- Internal rate of return (IRR) (%)	0.56	17.03	21.04	> 50	-	44.43	> 50
- Benefit cost ratio (B/C ratio)	0.71	1.12	1.29	1.69	1.84	1.36	1.79
- Discounted payback period (DPB)	> 10 years	≈ 7 years	≈ 6 years	≈ 2 years	-	≈ 2 years	≈ 1 years

Note: ^{1/} housewife group brings the average net return to the members who invested (as a part of wages and return on investment). In 2017, members receive a refund of approximately 62,000 baht per person (or ≈ 1,940 US\$ per person); ^{2/} the proportion of total revenue; ^{3/} only for revenue in the sale of batik, the housewife group also has revenue from serving lunches to groups study trip. In each year, there will be about 1.3-1.5 hundred thousand baht (or ≈ 4,100-4,700 US\$) in revenue per annum, which is about half the revenue; ^{4/} accounted for hourly compensation at the rate of 200 baht per hour (or ≈ 6.25 US\$ per hour); ^{5/} only batik of the Baan Tha Khao farmer housewife group with a period of 5 years.

: Foreign exchange rate = 32 baht/US\$.

Source: In-depth interviews with service providers in each activity.

The results of financial analysis shown in topic four in Table 1, it is found that only the homestay that invested in a new building is not worth the investment if considered in 10 years (NPV < 0, IRR < 7 and B / C ratio < 1) and have a payback period (DPB) more than 10 years. Other activities, there are differences worth the investment and payback period. The lobster farm tours, Thai massage shop and tour boat service as three activities that have a higher B/C ratio than other activities. The cost of 1 baht in all three activities will receive returns

approximately 1.84, 1.79 and 1.69 baht, respectively. Housewife group, shuttle service, and homestay with the guest house have B/C ratio 1.36, 1.29 and 1.12, respectively.

In addition, if considering the payback period (except lobster farm tour since there is no investment in fixed assets), it was found that the Thai massage shop is an activity with the fastest payback period of about one year. Shuttle service is a high proportion of investment in fixed assets and low annual revenue than other activities, hence has a

payback period of approximately 6-7 years.

Based on the above analysis, it is known that Thai massage shops and lobster farm tour are two activities that have the highest revenue. Accommodation services and the shuttle service are two activities that have the least revenue. Almost all activities relying on revenue directly from the club in different proportions but have indirect revenues from Koh Yao Noi CBT development. Most of the case studies have a high proportion of operating costs (except the homestay that invested in a new building). Wage remains one of the major operating costs of various activities.

The returns that the owner received will from wage (self-employed) and net return (profit), which has a different proportion to the revenue depending on the investment in fixed assets. If it is a small investment and relying on the surplus of resources and labor from the main occupation (without employment) will receive a high proportion of net return.

In addition, all case studies have a return on operating costs plus wage (the cash that the owner received from the operation) more than half of the revenue. Therefore, if activities related to tourism are not the main occupation that requires high new investments villagers will receive economic returns that are worth the investment in that activity (the ratio of benefits per cost varies according to the activity).

CONCLUSION

This article aims to study the community capitals that use for tourism development, tourism management by the community and assess economic returns in each activity related to CBT by using the community of Koh Yao Noi, Phang Nga Province as a case study. The study used qualitative research with apply the concepts of community tourism management and tourism management by community organizations, and using the social capital model proposed by Okazaki (2008) to analyze factors driving CBT development and the accumulation and enhancement of social capital of the community that is ones of the factors that contribute to community participation in tourism development. The economic return analysis applying cost-benefit analysis analyzes economic returns of six main economic activities related to

Koh Yao Noi CBT.

The study indicated that the community of Koh Yao Noi has been managing tourism development for more than 20 years, and it became one of the main study areas for CBT management in Thailand, because of the outstanding natural resources and strong social capital of the community. In particular, the operation with good governance principles that focus on community participation in policies, implementation, and benefits derived from tourism development.

The study of the main tourism economic activities illustrated a different potential for community income generation in the case of Koh Yao Noi. Homestay requires capital investment, and hence it does not generate the highest net benefit. Some households do not focus on economic returns from this investment but viewed it is an opportunity to build a shelter for their children, and a source of temporary income. Other activities, as the ones related with day trips, tend to rely on excess resources; therefore, labor becomes a better income-generating activity, especially for lobster farm tour and Thai massage.

Some future challenges were detected in the analysis. Although the community generally feels that tourism provides economic returns above environmental and social impacts, the increasing economic returns may lead to congestion and non-transparency in the distribution of benefits.

Therefore, the guidelines for tourism development by Koh Yao Noi community should be the same as the past. The government should allow the community to manage and control themselves or let them set a framework or guidelines for the development according to their own needs, not according to the needs of the government or any agency. Mainly because these agencies often focus on increasing the number of tourists and investing in buildings, rather than paying attention to the quality of tourists and its sustainability. Regarding the interviews with people within the community, the main elements that were important from them were: fair distribution of extra income from tourism, the pride from spreading their culture and success, enjoying time with their family, raise the elderly and youth within the family, having a peaceful life, and follow their own way of life. Regarding their view of the visitors, they would want to make them feel like part of the family.

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THE EFFECTS OF HOMO FABER NEEDS AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP ON SUBJECTIVE WELLBEING AND COMMUNITY RESPONSIBILITY

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INTRODUCTION

We are beginning a new era of Industrial Revolution 4.0 which will bring fundamental socio-economic changes across the globe (Ünay, 2017). At the same time, the maker movement is rapidly expanding its horizons in four components of digital fabrication, community awareness platforms, crafts and Do-It-Yourself and creative industries (Millard, Sorivelle, Deljanin, Unterfrauner & Voigt, 2018). Makers and maker communities are required to create a sense of community, consisting of collaboration, sharing and learning purposes, through the emergence and success of the maker movement (Dougherty, 2013; Howard, Gerosa, Mejuto & Giannella, 2014; Millard et al., 2018). The maker movement in Korea is burgeoning simultaneously from both the ordinary people's bottom-up and small scale maker movement at local community level and the maker movement underpinning Industry 4.0 technologies at government level. This study focuses on the community-based, bottom-up maker movement.

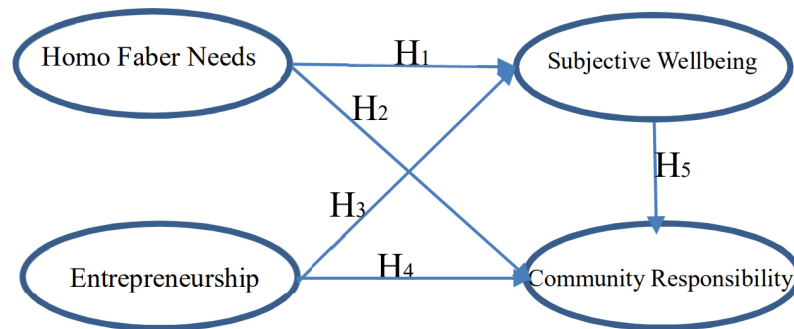
The discussion about the act of making goes back to one of the representative Greek philosophers, Aristotle who values the act of production utilizing human hands. With Marx who distinguishes humanity from the other animals (1967: 74), we arrive at *homo faber* (man-making), or humanity defined not only by its production of objects but by its use of tools (Stoyanova, 2017). Human beings are born to make objects with either hands or tools and like to it, thus leads to work and play, meaning economic activity and happiness. In this context, this study goes back to the Korean tradition, 'Dure' which is a more than 500-year-old collectivistic culture as well as a collaborative laboring activity working together to complete amount of works in local communities based on trust and cooperation (Joo, Choi, & Kim, 2018).

This study suggests that Korean maker movement revive Dure spirits, as a core value in the 4th industrial revolution age, with Dure Movement or Culture in Korea.

Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism has tried to actualize sustainable community by applying "Tour-Dure project" into local community since 2013, focusing on creating both social and economic values as well as improvement of the quality of life in local communities. In the context that "Tour-Dure project" combines the concept of traditional collaborative local community in Korea called "Dure" into local tourism businesses (Kim, Choi, & Kim, 2018). The maker movement, especially arts and crafts movement, can contribute to the diversification of local tourism in a destination by developing goods to buy, providing experience tourism products, and utilizing local resources either tangible or intangible. The origin of maker movement and community-based tourism has a community-based, socially-driven bottom up movement in common (Millard, et al, 2018). Thus, this study explores the effects of Homo Faber needs and entrepreneurship on Homo Faber subjective wellbeing(happiness) and community responsibility at a local community level and tests a structural model among the latent variables. Ultimately the potential of craftsmen to absorb into the Tour-Dure will be reviewed later in a follow-up study.

METHOD

The purpose of this study aims to investigate structural relationships among *Homo Faber* needs, entrepreneurship, subjective wellbeing and community responsibility. Additionally, a moderate effect of collectivism between latent variables utilizing a multi-group analysis. The research model as shown in <Figure 1> proposes five hypotheses.



<Figure 1> Research model

Research hypotheses constructed in the above research model are as follows:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Homo Faber needs have a positive effect on subjective wellbeing.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Homo Faber spirit has a positive effect on community responsibility.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Homo Faber entrepreneurship has a positive effect on subjective wellbeing.

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Homo Faber entrepreneurship has a positive effect on community responsibility.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): Homo Faber subjective wellbeing has a positive effect on community responsibility.

This study utilized operational definitions for needs from Maslow (1987)'s five needs and for other latent variables including Homo Faber entrepreneurship, consisting of innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, and social value orientation and community responsibility based on

the reviewed literature (Jang, 2014). This study conducted on-site survey and collected valid sample of 308 from handcraft men (137 in Seoul, 171 in Busan) who attended Hand Made Fair 2018 held in Seoul (5.24~5.27) and Busan (7.6~7.8), Korea. The data were analyzed utilizing SPSS 18.0 and AMOS 18.0 to test the five hypotheses. According to exploratory factor analyses for the measurement variables, four factors of Maslow Needs (physiological, social, esteem, self-actualization), a second-order factor 'Homo Faber entrepreneurship' consisting of innovativeness, risk-taking, social value orientation, one factor of 'subjective wellbeing' and one factor of 'community responsibility' were drawn, respectively

FINDINGS

The findings show that the eleven hypotheses were partially accepted as in <Table 1>

Table 1. Hypotheses Results

Hypotheses	Paths	Path Coefficient	t-value	Result
H1-1	Physiological needs-> Subjective Wellbeing	.010	.167	Rejected
H1-2	Social needs-> Subjective Wellbeing	-.131	-1.414	Rejected
H1-3	Esteem needs-> Subjective Wellbeing	-.049	-.593	Rejected
H1-4	Self-actualization-> Subjective Wellbeing	.399	5.093**	Accepted
H2-1	Physiological needs-> Community Responsibility	-.048	-.884	Rejected
H2-2	Social needs-> Community Responsibility	-.022	-.271	Rejected
H2-3	Esteem needs-> Community Responsibility	.074	.997	Rejected
H2-4	Self-actualization-> Community Responsibility	.079	1.087	Rejected
H3	Entrepreneurship-> Subjective Wellbeing	.422	3.952**	Accepted
H4	Entrepreneurship -> Community Responsibility	.201	2.045*	Accepted
H5	Subjective Wellbeing-> Community Responsibility	.545	7.178**	Accepted

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

Additionally, this study performed a mediating role of subjective wellbeing and a moderating role of 'collectivism'. Subjective wellbeing played mediating roles between self-actualization and community responsibility as well as between Homo Faber entrepreneurship and community responsibility. It was also found that there was a significant difference between higher collectivists and lower collectivists in the path coefficient of self-actualization and subjective wellbeing.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

The results indicate that self-actualization of *Homo Faber* needs and entrepreneurship positively influence subjective wellbeing and community responsibility. There shows a significant relationship between subjective wellbeing and community responsibility. The results of this study provides implications for both academics and practitioners in terms of identifying *Homo Faber* needs and entrepreneurship influencing subjective wellbeing and community responsibility. Whoever individual *Homo Faber* is, whether he or she is a hobbyist, enthusiast, artist or student, amateur is, each must be integrated into a sense of community providing community responsibility and social values. Finally, this study will suggest that the craftsmen be absorbed into the tourism Dure in the community

to improve their quality of life as well as enhance the community sustainability.

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UNDERSTANDING THE ENGLISH OF THAI VISITORS: MATERIAL DEVELOPMENTS IN THAI ENGLISH FOR LEARNERS IN JAPAN'S HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

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INTRODUCTION

This study is a completion report of the material development project (2016–2018) featuring the variation of English spoken by Thai native speakers (ThaiE), which has been designed specifically for learners within Japan's hospitality industry.

ELF Communication with Thai visitors

The number of foreign visitors to Japan reached 31 million in 2018 (JNTO, 2018). In terms of their language backgrounds, Chinese speakers constitute 50%, Korean speakers 25%, followed by Thai speakers at 3.7% (or 1.1 million). Such recent trends in the inbound tourist population raise issues regarding communication in English as the *lingua franca* (ELF) between non-native service providers and non-native customers. The ThaiE-speaking population in particular has remained relatively unknown until recently, and the distinctive characteristics of Thai English (Takeshita, 2002) could cause difficulties in communication with non-ThaiE speakers. In the East/Southeast Asian region including Japan and Thailand, American English has been mainly learned as a norm, which has been self-evident from the strong influence of American English. This accords with the account of the expanding circle of Braj Kachru's World Englishes (WE), in which non-native English variations should be norm-dependent on Inner or Outer-circle English(es) (Kachru, 1985). However, this strong Inner-circle English ideology no longer accounts for the reality of ELF communication. Rather, it is making it more difficult to achieve ELF communication between ThaiE speakers and JapaneseE speakers since they are learning only American English, which is equally far from each

other's respective English variation. This project was launched with the sincere belief that it is necessary to solve this issue from the viewpoint of equality among the speakers of various English variations and thereby promote efficiency in communication among them.

Theoretical Background

The project is based on the perspective that "any English variation is equivalent before the goal of achieving mutual understanding." It partly shares with current theories of English as an international language (EIL) that asserted the equality of native speaker's English and non-native speaker's English (Smith, 1983; McKay, 2002). In addition, this project incorporates the discipline of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) that focuses on the specific needs of the language learners (Dudley-Evans, 1998; Hutchinson and Walters, 1987). Although ThaiE has been categorized as essentially exo-normative in terms of Kachru's framework of WE, this research is distinguished in legitimizing ThaiE to be a learning target for a discourse community, which is comprised of tourism workers in Japan. Their common objective is to achieve more effective ELF communication with their Thai customers.

METHOD/MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The aim of the project

1. To identify characteristics of ThaiE that JapaneseE users seem to have difficulty in listening to.
2. To create self-taught listening materials for ThaiE learning, specifically geared toward English communication in Japan's inbound tourism settings.

It should emphasize the functional aspect of ELF that gives top priority to successful communication. In other words, even if there is “deviation” or “misuse” from the normative English in the study target, it is excluded from the learning material as long as JapaneseE shares it to some extent.

Phase1: Identifying learning needs of ThaiE (2016–2017)

The interview with the hotel staff confirmed learning needs of the expanding circle varieties found in inbound tourism settings. It is also suggested that the potential learning needs for ThaiE are particularly high given its lower frequency contact opportunities compared with Chinese/Korean English. The result of the surveys on Japanese English learners’ attitudes to accented English(es) supported the analysis of previous studies in that ThaiE was less familiar to them, as well as less intelligible and comprehensible than other non-native varieties of English (Hashimoto, 2017; Miyamoto & Watanabe, 2016; 2017). Thus, there is a need to establish familiarity with ThaiE as a learning target to ensure better ELF interaction between Thai visitors and Japanese service providers.

Phase2: Evaluation of pilot material (2017–2018)

As an initial implementation phase of the material development project, prototype ThaiE material was prepared for formative evaluation. The material was provided in paper-based format, focusing on the selected characteristics of the prosody and intonation of ThaiE, which Japanese English speakers would be most likely to find difficult to understand. Its effectiveness was evaluated by examining the change in the percentage of correct answers to three listening comprehension tests, as well as post-class interviews. It was confirmed that attentive listening to ThaiE (followed by a systematic explanation of how it is pronounced) increased in learners’ favorable attitude toward ThaiE. In addition, the lecture seems to have strengthened their viewpoint enabling them to more

fully appreciate the functional aspects of English as a *lingua franca*. Furthermore, the lecture and exercise seemed to increase awareness of EIL, and encourage the avoidance of Inner-circle English(es) as a criterion of value judgment. This supports the EIL perspective that argues any English variant must be respected as equivalent prior to the goal of achieving mutual understanding (Miyamoto & Watanabe, 2018a; 2018b). The pilot class also suggested online materials be more efficient than paper-based materials for the learners with varied proficiencies in English.

DESCRIPTION OF THE MATERIAL

Title: *Understanding the English of Thai Visitors*

The structure:

- 1) “Why do we learn Thai English?” (an introductory lecture on ThaiE)
 - English as a lingua franca as a key concept in delivering hospitality
 - English education in Thailand and Japan as an Expanding-circle
 - The selected characteristics of the prosody and intonation of ThaiE
 - The differences from Japanese English
 -
- 2) Situation-based Listening Exercise (20 lessons)
 - Learner’s situation as a member of hospitality staff
 - Listen to a Thai customer’s statement
 - Quiz 1: Check your understanding
 - Quiz 2: Respond to the customer
 - Explanation
 - Further listening exercise of related vocabulary
- 3) Review
 - Audio material: read by two Thai narrators (one female, one male)
 - Material format: E-learning content at Articulate Storyline3 (<https://articulate.com/p/storyline-3>)

Understanding the customer's intention 3/8

Quiz 1) What's the customer's intention?

Check the answer

「部屋を予約したい。」

Checking what the customer said 5/8

Quiz 2) Respond to the customer.

a) Please let me check.

b) I'll be right with you.

c) I'm sorry, but we cannot confirm it.

Key to a successful communication 6/8

- 予約に不可欠な(年)・月・日をしっかりと聞き取りましょう。月日の英語の言い方ですが、米語では7月6日は"July sixth", 英語では"July the sixth", 又は"The sixth of July"が一般的です。タイ人のお客様は自分が習った表現を使用します。
- 電話対応の場合、文字に書いてもらうことができません。聞き取れなかった場合や理解する場合には、
"Could you say it again?"
(もう一度おっしゃっていただけますか。)
"Let me confirm your reservation."
(ご予約を確認させていただきます。)
と書かなくてはなりません。

Listening exercise 7/8

日付を聞いて正しい数字で書き取りましょう。

1.	Answer	February eleventh 2月11日
2.	Answer	May thirtieth 5月30日
3.	Answer	June fourteenth 6月14日
4.	Answer	September third 9月3日
5.	Answer	November twelfth 11月12日

Figures 1. Excerpts from Lesson1 of the material

CONCLUSION

This research, from the EIL perspective, clearly divided the intersection of WE, ELF, and ESP theories into learning objects and we called it "EIL-based ESP." It is distinguished in providing an environment within which students are able to learn intensively the characteristics of a specific non-native English variety. In turn, this gives means to legitimize Expanding-circle Englishes as an object of intensive study. Such authorization to Expanding-circle English(es) has not previously existed in the WE theory. Since it is hoped it will promote positive change in the perception of English learners in Japan toward their own English variety, it is therefore considered significant to present the theoretical framework of "EIL-based ESP" as a valid contribution to the research literature. It is important to note, again, that EIL-based ESP should be applied to the learners in specific discourse communities. Although this material should prompt further evaluation in terms of appropriateness and quantity, it is hoped that it will eventually make significant contribution to the optimization of communications within the tourism industry.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-EFFICACY AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) AMONG TOUR GUIDES

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INTRODUCTION

Bandura's social cognitive theory proposed in 1977 led to the development of the concept of self-efficacy, which refers to how people view their ability to carry out actions needed in certain situations. A central proposition of social cognitive theory is that self-efficacy is a key determinant of successful performance and plays a critical role in affecting an individual's motivation and behavior. In other words, how people view their ability to attain their goals has an effect on individual cognitive and behavioral reaction. Bandura (1997) also found that high levels of self-efficacy enable people to better deal with difficult situations and tasks, feel less disturbed by them, and experience less strain and depression, leading to successful task completion. On the other hand, when people have low levels of self-efficacy they will feel less able to cope with difficult situations and tasks, will dwell more on obstacles and their own deficiencies, and as a result will experience more strain and depression. This loss of confidence in their capabilities causes discouragement and failure. While considerable evidence of the importance of self-efficacy has been acknowledged, further to its implications for job performance or life quality, the importance of self-efficacy to people's work-related variables has been most comprehensively examined in the context of different work-related outcomes in management and academics. These associations have been demonstrated by many studies, such as recent research by Kraut et al. (2016) and Dixon et al. (2014) among teachers.

Emotional Intelligence (EI), a term first coined by Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 1990, is described as "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" (p. 189). Furthermore,

Mayer and Salovey (1997) explain EI as the ability to perceive emotions, assimilate feelings related to emotions, understand what emotions mean, and manage emotions effectively. In 1995, the concept of EI became popular in the business community and among the general public after the publication of Daniel Goleman's New York Times bestseller *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. The author explains that Intelligence Quotient (IQ) is considered to account for approximately 20% of the factors that determine life success, and he argues that EI can account for the remaining factors. EI can thus be considered a significant factor in success at home, at work, and in the school. In the three decades since its publication, the usefulness of the EI construct has led researchers to examine its potency in various aspects of human functioning in the work environment. Numerous studies have found that EI is associated with a number of positive outcomes in the workplace and interpersonal relationships. According to these findings, individuals with high EI tend to be well-adjusted, skilled at assessing different contexts, capable of using emotions to guide thoughts and actions, and adept at reflecting on their emotions to bring about personal and intellectual growth (Goleman, 1998; Wong & Law, 2002; Min, 2014).

To date, the research has shown a clear relationship between emotions and self-efficacy. Emotions are characterized by their ability to motivate and regulate actions, as well as to facilitate the assessment and implementation of specific goals or tasks (Min, 2014; Jiang, 2014). Such regulation and control of emotions is a useful skill for all people. According to Bedwell (2002), emotions may have an effect on how people make decisions, solve problems, interact with others, and use creativity in work settings. The use of emotions in these areas is consistent with the behaviors related to self-efficacy. In this view, EI can be seen as a set

of abilities that relate closely to motivation.

In recent decades, several studies have found that those with high EI tend to better organize thoughts and emotions during times of stress, which results in more positive outlooks and enhanced abilities to adapt to challenging situations and solve problems effectively and confidently (Min, 2014). These characteristics comprise a sense of self-efficacy, which makes it possible for people to successfully complete tasks. Numerous studies of the workplace have provided evidence that EI skills can enhance the efficacy and productivity of employees, which results in greater commitment and increased overall efficiency in the organization (Chan, 2004; Tabatabaei, Jashani, Mataji, & Afsar, 2013)

Although evidence for the relationship between EI and workers' self-efficacy is supported, there has been no investigation of the relationship between them among tour guides, who act as intermediaries between tourists and an unfamiliar environment and significantly influence tourists' impressions of a destination. In particular, Taiwan's government has implemented policies to improve inbound tourism in recent years. Therefore, with such an important role to play in people's success, it is of interest to know how tour guides' self-efficacy is influenced by other crucial variables, such as EI. In addition, research has identified that the competencies of EI can be learned and enhanced through proper training techniques (Goleman, 1998). Once learned, the abilities of EI and self-efficacy can be improved, which in turn allows an individual to become more confident in successfully completing tasks when faced with challenging situations, resulting in an increase in one's positive mind set.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to individuals' levels of confidence in their ability to execute a course of action or achieve specific performance outcomes (Bandura, 1997). People who have high self-efficacy will believe in their ability to perform a specific task, and this results in greater perseverance, better flexibility at coping with challenges, and an enhanced feeling of self-accomplishment. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy will have

less confidence in their ability to perform a specific task, which results in them giving up prematurely and thus failing at higher rates.

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

There are two main conceptualizations of EI: the ability-based and the trait-based (or mixed) models. The ability-based model, conceived by Salovey and Mayer, views EI as a form of pure intelligence; put simply, EI involves a person's ability to reason about emotions and to process emotional information in order to regulate behavior. This model involves three mental processes: (a) the appraisal and expression of emotions in oneself and others, (b) the regulation of emotion in oneself and others, and (c) the utilization of emotions to facilitate thought. The model further divided these processes into subcomponents. Although the ability-based model is a somewhat general view of EI, it also takes into account individual differences in mental processes and abilities (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Salovey, 1993).

Goleman (1995, 1998) and Bar-On (1997) proposed the trait-based model, which views EI as a mixed form of intelligence, consisting of cognitive ability and personality aspects. Goleman expanded upon Salovey and Mayer's model by incorporating what he describes as personal and social competencies. In Goleman's model, EI consists of five variables which are categorized in two dimensions: personal competencies (self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation) and social competencies (empathy and social skills). Bar-On (1997) built on this model, conceptualizing EI as a non-cognitive ability involving five broad skill areas which people can use to more effectively deal with environmental demands and pressures: *intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood*. However, unlike Bar-On's model, Goleman's model is more focused on how workplace success can be determined by cognitive and personality factors.

EI and Self-efficacy

Past research on the relationship between EI and self-efficacy has examined this issue in great depth. For instance, Walter et al. (2015) researched the academic self-efficacy of Israeli students who were at risk for attrition in higher . The results found that courses could effectively promote the

development of EI, enhance students' sense of academic self-efficacy, and enable them to use coping strategies in a way to reduce attrition rates. Chan (2004) investigated the role of perceived EI and self-efficacy among secondary school teachers, with the finding that EI was an effective measure for predicting self-efficacy toward helping others. A study by Idrus, Alhabji, Al Musadieq, and Utami (2015) looked at tour guides' burnout from the perspectives of psychological empowerment. Their finding that self-efficacy has a significant positive effect on EI stood in contrast to previous research, though it should be noted that their study lacked a literature review.

METHODOLOGY

This study involves collecting and analyzing quantitative data in order to assess the relationships among self-efficacy and EI among the tour guide population. Two self-report instruments using a 5-point Likert scale were adopted to assess the relationship between the variables. The measurements include Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (2002) and the Chinese version of the General Self-Efficacy Scale developed by Schwarzer, and Jerusalem (1995). The scale of WLEIS consists of four dimensions containing four items each, and this scale is used to assess individuals' knowledge about their own emotional capacities. The dimensions included in this scale are Self-Emotion Appraisal (SEA), Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA), Regulation of Emotion (ROE), and Use of Emotion (UOE). Therefore, the research hypotheses are:

H1: A higher level of Self-Emotion Appraisal is associated with a higher level of self-efficacy among tour guides.

H2: A higher level of Others' Emotion

Appraisal is associated with a higher level of self-efficacy among tour guides.

H3: A higher level of Regulation of Emotion is associated with a higher level of self-efficacy among tour guides.

H4: A higher level of Use of Emotion is associated with a higher level of self-efficacy among tour guides.

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

A total of 500 surveys were distributed, and the profiles of the respondents are shown in Table 1. The usable cases consisted of 234 males (56.7%) and 179 females (43.3%), which is an accurate reflection of the gender proportions of Taiwan's tour guide population (59% : 41%) (Tourism Bureau, 2018). The majority of respondents were over 40 years old (81.6%), and more than half of the respondents (70.7%) were university graduates (47.9% undergraduate; 22.8% postgraduate). Regarding marital status, 63.9% were married, 32.7% were single, and 3.4% were divorced or widowed. Most (62.3%) respondents had worked as a tour guide for less than 10 years. The most common language used was Mandarin Chinese (70.7%), while fifty-five tour guides (13.3%) indicated that they used more than one language.

The collected data were analysed using SPSS 20.0 and SmartPLS 3.2.4 for Windows. The reliability coefficients, means, standard deviations, and the intercorrelations amongst the various measures and the subscales are shown in Table 2. The Cronbach alphas, ranging from 0.818 to 0.911, indicate that internal consistency exists. In terms of intercorrelations, there were significant correlations amongst all the dimensions. Table 2 also revealed, as expected, that tour guides' tour dimensions of EI were positively and significantly related to self-efficacy.

Table 1. Demographic profile of respondents

	Frequency (<i>N</i> =413)	%
<i>Gender</i>		
male	234	56.7
female	179	43.3
<i>Age group</i>		
20~29 years	28	6.8
30~39 years	48	11.6
40~49 years	99	24.0
50~59 years	171	41.4
60 years and above	67	16.2
<i>Education</i>		
vocational school	33	8.0
college	88	21.3
university	198	47.9
postgraduate	94	22.8
<i>Marital status</i>		
single	264	63.9
married	135	32.7
divorced or windowed	14	3.4
<i>Language</i>		
Chinese	293	70.7
English	39	9.4
Japanese	13	3.1
others	14	3.4
more than one language	55	13.3
<i>Work experience</i>		
under 1 years	71	17.2
1-9 years	269	65.1
10-19 years	51	12.3
20-29 years	13	3.1
30-39 years	6	1.5
40 years above	3	0.7

The collected data were analysed using SPSS 20.0 and SmartPLS 3.2.4 for Windows. The reliability coefficients, means, standard deviations, and the intercorrelations amongst the various measures and the subscales are shown in Table 2. The Cronbach alphas, ranging from 0.818 to 0.911, indicate that internal consistency exists. In terms of intercorrelations, there were significant correlations amongst all the dimensions. Table 2 also revealed, as expected, that tour guides' tour dimensions of EI were positively and significantly related to self-efficacy.

Assessment of Measurement Model and Hypotheses Testing

The indicators of goodness of fit are comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.974, normed fit

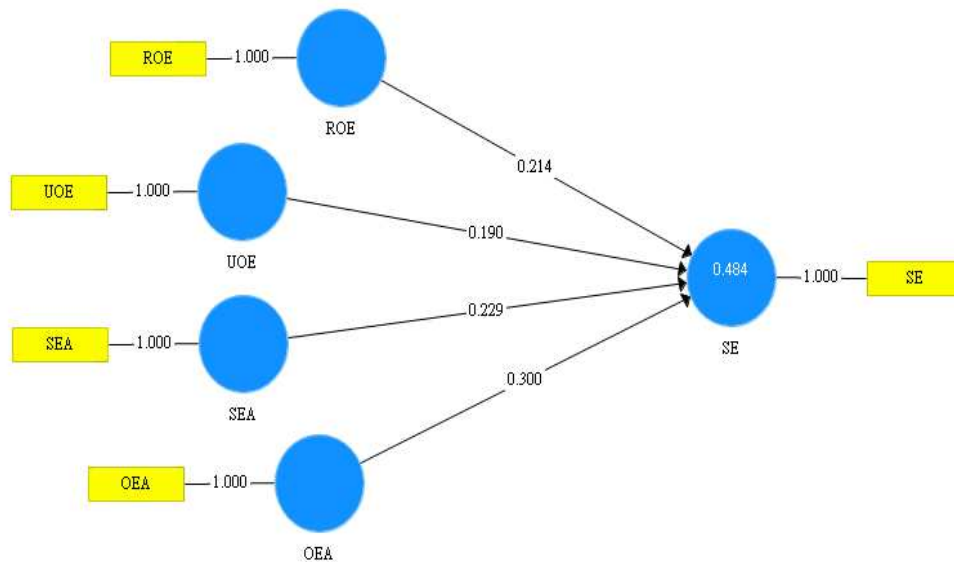
index (NFI) = 0.960, Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.971 (acceptably ≥ 0.90), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.064 (acceptably ≤ 0.08). Based on the results, all of the model-fit indices exceeded the common acceptance levels, thus demonstrating that the hypothesized model fits the empirical data well.

The present study tested four hypotheses through SEM in the developed research model. The structural paths were estimated to examine the hypothesised relationships among independent and dependent variables, graphically displayed as Figure 1. The observed variables are enclosed in squares, and the latent variables are enclosed in circles. A one-way path between constructs is indicative of a hypothesised direct effect of one construct on another.

Table 2. Pearson correlation, means, standard deviations, and Cronbach Alpha reliability among model variables

	SE	SEA	ROE	UOE	OEA	Cronbach's Alpha
SE	1.000	.481***	.536***	.474***	.558***	0.911
SEA		1.000	.432***	.333***	.403***	0.868
ROE			1.000	.397***	.464***	0.818
UOE				1.000	.351***	0.880
OEA					1.000	0.904
Mean	3.985	4.179	3.890	4.143	3.991	
SD	0.496	0.509	0.609	0.744	0.570	

Note: SEA, Self-Emotion Appraisal; ROE, Regulation of Emotion; UOE, Use of Emotion; OEA, Others' Emotion Appraisal; SE, Self-efficacy, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

**Figure 1. Results of structural equation model**

Within the overall model, the estimates of the structural coefficients provide the basis for testing the proposed hypotheses. Table 3 reports the results of the hypothesis tests, and all paths in the model were significant. The findings fully supported the

hypotheses, and these findings are consistent with the results in previous studies. In addition, the total effect is therefore recognized based on the structural coefficients.

Table 3. Summary of hypothesis testing results

Path	Structural coefficients	SE	t-Value	Test result
ROE→SE	0.214	0.055	3.485**	Support
UOE→SE	0.190	0.057	4.051***	Support
SEA→SE	0.229	0.087	2.460*	Support
OEA→SE	0.300	0.052	5.740***	Support

* $P < .05$, ** $P < .01$, *** $P < .001$

CONCLUSION

Self-efficacy refers to people's beliefs about their ability to perform certain behaviors or deal with environmental demands. As such, it can be seen as the chief construct linking ability to performance. The purpose of the study is to explore the relationships of self-efficacy on four dimensions of EI, including Self-Emotion Appraisal (SEA), ROE, Regulation of Emotion (ROE), Use of Emotion (UOE), and Others' Emotion Appraisal (OEA). The obtained results indicated that self-efficacy and four dimensions of EI were positively correlated; tour guides with higher EI levels reported having more self-efficacy. The results are consistent with previous research showing these relationships for other settings.

Tour guides play an important role in the tourism industry, as they significantly influence tourists' perception of the host destination. Consequently, it is important to devise a strategy for increasing tour guides' competencies of EI because EI abilities can be learned through proper EI training interventions. If so, tour guides can benefit from EI interventions and self-efficacy abilities can be improved, which allows individuals to become more confident in dealing with challenging situations.

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DEVELOPING A GUIDELINE FOR MICE VENUES WHICH ARE IN HARMONY WITH MUSLIM FAITH IN THAILAND

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INTRODUCTION

With an aim to become the 'Tourism Capital of Asia' by 2006, Thailand invested heavily in promoting MICE businesses (TCEB 2013b, 2013c) and turning popular tourist destinations, such as Bangkok and Phuket, into MICE business centres (Campiranon 2006; TCEB 2013a). As MICE is currently Thailand's second-fastest growing sector (Hua & Batra 2015), in one of the country's most prominent industries (Sangpikul & Kim 2009; Kim, Yoon & Kim 2011; TCEB 2018), Thai MICE businesses have gained popularity for a number of reasons. These include the fact that Thailand has unique geographical surroundings and a wide array of traditional cultures (TCEB 2014c), is perceived as providing a safe and hospitable environment, and very good value for money, as well as providing comfortable accessibility (Rogers 2008).

In addition to the general growth that is witnessed in the Thai MICE industry, there is substantial growth within the Islamic MICE market, supported by more general increases in the number of domestic and international Muslim tourists in Thailand (Suwanvijit 2015; Teerakunpisut 2018). Thailand is currently ranked fourth in overseas halal-tourism receipts (8 billion US dollars) and eighteenth in foreign Muslim tourist arrivals (1.3% of world total arrivals), with around three million Muslim leisure tourists expected to visit the country in 2016 (Mansouri 2014). Although not everything in Thailand is halal, which is defined as being part of Islamic principles, covering permissible behaviour, speech, dress, conduct, manner and dietary practices (Karkkainen 2013), the large population of Muslim Thais and growing number of international Muslim travellers has resulted in renewed efforts to cater to the requirements of this group.

The focus of this paper is on the application of Muslim-friendly concept to MICE venues in Thailand and the extent to which it caters to the

Muslim MICE market. It is apparent that MICE is a growing segment in the Thai tourism industry and economy, and Muslim tourists are viewed as one of the most crucial traveller markets within the tourism sector of the country. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to highlight the key issues and challenges that MICE venues are currently facing in providing services and facilities which comply with Islamic principles.

METHODS

The study involved conducting interviews with MICE venue management and key stakeholders in Thailand in order to gauge their opinions on the application of Muslim-friendly amenity concept to MICE venues in Thailand. In order to capture a range of perspectives, interviews were carried out in 12 of the largest MICE venues in six regions in Thailand (Central, Eastern, Western, Northern, North-eastern, and Southern of the country), each of which have been identified as a substantial MICE destination. In total, 28 MICE management were interviewed, alongside 32 key MICE stakeholders. Analysis on the collected data is content analysis.

FINDINGS

During interviews, participants were asked to respond to a series of statements regarding Muslim-friendly venue guidelines. Through this process it became clear that in order to become a fully Muslim-friendly venue, the key MICE stakeholders who are Muslim in this study presented the researcher with a long list of requirements: it should be clean, and have a large, fully equipped prayer room (with a sign pointing to Mecca), situated at the front of the venue and segregated by gender. In addition, there should be several pre-prayer washrooms in close proximity to the prayer rooms, with bidet showers, fresh towels,

toilet slippers etc.; no entertainment (including music); halal food and restaurant, a halal-certified kitchen which includes some Muslim workers, Islamic-approved dress code, no Buddha statues or pre-meeting prayer to Buddha, no alcohol or pork, no dogs, no exhibition models wearing sexy or revealing clothes, separate registration and sitting areas for men and women, as well as separate coaches separated by gender for pre- and post-conference tours. There should also be coach services for Friday prayers, azan to remind Muslims of prayer times, staff with a good understanding of Islam and well-trained to meet Muslim requirements, and male members of staff being allowed to attend the mosque on Fridays.

All MICE venues in this study are located in popular tourist areas, and only one of the 12 venues in the six regions covered in the study come close to meeting all of the above requirements. This could be because the owners are Buddhist, and adopting Muslim-friendly services to meet a number of Muslim requirements will push up venue costs. However, as there is no specific halal standard for hospitality and customer services in the MICE industry, all of the venue management participants (100%) expressed a wish for the establishment of a guideline for MICE services and facilities that align with Islamic values, standards and guidelines. The reason is because this market has potential for the sector offering opportunity for MICE growth.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The current paper focuses on the perspectives of MICE venue management and key stakeholders on MICE guidelines for Muslim-friendly. In particular, pinpointing what Muslim MICE stakeholders reflected about Islamic requirements, and examining the willingness of MICE venue management to better serve Muslim customers. There is a limitation for this study. As it analysed data from management team of large and significant MICE venues, as well as key stakeholders in the MICE industry in Thailand. Hence, it may not enough to reflect the impact of adopting MICE guidelines for Muslim-friendly situations.

It is concluded that as the MICE sector in Thailand has the potential to be the preferred destination for Muslim business visitors because of the geographical location of a number of key MICE

venues, with their close proximity to a number of mosques, they will continue to attract Muslim tourists. It is apparent from the comments received that the participants, both venue management and key MICE stakeholders, hold positive opinions about Muslim-friendly venue guidelines. Surprisingly, it is considered to be of particular importance to the venue management who are Buddhist, as it is seen as strongly to capture Muslim business travellers. All of the MICE management participants see the guidelines as contributing greatly to the MICE industry, making it more attractive as a Muslim business travel destination. The result of this study is consistent with Oktadiana, Pearce and Chon (2016), who examined Muslim travellers' needs. Their study found that as the halal market grows, providing amenities that relate to the principles embedded in the Quran, by which many Islamic consumers abide, comes increasingly into focus in a number of non-Muslim majority nations, for example, in Australia, China, Japan and other countries. However, the study emphasised that although it is necessary to offer halal amenities to Muslim clientele, there are a range of provision of services and facilities which are in harmony with Islamic principles available to Islamic customers, and as such there is no particular practice to cater for the needs of Muslims.

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NEW POLICY FRAMEWORK ON RURAL TOURISM IN JAPAN: FEATURES AND CHALLENGES

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INTRODUCTION

Despite rapidly growing inbound tourism in Japan, the benefits of inbound tourism eccentrically accrue in the major cities, which form the main tourism trunk line from Tokyo and through Kyoto to Osaka. Rural areas are, however, still far behind this booming trend and people concerned with rural tourism there are trying to catch up. To narrow this spatial gap between urban and rural areas, the national government launched a new policy framework called “No-haku”, i.e., farm stay program, since 2017 in line with the general framework of tourism promotion in this country. Issues of the conventional rural tourism in Japan were addressed (Ohe, 2008, 2010, 2014, 2016). Nevertheless, this new framework of rural tourism has not been scrutinized despite its wider implications for the similar policy programs in other Asian rural areas as well. Thus, this paper investigates the features, goals and challenges of the new policy framework on rural tourism in Japan. Finally, based on this policy review, the next policy issues to be addressed after this program will be suggested.

METHOD

The author took a policy review approach because the focus of this study was put on the new policy program of rural tourism, “No-haku”, in Japan. First, after briefly overviewing the current tourism trend in Japan, the author characterized the new program mainly from a perspective of economic viability of that activity in comparison with the conventional “green tourism” program. Second, it was discussed what issues are still left for the next policy agenda after “No-haku” as policy implications.

FINDINGS

The policy initiative of this new program,

“No-haku”, was taken by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fishery, Japan (MAFF). This program set a target to attain 500 viable rural tourism units including fishery cases across the country. Although the fishery cases are given another name, “Nagisa-haku”, i.e., fishery house stay, it is under the same program umbrella with “No-haku”. Table 1 characterizes this new program from the comparison with the conventional “green tourism”. The common idea between the two policy programs is that both types are assumed to be always community-based.

It is a novelty for Japan in terms of business management, differing from the conventional “green tourism” in its distinctive shift away from “product-out” to “market-in” rural tourism (Table 1). The product-out type typically focuses on producing goods and services suited to the local area’s resources and capabilities rather than looking at what can attract and serve the market of potential inbound tourists. While this approach is very compatible to the local industry it is often poorly matched to market demand and ends up with low profitability, low opportunity for younger generation involvement and employment, and little more than a source of pocket money for the local elderly.

Of course, it is important to have programs that support Japan’s rapidly ageing society, but it is also important to nurture sustainable rural businesses that future generations feel inspired or compelled to make into careers and livelihoods. In contrast to the product-out type, the market-in type focuses much more on the potential of what inbound tourists demand in the first place. This approach appeals to a much larger market and thus has greater potential to achieve the level of viability that can anchor future generations into a local industry. The market-in type of rural tourism of course requires a wider perspective than the product-out type, which only considers the existing domestic traditions and markets.

In either case, we are well into the era of

Internet marketing, in which social media promotion in multiple languages and well-designed portal websites are practically indispensable. Effective use of these tools can make all the difference between success and failure. How well

government policies support these tools and the transition from product-out to market-in will also make a profound difference and therefore warrants careful study.

Table 1. Comparison of profiles between two rural tourism programs

Item	Previous program	Current program
Type	Product-out	Market-in
Policy program	Green tourism	No-haku and Nagisa-haku
Community-based organization	Private	Corporate
Position of tourism activity	Not always viable	Viable
Market orientation	Unclear	Focused
Profitability	Low	Sustainable
Operators	Women & elderly	Young and middle aged
Goal	Rural-urban exchange and rural revitalization	Establishment of sustainable rural business
Target market	Domestic	Domestic + international

Source: Author's sorting out

CONCLUSION

The new program puts particular emphasis on the viability of rural tourism activity, which was not always explicitly stressed in the conventional program while the conventional program more look at the exchange of people between urban and rural areas. This change of goal setting is desirable to attract young generation to enter this rural business as a viable measure to support their family, which will lead to revitalize rural areas eventually. For this this purpose, it is curial 500 viable activity units becomes really viable after the program support. In this context, Capability building of rural entrepreneurship becomes more important in the future, which will be the next policy agenda after "No-haku" program. Thus, further research is needed on how the community-based activity becomes comparative with rural entrepreneurship.

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SHORT-TERM RENTAL: DISRUPTIVELY INNOVATIVE OR DISTURBINGLY ANNOYING FOR RESIDENTS?

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INTRODUCTION

Online platform businesses that link consumers to rent underutilized assets have proliferated for various products and services in recent years. Many names exist to refer to this phenomenon such as sharing economy, collaborative consumption, collaborative economy, peer-to-peer consumption, platform capitalism, or platform economy (e.g., Acquier, Daudigeos, & Pinkse, 2017; Langley & Leyshon, 2017).

Short-term rental (STR) in the residential area (i.e., leasing or renting housing units to tourist for less than 30 days), is another example, enabled by for-profit online platform middlemen businesses such as Airbnb, HomeAway, and Flipkey. While STR has increased visitor arrivals by growing the accommodation capacity of tourism destinations by giving travelers access to residents' homes at lower prices than hotels, it has been an ongoing controversy for the resident's lives in many destinations, in terms of its negative impacts on the destination's housing shortage, economic inequality, and community disturbance (e.g., Geminiani & DeLuca, 2018). This implies that STR can pose a serious threat to the sustainability of tourism for the destination – the long-term vitality of economic, environmental, and social well-being -- of residents, one of the critical tourism stakeholders.

Nonetheless, there is limited empirical research on the impacts of STR on the residents' lives from their perspective, beyond some anecdotes in the media, especially in the context of the sustainability of tourism. Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine how the residents of a tourism destination perceive the impacts of STR in their community and how those perceptions are related to their overall sentiment toward tourism impacts. Hawaii was chosen for a few important reasons that challenge the sustainability of tourism: 1) the

enforcement of the existing regulations has been limited for the burgeoning STR inventory; and 2) the sentiment of Hawaii residents about tourism impacts is becoming negative (Hawaii Tourism Authority, 2017).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Empirical evidence in various destinations around the world has shown that STR, mainly by Airbnb, increased property value, exacerbating the global housing shortage crisis, for instance, in New York City (Sheppard & Udell, 2016) and in Sydney and Melbourne, Australia (Alizadeh, Farid, & Sarkar, 2018). Wachsmuth and Weisler (2018) call phenomenon "Airbnb-induced gentrification" whereby the number of houses listed on Airbnb is positively associated with the increase in housing price.

A closely related impact is the increase in long-term rent for residents, causing a housing shortage for residents due to the fact it is more profitable for homeowners and investors to rent shortly to visitors than renting for a long-term to residents. Evidence of this has been found in many cities in the U.S. such as in New York City (Wachsmuth & Weisler, 2018) as well as San Francisco (The San Francisco Chronicle, 2014). This effect was also found in other parts of the world such as in Berlin, Germany (Schäfer & Braun, 2016). As a result, housing availability and affordability for residents has been declining, leading to residents' "collective displacement" (Cocola-Gant, 2016, p. 1).

These negative impacts were also observed in Hawaii (Geminiani & DeLuca, 2018). According to Hawaii Tourism Authority (2017), there were 23,000 vacation rental units in 2017, an increase from 17,000 in 2015 which were listed on Airbnb, HomeAway, and TripAdvisor. This indicates that

1 in 24 housing units in the state of Hawaii are STR units, while it is 1 in 8 homes on Kauai and 1 in 7 on Maui. However, the majority of these STR units in Hawaii are illegal. For example, there are fewer than 800 permits for STR on Oahu, but approximately 8,000 STR are listed on Airbnb and 2,260 on Expedia.com, as of January 1, 2019. Also, the 2018 study by the Hawaii Appleseed Center for Law and Economic Justice (Geminiani & DeLuca, 2018) reported that only 0.03% (300 of 9,000) of STR on Maui are legal, and “up to 93 percent of them are for entire homes rather than the rent-out-a-room image purveyed by the vacation rental unit industry” (p. 7). Given the lack of housing for residents in Hawaii and rising rent rates, Geminiani and DeLuca (2018) argued that the proliferation of STR units may have worsened the resident’s housing crisis situation, and concluded, “the current state of vacation rental units in Hawaii is not... balanced and sustainable” (p. 12).

Moreover, in contrast to some claims and hopes that sharing economy or collaborative consumption is more inclusive, democratic, and distributive (e.g., Botsman & Rogers, 2010), empirical studies have found the increase of economic inequality of platform businesses. For instance, Schor (2017) found that providers of for-profit platforms such as Airbnb had high-paying full-time jobs and had a high education level. Airbnb was not found to be racially inclusive, either, by Kakar, Voelz, Wu, and Franco (2018) who found that the listing prices on Airbnb in San Francisco were lower for Hispanic (by 9.6%) and Asian hosts (by 9.3%).

While STR platforms such as Airbnb has been embraced by some landlords and investors, residents of a number of tourist destinations have felt left out of the economic windfall. For example, it was reported in a recent article on Airbnb in Hawaii that “Maui residents lashed out against operators of Airbnb and others in November by voting to impose tough penalties on illegal vacation rentals” (Yerton, 2019). A crackdown appears to be looming on Oahu where STR units are growing rampantly in some neighborhoods (SMS Research & Marketing Services, 2014). One of the main issues in Hawaii is that more than half (52% of 23,000 STR units in Hawaii in 2017) are owned by nonresidents (Geminiani & DeLuca, 2018) who are “mainly investors who reap the benefits [of the

lowest property tax rate in the U.S.]” (SMS Research & Marketing Services, 2016, p. 2). Geminiani & DeLuca (2018) argued, “vacation rentals are proliferating rapidly because of the incredible profit-making opportunities they provide.” (p. 1).

Although there is limited empirical research about the impact of STR on the resident’s lives from their own perspective, the media have reported many anecdotes in various destinations. Examples of the negative impacts include loss of or undesirable changes in the community, unruly tourist behavior, increased traffic, and crowding (Grover, Glasser, & Sullivan, 2017; Litten, 2016; O’Sullivan, 2014). For example, in New York City, “there is evidence that it contributes to rising rent levels and exacerbates grimly predictable social divisions... (Harris, 2018, p. p.1).” Similarly, in Amsterdam, the Netherlands, “neighborhood businesses that create ties between residents are replaced by businesses that only focus on tourists... And apartments that are continuously rented out to tourists are lost to people who want to actually live here.” (van der Zee, 2016, p. 1). Disturbances in the residential neighborhoods have been reported in Edinburgh, Scotland, as well, where a resident expressed, “It transforms the way you feel about home” (Harris, 2018, p. 1).”

Accordingly, some residents have expressed their resentment through protests, for example, in Barcelona, Spain (O’Sullivan, 2014), or through social media #BoycottAirbnb which sparked the advertisement, “Who pays for your holiday?” which was posted around Berlin, Germany (Voigt, 2016). Moreover, residents of many cities who have not been displaced by the invasion of STR are pushing back changes and enforcement to laws. In Maui county, Hawaii, for example, the residents voted and approved two amendments to try to stop the invasion of illegal vacation rentals and the decreasing number of available rental housing units for residents. They also agreed to increase “the penalty for the operation of a transient accommodation without a valid permit up to \$20,000 plus a \$10,000-per-day fine for each day the unlawful operation continues” (The Maui News, 2018). The hefty increase in penalties for illegal vacation rentals of 20 times and 10 times, respectively, demonstrates the frustration that the housing shortage is having on the Maui residents.

METHOD

Data will be collected on Oahu, Hawaii, where 15- 20 residents will be interviewed face-to-face. The interviewees will be recruited using snowballing method, given that the impact would be most significant in the communities where STR units are concentrated. In order to gather the interviewees' deeper perceptions of the impacts of STR in their neighborhood and communities, interviews will be conducted with mainly open-ended questions.

IMPLICATIONS or CONCLUSION

Residents in tourism destinations are one of the key stakeholders of tourism. When tourism accounts for a large portion of the destination economy, such as in Hawaii, many of residents' lives depend on and are influenced by the tourism industry. Although their support, participation, and perceptions, are critical to the overall sustainability of tourism, little is known about their perspectives in Hawaii, beyond anecdotes in the media. Thus, the findings of this study will shed important light on Hawaii resident perceptions of STR, which will be valuable for policy makers and residents to help understand and resolve the controversial issues of STR and the Hawaii residents' rising negative sentiments toward tourism.

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THE SUSTAINABILITY OF COSTA RICA TOURISM: PERCEPTIONS OF THE RESIDENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism in Costa Rica has experienced rapid growth in visitor arrivals along with increasing levels of development for the country. As one of the most developed tourism markets in Central America, the Costa Rica brand as a tourism destination has extended to the global market that has attracted international tourists and globally recognized hospitality companies. With an increasing direction in the development of the luxury tourism sector, new opportunities and challenges exist from infrastructure to inclusion of the local residents. Participation among residents are important to the long-term success of any tourism destination and Costa Rica has an opportunity to gain strategic advantages among the talents of the resident population and inclusion in the workforce that represents the spirit of the Costa Rica and its unique culture. This study will examine the local resident perception of tourism development in Costa Rica.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In an increasingly competitive market, Costa Rica requires a unique positioning to build a strategic advantage in order to compete as a world class tourism destination over the long-run. The total 2017 contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) for travel and tourism in Costa Rica was USD 7.0 billion (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2018) with over 2,959,869 arrivals (Institute Costa Rica, 2018) and an estimated growth of 4.5% for the 2018 year end (Costa Rica Tourism Report, 2018). An alternative approach to mass tourism is one direction that Costa Rica can differentiate its product with purposeful planning and management. Alternative

tourism is typically smaller-scale tourism that is often comprised of associated sustainable practices (Weaver, 1999). Smaller-scale tourism, particularly in rural areas can help to foster self-esteem, solidarity, pride, and the inclusion of disadvantaged populations in the workforce through employment opportunities (Jackiewicz, 2005).

With an increasing number of cultural travelers extending their visits to participate in a cultural or historical activity, it is often the main and differentiating factor for selecting a desired destination. Many tourists today are seeking new cultural experiences in an exotic destination or unspoiled area (Albieri & Agrusa 2005). Visitor experiences can be significantly enriched by sharing common values and beliefs learned from their visit to local areas and exchanges with residents. Benefits from mutual exchanges within the tourism experience can provide additional motivation for local residents to participate in tourism activities and exchanges while the visitor may also have the opportunity for an enriched perspective of oneself or among a wider world view (Butler & Hinch 1996; Craik 1997; Derrett, 2000; Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Inskeep 1991; Kirschenblatt-Gimblett, 1998; Pearce, Moscardo & Ross 1996).

Cultural and ecological tourism has been supported by Costa Rican officials for economic development and to foster sustainable approaches (Seidl, Guiliano, & Pratt, 2007). The national park system and protected areas of Costa Rica represent over 25% of the country and particularly along the interior mountains and coast lines (Bristow, Yang, & Lu, 2011). While the wide spread success of tourism has emerged with major economic benefits existing, other challenges highlight an increasing disparity of economic opportunities that exist in the Costa Rica tourism industry. For example,

comparing areas with tourism related industries to those regions that do not have involvement with tourism or have limited involvement with the tourism industry results are minimal economic benefits to these regions without tourism and the discrepancies in benefits are evident. Although in some regions the local economy is primarily agriculture, many of the rural farmers located farther away from the central tourist locales, receive limited economic opportunities generated by tourism activities with non-tourist areas having inadequate levels of development and economic advantages (Zone & Farthing, 2007). The further away from the hub of tourism activities, the sentiment among locals is viewed as distant and detached with the extent of tourism shaping perceptions and understandings of immediate local concerns being of primary importance (Robinson & Meaton, 2005). Stakeholders in Costa Rica are challenged to develop planning that can provide growth and repeat visitation among tourists with a differentiated tourism product to remain competitive yet sustainable for the future (Kubickova & Li, 2017).

METHOD

The data for this research project was collected by survey from residents of Costa Rica. The 21 question survey instrument was written in English and then translated into Spanish, the resident language in Costa Rica. A double translation method or back translation was utilized to understand the perceptions of the local residents. In terms of reliability, the double translation method is an effective method of translation (Lau & McKercher, 2004; McGorry, 2000).

RESULTS

Some of the results of the study discovered that residents who lived away from major tourist areas believe the government can do more to push or attract tourists to the area where they live. With small scale tourism such as visits to boutique coffee farms, farmers and those in non-tourists' areas can benefit from the influx of tourists to Costa Rica. Some residents believe that not just the areas around the "Beach Resorts" or the capital city "San Jose" should advance financially from tourism, but small pensions and small Bed & Breakfasts on or near

farms or coffee plantations can all benefit from tourism to Costa Rica.

CONCLUSION

Resident concerns about the value of tourism have surged and it is the management of tourism rather than the exclusive size of the visitor base that is at the heart of mitigating community concerns about the industry. The lack of effective management is a root cause of resident dissatisfaction with tourism. Insights into the local resident views on tourism is integral for developing a bottom-up approach to tourism development of which Costa Rica's leadership should take into consideration. With the bottom-up approach, those closest to the tourist have a critical role (through their close proximity to the tourists) with the engagement of positive interactions and to embrace a spirit of hospitality that is essential for tourism destinations today. Planning through the bottom-up approach requires careful examination and inclusion of the local residents. Developing an approach that allows resident participation in the planning stage of tourism development is a complex process where leadership must foster inclusive approaches to build trust and cooperation among diverse stakeholders in the community. When local residents are empowered with opportunities to participate in the future of their community's development along with ownership of the tourism product, the challenges and success with the bottom up approach along with the rewards become more easily evident in the tourism destination. One possibility for the sustainability of Costa Rica's tourism industry may consider an approach that includes distribution of tourists with more inclusion of residents to significantly expand the resources available to effect change.

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RESIDENT ATTITUDES TOWARDS INBOUND TOURISM: A COMPARISON BETWEEN MARKETS

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INTRODUCTION

Resident attitudes towards tourism development and its impacts have been long studied, as understanding residents' support for tourism development is believed to aid tourism policy development (Ap & Zhou, 2009; Presenza & Sheehan, 2013) and to contribute to a more pleasant and satisfying experience for tourists visiting a destination (Carmichael, 2006; Tasci & Kozak, 2006). On the other hand, lack of residents' support for tourism has had commonly negative consequences in practice, such as counter-branding campaigns (Braun, Kavartzis, & Zenker, 2010) and public indignation (Zenker & Petersen, 2010). As such, the issue of properly understanding the level of locals' support for tourism has received much attention in theory and practice (Brida, Disegna, & Osti, 2011). Studies on this topic often focus on variables influencing residents' perception and segmentation of residents based on their perception (Sharpley, 2014).

It is commonly agreed that tourism markets cannot be characterized as homogeneous (Hassan, 2000) as their impacts on a tourist destination are not the same; and destination policies on different markets are neither (Garín-Muñoz, 2006; Valadkhani, & O'Mahony, 2018). Accordingly, locals' support for different inbound markets is likely to vary as well. However, there is a lack of published research comparing residents' support for diverse inbound tourism markets.

Vietnam has emerged as a key tourist destination in South East Asia, mostly attracting backpackers, culture and nature lovers, and sand and sun tourists, but also bringing in long-stay tourism from veterans of the Vietnam War (Nguyen, Nguyen & Nguyen, 2014). The Vietnam tourism industry has achieved remarkable results with over 15 million international arrivals and a growth rate

of 19.9% (VNAT, 2019a). Western Europe and North East Asia are the main inbound markets (VNAT, 2019b). Western Europe is a traditional and stable market for Vietnam since its tourism industry started to develop in the 1990s. China and Korea are the fastest growing, with an up to 50% increasing rate in the last few years (VNAT, 2019b). They are currently the largest markets with approximately 5 million and 3.5 million visitors in 2018, respectively (VNAT, 2019a). This study therefore aims at comparing Vietnamese residents' support for tourism development from Western, Chinese and Korean inbound markets.

METHOD

The instrument for measuring the level of support for tourism development was adapted from a study on local community support for tourism development by Hanafiah, Jamaluddin, and Zulkifly (2013). The measurement scales were adapted, taking the differences between the two studied contexts into consideration. Hence, twelve items were included to measure the level of support for tourism development of the three markets. All items were measured by 7-point Likert scales. In addition to the above constructs, the instrument was designed to ascertain the respondents' basic demographic profile. The questionnaire was originally created in English and subsequently translated into Vietnamese; finally to be reviewed and revised by bilingual tourism scholars of Hue University in Vietnam.

The survey was carried out for two months, November and December 2015. Quota and convenience sampling techniques were applied to collect survey responses from 27 districts across Central Vietnam. A total of 537 valid questionnaires were collected. Analysis of the data was facilitated by IBM SPSS 25.0 and most of the respondents,

i.e. 68.3%, were less than 35 years old. Percentages of gender were 43.5% male and 56.5% female, with 38.4% of the respondents having direct or indirect links to the tourism industry.

FINDINGS

The scales for measuring the level of support for tourism development from three markets were indicated to be valid and reliable with a KMO of 0.941, Bartlett's Test $p=0.000$ and Cronbach alpha values of 0.955, 0.921 and 0.923 respectively for

Chinese, Korean and Western markets. The overall support for each market was then calculated by the mean value of twelve measurement items. It is indicated that Vietnamese residents had highest support for Western market (mean value of 6.11 out of 7-point Likert scale), following by the support for Korean market (mean value of 5.52). Vietnamese residents seemed to show neutral attitude towards Chinese market with the overall support of 4.06 (out of 7-point Likert scale). Paired t-test analyses indicated these differences were significant (as shown in table 1).

Table 1. Comparison of the residents' support for three inbound markets

	Mean (Std. Deviation)	Paired t-test		
		Chinese	Korean	Western
Overall support for Chinese market	4.06 (1.37)	-	-	-
Overall support for Korean market	5.52 (0.88)	23.96***	-	-
Overall support for Western market	6.11 (0.77)	31.37***	17.02***	-

*** $p = 0.000$

T-test and ANOVA analyses were implemented to explore the differences of support for each market among gender, tourism related and age groups. These found significant differences of support level for Korean markets, with females tending to have higher levels of support (5.58 and 5.44, $p = 0.073$). A difference in tourism related groups was only found in terms of support for Western markets; as residents related to tourism tend to have higher level of support (6.25 and 6.01, $p=0.000$). Differences among age groups were also revealed in the support for Chinese and Korean markets. Younger group (18-25) are likely to have a higher level of support for Chinese inbound tourism. The 25-34 group and older than 65 also showed less support for Korean markets, although the differences were rather minor.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study explored the differences of residents' support for diverse inbound tourism markets, taking the case of Vietnamese residents' support for Chinese, Korean and Western markets. The key result was that the residents seemed to have a highest level of support for tourism development of Western market and the lowest for the Chinese

market. These differences in residents' attitude towards diverse markets could be explained by both Social Exchange and Social Representation theories (Wassler, Schuckert, Hung & Petrick, 2018). Western Europe is a long-haul market, yet its modern socio-cultural practices have been important symbols of the new social class in Vietnam (Pham & Richards, 2015). The Korean Wave has had substantial impacts on Vietnam, especially to young people (Dang, 2010). Meanwhile, although Chinese is the largest inbound market in Vietnam, the relationship between China and the Vietnam has been turbulent due to recent unresolved territorial disputes (Dan Tri, 2014). These diverse relations and perceptions, embedded in socio-cultural, economic and political contexts, potentially lead to different attitudes towards, and support levels for these markets as tourism inbound.

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APPLICATION OF SUS-TAS IN A GAMING DESTINATION

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INTRODUCTION

Due to the liberation of gaming and implementation of individual visitation scheme (IVS), Macao has seen its golden decades in economic development. In 2017, Macao's GDP reached MOP405,790 million or MOP625,254 (USD77,902) per capita, making Macao one of the richest cities in the world (DSEC, 2018). While tourism could enhance residents' standard of living and generate economic benefits for the community (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005; Su, Huang, & Huang, 2018); tourism is also notorious for disrupting local communities and social norms, debasing social structure and depriving individuality of communities (Nunkoo & So, 2016; Su et al., 2018). Concerns about sustainable tourism development, thus, arise. The concept of sustainable tourism is to balance creation of economic benefits for residents, maintenance of local culture, and preservation of environment; and, at the same time, to fulfil visitor's needs, as well as to ensure a destination's long-term viability (Su et al., 2018; Wan & Li, 2013; Yu, Chancellor, & Cole, 2011). In order to evaluate resident's attitude towards sustainable tourism development, based on the new environmental paradigm (NEP) and social exchange theory (SET), Choi and Sirakaya (2005) developed the Sustainable Tourism Attitude Scale (SUS-TAS).

SUS-TAS has been used as a tool to evaluate the sentiment of residents toward sustainable tourism development since its inception. The original scale consisted of 44 items, and included seven dimensions, namely (1) perceived social costs, (2) environmental sustainability, (3) long-term

planning, (4) perceived economic benefits, (5) community-centered economy, (6) ensuring visitor satisfaction, and (7) maximizing community participation. The scale is comprehensive enough to encompass all the aspects of sustainable tourism development that is "ecologically responsible, socially compatible, culturally appropriate, politically equitable, technologically supportive, and finally economically viable for the host community" (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005, p. 382). SUS-TAS has been replicated to examine its psychometric properties and robustness in various settings and across cultures (Ribeiro, Pinto, Silva, & Woosnam, 2018; Sirakaya-Turk, Ekinici, & Kaya, 2008; Yu et al., 2011; Zhang, Cole, & Chancellor, 2015). Although different SUS-TAS versions were proposed, factor structures remained the same as the original seven developed by Choi and Sirakaya (2005). More recent research conducted by Ribeiro et al. (2018) demonstrated that the 21-item version is reliable, valid and parsimonious. They also called for more research to cross-validate the 21-item version. They further suggested to examine SUS-TAS as a predictor variable in its relationship with support for sustainable tourism development, and include some mediator variables in the model. Among all the possible mediators, overall attitude was important as there is much ambiguity surrounding the relationship between overall attitude and support (Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2013). Therefore, the purpose of this research was to cross-validate the 21-item SUS-TAS scale, and examine the relationship between SUS-TAS and resident support for sustainable tourism development, as well as the mediating role of overall attitude, in a gaming destination (Figure 1).

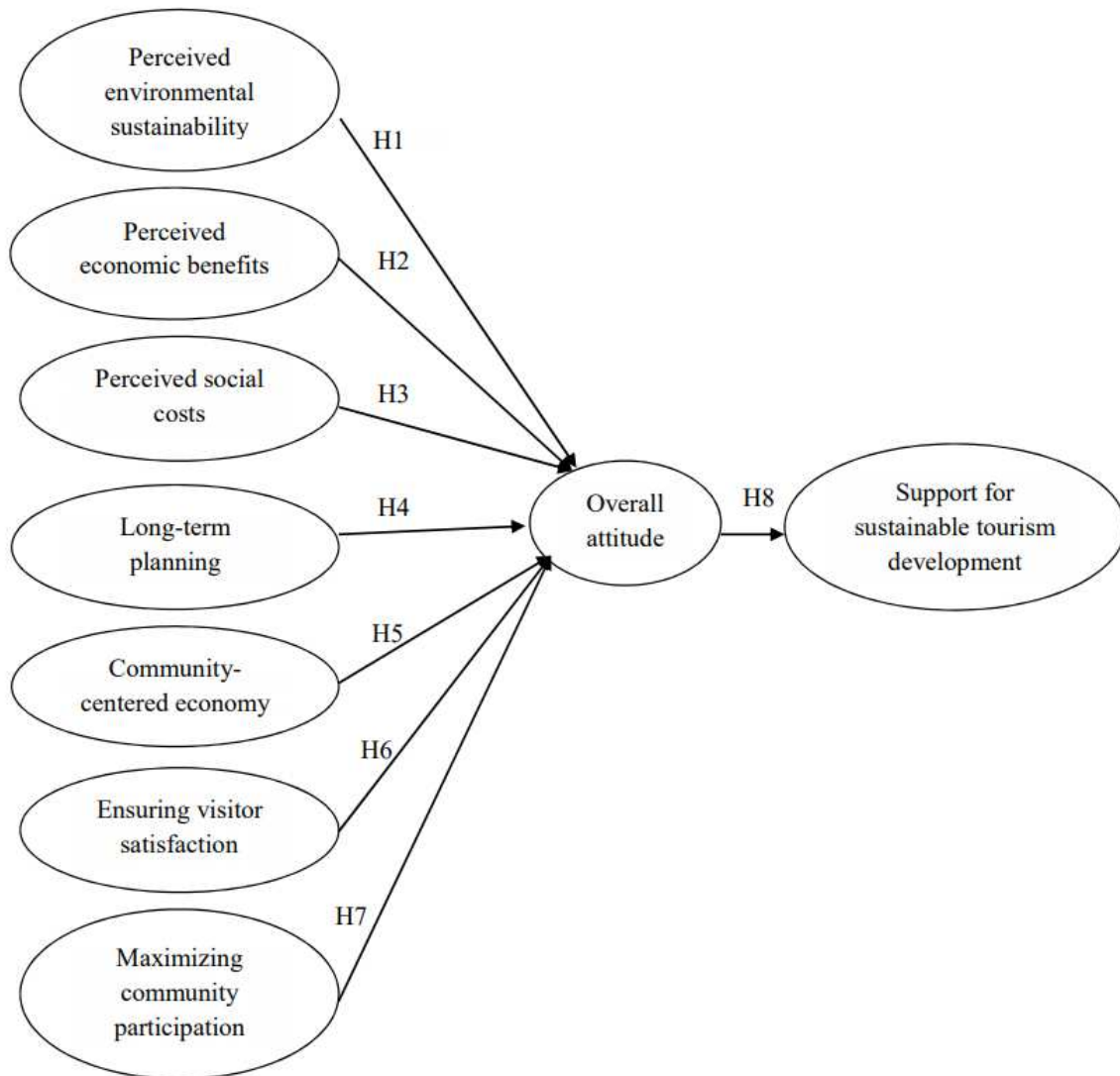


Figure 1. Proposed Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

METHOD

A structured questionnaire was first designed in English, and translated into standardized Chinese (Traditional Chinese). The Chinese version was then back-translated into English to ensure the consistency of word meanings. Only the Chinese questionnaire was distributed to collect data. The questionnaire consisted of four sections. The first part adopted the 21-item version of SUS-TAS (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005; Ribeiro et al., 2018), including seven dimensions each measured with three items. The second section measured overall attitude with two items (Prayag et al., 2013). The third part measured support for sustainable tourism development with six items (Lee, 2013; Ribeiro et al., 2018). All the items were rated on a 7-point

Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Demographic information was also gathered.

A convenience sampling method was used to select participants at high-traffic locations, including central areas and public parks in different neighborhoods in Macao. Data were collected over three months from November 2017 to January 2018. Macao residents aged above 18 were approached, and all the respondents were assured of anonymity and data confidentiality when they agreed to participate. A total of 287 respondents agreed to participate, and yielded 269 complete responses.

A two-stage procedure proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) was employed to examine the overall measurement model and with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), followed by

structural equation modeling (SEM) to examine all the structural paths. Partial least square (PLS) method was adopted with SmartPLS3.2 (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015). PLS method differs from covariance-based structural equation modeling in that PLS imposes less restrictive assumptions about normality and is capable of handling small samples (Chin, 1998; Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016).

FINDINGS

CFA was conducted with SmartPLS to test the measurement model of seven dimensions of SUS-TAS, overall attitude, and support for sustainable tourism development. First round of CFA suggested that one item removed from maximizing community participation due to low loading (“Macao residents should have an opportunity to be involved in tourism decision-making”). Hence, the second round of CFA was performed and yielded satisfactory results (Table 1). All constructs’ composite reliability coefficients and Cronbach alpha values are above the threshold of .70, and the average variance extracted (AVE) of each construct, larger than .50, is sufficient as well. Discriminant validity is established on the basis of the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT), a procedure superior to the commonly used Fornell-Larker assessments

of cross-loadings (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). The results (Table 2) show that all HTMT₈₅ values of the constructs are below the critical and conservative value of .85, except the correlation between perceived economic benefit and maximizing community participation is .855, slightly over .85 (Hair et al., 2016). Therefore, the measurement model is deemed both reliable and valid.

PLS-SEM was then performed to test the hypothesized paths among constructs. All the hypotheses were significant except H1 (the path from environmental sustainability to overall attitude) and H4 (the path from long-term planning to overall attitude). While perceived social costs (H3) had a negative impact, perceived economic benefits (H2), community-centered economy (H5), ensuring visitor satisfaction (H6), and maximizing community participation (H7) all had positive influences on overall attitude with 49.8% of variances explained. Overall attitude also exerted positive influence on support for sustainable tourism development (H8), with 46.9% of variances explained. Furthermore, overall attitude was found to mediate the relationships between perceived social costs, perceived economic benefits, community-centered economy, ensuring visitor satisfaction, maximizing community participation and support for sustainable tourism development.

Table 1. Measurement Model Assessments

Latent variable and indicators	Loading	CR	α	AVE
Perceived environmental sustainability		0.900	0.900	0.749
Our environment must be protected now and for the future	0.818			
Tourism must protect the Macao environment	0.881			
Tourism must improve the environment for future generations	0.897			
Perceived economic benefit		0.804	0.805	0.578
Tourism is a strong economic contributor to Macao	0.801			
Tourism diversifies our economy	0.728			
Tourism benefits other industries in Macao	0.751			
Perceived social costs		0.898	0.899	0.746
My quality of life has deteriorated because of tourism	0.898			
Tourists in Macao disrupt my quality of life	0.828			
I feel uncomfortable or unwelcome in local tourism businesses	0.864			
Long-term planning		0.908	0.907	0.768
We need to take a long-term view when planning for tourism development	0.814			
Successful management of tourism requires advanced planning strategy	0.916			

Latent variable and indicators	Loading	CR	α	AVE
When we plan for tourism, we cannot be shortsighted	0.896			
Community-centered economy		0.813	0.815	0.594
Macao residents should receive a fair share of benefits from tourism	0.670			
Macao residents should be given more opportunities to invest in tourism development	0.808			
Tourism industry must contribute to Macao community improvement	0.825			
Ensuring visitor satisfaction		0.775	0.775	0.538
Tourism industry must ensure good quality tourism experiences for visitors	0.843			
It is the responsibility of tourism businesses to meet visitor needs	0.641			
Community attractiveness is a core element of ecological “appeal” for visitors	0.701			
Maximizing community participation		0.708	0.706	0.549
Full participation by everyone in Macao is a must for successful tourism development	0.784			
Macao residents should have an opportunity to be involved in tourism decision-making	0.696			
Overall attitude		0.708	0.707	0.549
The total impacts tourism development has caused on Macao are positive	0.776			
I consider that the benefits of tourism are larger than its costs for Macao	0.704			
Support for sustainable tourism development		0.922	0.922	0.663
I support the development of sustainable tourism initiatives in Macao	0.897			
I participate in sustainable tourism-related plans and development	0.750			
I participate in cultural exchanges between local residents and visitors	0.831			
I cooperate with tourism planning and development initiatives	0.766			
I obey regulatory environmental standards to reduce the negative effects of tourism	0.799			
I participate in the promotion of environmental education and conservation	0.835			

Note: CR=composite reliability; α =Cronbach's alpha; AVE=average variance extracted
All item loadings are significant at .001 level.

Table 2. Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations

Latent variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Perceived environmental sustainability									
2 Perceived economic benefit	0.641								
3 Perceived social costs	0.165	0.111							
4 Long-term planning	0.766	0.657	0.203						
5 Community-centered economy	0.691	0.673	0.269	0.729					
6 Ensuring visitor satisfaction	0.579	0.785	0.055	0.685	0.822				
7 Maximizing community participation	0.768	0.855	0.162	0.793	0.873	0.799			
8 Overall attitude	0.483	0.818	0.205	0.462	0.620	0.793	0.540		
9 Support for sustainable tourism development	0.635	0.831	0.187	0.600	0.644	0.763	0.717	0.844	

CONCLUSIONS

The theoretical contributions of this study are twofold. First, SUS-TAS is a scale worthy of continuous exploration. The results support the utility of the parsimonious 21-item version in the

context of a gaming destination, different from previous research conducted in western countries (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005; Zhang et al., 2015), or island states (Ribeiro et al., 2018). Second, this study developed a conceptual model incorporating overall attitude as the mediator between SUS-TAS

and support for sustainable tourism development, and found that overall attitude significantly mediates the relationships between perceived social costs, perceived economic benefits, community-centered economy, ensuring visitor satisfaction, maximizing community participation and support for sustainable tourism development. The results concurred with the Prayag et al. (2013) who advocated that overall attitude and support should be conceptualized differently. However, environmental sustainability and long-term planning failed to demonstrate significant influences on overall attitude, thus support for sustainable tourism development.

This study also provides practical implications for tourism policy makers and planners. For example, although perceived economic benefits and community-centered economy had positive influences on overall attitude, thus on support for sustainable tourism development, perceived social costs exerted a negative one. Therefore, while policy makers continue to bring more economic benefits to the community, for the long-term sustainability, they also need to minimize the perceived social costs. For instance, local tourism businesses should be educated to cater to both residents and visitors in the same manner. Otherwise, if local residents feel they are unwelcome, they may vet their negative emotions towards visitors instead.

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CLUSTERING OF CHINESE TOURISTS FOR ENTERTAINMENT OPTIONS AND THEIR MOTIVATIONS: A CASE OF INTEGRATED RESORTS IN MACAU

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INTRODUCTION

Various entertainment offerings have historically played a significant part in the service delivery to customers in Integrated Resorts (IR) in Macao. Entertainment plays a critical role not only in marketing by attracting customers to the properties but also as a key retention and loyalty creation tactic. McCartney (2015) asserted that Macau had become uniquely reliant on the success of its tourism industry. As a source for revenue creation, entertainment and events have essentially been used as a support pillar and marketing tactics for IR promotion (McCartney, 2015). In order to generate more revenue stream, IR in Macau are challenged to develop more innovative and non-gaming tactics that can include the entertainment mix to attract more customers to their properties. Entertainment will include more diversity well-known shows to attract more tourists such as in Asia and Mainland China.

According to the information from the Statistics and Census Service (DSEC) indicated that visitors from Mainland China contributed 70.5% (25.3 millions out of a total of 35.8 millions visitors) in 2018 which went up by 13.8 percent respectively year-on-year. The Chinese tourists have become the key revenue providers contributing approximately 80% of the total expenditures in Macau (DSEC, 2018). Because of an increase in wealth in China, the outbound tourism of China has been increasing these years. For those outbound China tourists, seeking entertainment is one of the purposes and motivations of their travel (Chang, 2013). The attractiveness of the entertainment elements in Macau, especially in Integrated Resorts, will increasingly become a key tactic to drive the revenue to their properties (Schmidt, 2015).

Therefore, the motivations and characteristics of Chinese tourists for entertainments options become critical in understanding their respective behaviors in order to meet their needs for maintaining their buying power and entertainment preferences. However, research studies on Chinese tourists entertainment options are scarce. To understand Chinese tourists' behavior in their entertainment options in Macau, it is crucial to study their travel motivations.

Motivation is defined as a psychological factor that mainly stimulates the needs, wants and the achievement of the individuals (Maslow, 1943). Crompton (1979) mentions that tourists are motivated mainly by two psychological factors, one is internally called "Push" and another is externally called "Pull". Based on the typology of entertainment options in Macau Government Tourist Office (MGTO), seven entertainment options are classified as "Shows", "Cultural & Creative Industries Zones", "Family Fun", "Sport Recreation", "Beauty & Wellness", "Gaming" and "Nightlife". The aim of this study is to segment the Chinese tourists by cluster analysis from their characteristics and seven entertainment options of MGTO. In addition, the motivations are studied to understand from the identified segments.

METHODOLOGY

The samples in this study were from Chinese tourists who traveled to Macau in the period of October and November in 2018. By using a convenient sampling method, a total of 323 face-to-face interviews were conducted near around the Integrated Resorts in Macau. The questionnaire was originally designed in English and back translation was adopted to make sure the questions

were accurately translated. The content of the questionnaire was divided into four parts. For the first part, respondents were asked about their demographic information such as gender, age range, education level, from which province in China, income and occupation. For the second part, respondents were to assess their travel motivation to Macau from “pull” and “push” factors by using Likert scales based on the study of Boone & Boone (2012). The third part was to indicate respondents’ choice for seven entertainment options or not respectively during the trip. The last part was to discuss their travel behavior such as the length of stay, number of times to visit and the amount of spending in Macau. The clusters of Chinese tourists were formed by TwoStep cluster analysis from the demographic variables, entertainment options and travel behavior variables. After the segments were identified, each travel motivation variable among

the clusters was examined by one-factor ANOVA test. The analysis of this study is using SPSS 25.0.

FINDINGS

Cluster analysis of visitors

A TwoStep cluster analysis method was adopted to segment the Chinese tourists. The variables used to segment the market were demographic information, travel behavior and entertainment options. Based on the two-step cluster method in SPSS, three-cluster solutions were identified and this was the highest degree of dissimilarity among the clusters. The clusters were labeled as Mixed Entertainment Options Tourists (32.8% of sample), Purely Cultural and Creatively Tourists (34.1%) and Purely Gaming Tourists (34.1%). The significant characteristics profile of clusters is as shown in table 1.

Table 1 - Three identified segments from Two-Step cluster analysis

Type of Characteristic	Variable	Purely Cultural & Creative Tourists	Purely Gaming Tourists	Mixed Entertainment Options Tourists
Demographic Information	Age Range	18-24	35-44	25-34
	Income	RMB<3K	RMB7K-10K	RMB7K-10K
	Place of Origin	Not specified	Guangdong province	Guangdong province
Travel Behavior	Gender	F	M	F
	Overall Spending	MOP3K-7K	MOP10K-20K	MOP7K-10K
	Length of Stay	2-3 nights	2-3 nights	2-3 nights
	Repeat Visitors	No	Yes	Yes
Entertainment Options	Shows	No	No	Yes
	Cultural & Creative Industries Zones	Yes	No	Yes
	Family Fun	No	No	Yes
	Sport Recreation	No	No	Yes
	Beauty & Wellness	No	No	Yes
	Gaming	No	Yes	Yes
	Nightlife	No	No	No

Tourists Motivations by cluster

The means of the 19 motivation variables from ten push factors and nine pull factors for each cluster is also shown in Table 2. The results showed that one-factor ANOVA test was adopted to examine if there were differences between tourism segments on the individual tourist motivations items. For all segments, Chinese tourists were more motivated with “Push factor - Have a good travel memory” and “Push factor- Build the relationship between my companion, family and friends”, with mean value

of between 4 (agreed) and 5 (extremely agreed). The lower mean scores of Chinese tourists motivations were “Pull factor - Seek job opportunity” and “Push factor - Show off to the others”, with mean value of between 2 (disagreed) and 3 (neutral) for all segments.

A series of one-factor ANOVA tests revealed that there were six significant differences (*sig.* < .05) in the mean scores among the three clusters. Four motivation variables were examined significant difference in push factors which include

“Push factor - Have a hassle-free vacation” ($sig.=0.004$), “Push factor - Have a good travel memory” ($sig.=0.034$), “Push factor - Experience new and different cultures” ($sig.=0.005$) and “Push factor- Build the relationship between my companion, family and friends” ($sig.=0.048$). Two motivation variables were examined significant

difference in pull factors which including “Pull factor - Participate activities in Macau” ($sig.=0.006$) and “Pull factor - Participate exhibitions in Macau” ($sig.=0.018$). This indicated that the six motivation variables contributed to the differentiation of the tourist segments and thus could be labeled appropriately.

Table 2. ANOVA of travel motivations mean score by cluster

Motivation Variables	Purely Cultural & Creative Tourists	Purely Gaming Tourists	Mixed Entertainment Options Tourists	F Ratio	Significance
					Level
Push factor- Escape from daily busy life	3.43	3.58	3.57	0.518	0.596
Push factor - Have a hassle-free vacation	3.93	3.98	4.25	3.255	0.040
Push factor - Have a good travel memory	4.05	4.01	4.32	3.428	0.034
Push factor - Do what like to do	4.02	3.96	4.19	1.556	0.213
Push factor - Experience new and different cultures	4.09	3.78	4.20	5.342	0.005
Push factor- Build the relationship between my companion/family/friends	4.05	4.07	4.33	3.057	0.048
Push factor - Experience new and different cultures	3.91	3.85	4.03	0.898	0.408
Push factor - Gain self-confidence when travelling	3.44	3.37	3.41	0.076	0.927
Push factor - Show off to the others	2.91	2.69	2.96	1.309	0.272
Push factor - Please the companion	3.08	3.03	3.15	0.250	0.779
Pull factor - Make new and interesting friends	3.51	3.21	3.42	1.862	0.157
Pull- Attracted by famous resorts and the hotels in Macau	3.78	3.85	4.06	2.222	0.110
Pull factor - Watch concerts and the events in Macau	3.45	3.44	3.75	2.528	0.081
Pul factor - Participate activities in Macau	3.46	3.47	3.89	5.126	0.006
Pull factor -Visit the world heritage places	3.80	3.66	3.86	0.889	0.412
Pull factor- Attracted by Portuguese food and cultures	3.87	3.74	4.00	1.663	0.191
Pull factor - Participate exhibitions in Macau	3.40	3.20	3.66	4.052	0.018
Pull factor - Seek job oppurtunity	2.54	2.32	2.36	0.893	0.410
Pull factor - Go night club and bar	2.90	2.97	3.04	0.292	0.747

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Based on the Two-Step cluster analysis and one factor ANOVA test of the Integrated Resorts in Macau survey data collected, this study identifies three Chinese tourists segments – Purely Cultural & Creative tourists, Purely Gaming tourists and Mixed Entertainment Options tourists. For Purely Cultural & Creative tourists who are seeking for cultural, heritage and art activities in Macau, this segment is mainly young female, low income, low spending and first time visiting to Macau. Integrated Resorts may design attractive packages which includes hotel room, low-cost airline and the discount coupons of entrance fee for art museums and heritage places to target this segment. In addition, joint promotion with youth organizations in China can stimulate this target segment to Macau. For Purely Gaming tourists who are gambling only in Macau, this segment is mainly middle age male from Guangdong province, middle income, high spending and repeat time visiting to Macau.

Integrated Resorts may offer the discount travel package for those repeat visitors. For Mixed Entertainment Options tourists who choose all entertainment options in Macau, this segment is mainly young female from Guangdong province, middle income, middle spending and repeat time visiting to Macau. Integrated Resorts may offer mixed discount coupons to this target segment to stimulate them to choose different entertainment options. The findings of this study show significant differences in the six motivation variables between the analyzed tourist groups. Destination marketing organization may base on the above significant motivations variables to differentiate for formulating the marketing strategies for the target segments. An increased understanding of these characteristics and the motivation among these identified three segment should help destinations and other tourism organizations e.g. MGTO in formulating their marketing strategies and targeting marketing for various Chinese tourists segments. Chinese tourists are among the fastest growing

outbound markets (Cai, Lehto & O'leary, 2001; Choi, Lehto & Morrison, 2008) and thus present an opportunity for tourism organizations and businesses in Integrated Resorts development of entertainment in Macau.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

As for the limitations, this study used a convenient sampling method and the results obtained may not be generalized to the overall Chinese tourists to Macau. As the entertainment options are defined from MGTO's classification, the boarder and diversified of the entertainment options can be studied in the future research.

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THE INFLUENCE OF NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION QUALITY OF AIRLINE CREW ON CUSTOMER: COMPARISON OF LCCs AND FULL SERVICE AIRLINES

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INTRODUCTION

According to World Statistics Portal site, the global aviation industry is growing at an unprecedented rate and air travel for international travelers is expected to increase by 6.5% in 2018 and 6% in 2019. In addition, the global aviation industry is expected to reach \$ 8.3 billion in 2011 and \$ 33.8 billion in 2018 (Statista, 2019).

As the aviation industry develops, competition among airlines becomes more intense and the airlines need to secure customers through continuous improvement of service quality (Bae, 2014). In particular, airline service has many face-to-face connect points with their passengers than other industries, so humanic service quality has been recognized as a significant predictor of customer satisfaction (Kim, 2014; Hong, 2008; Han, 2007).

The airline service quality is directly related to the revenue of the company, and the non-verbal communication quality has been identified as one of important elements as well as verbal communication in aviation industry (Lee, Chung & Chung, 2013; Jeong, 2012). Additionally, the non-verbal communication verified that it has much larger transmission effect than verbal communication (Park, 2005; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974; Birdwhistell, 1955), and the non-verbal communication have critical link with trust to the airline company, customer satisfaction, and customer retention (Ko & Kong, 2016).

Although there are many studies on airline service with non-verbal communication, but there is still lack of verifying the relationships among brand image, customer satisfaction, perceived value, and loyalty by comparing low cost carriers (LCCs) and full service airlines.

Therefore, this study will conduct to identify the relationships among non-verbal communication and other significant factors such as brand image, perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty as perceived by airline consumers. In addition, current study will identify the formulated relationships by comparing LCCs and full service airlines.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Non-verbal Communication

Communication is usually divided into verbal communication and non-verbal communication, and it is the most basic form of interaction among people (Kim, Park & Lee, 2006). Birdwhistell(1970) reported that the proportion of verbal elements is 30% and non-verbal elements is 70% in communication. In addition, more than 90% of the communication effect can be influenced by non-verbal elements (Fromkin & Rodman, 1983). The major function of non-verbal communication is conveying people's thoughts and feelings as well as information exchange. Besides, non-verbal communication has been recognized as important factor to build relationships between service providers and customers (Barnum and Wolniansky, 1989; Burgoon et al, 1990).

In previous studies, the non-verbal communication was evaluated by various factors such as into kinesics, physical appearance, paralanguage, and proxemics (Hong, 2007; Hong & Hong, 2013; Ko, 2015; Sin & Kim, 2011). For example, Sin & Kim (2011) revealed that cabin crew's physical appearance has a significant influence on the customer satisfaction, and Ko (2015) shown that kinesics and physical appearance have an positive influence on mutual relation with cabin crew and passengers. In addition, Jeong

(2012) demonstrated that the non-verbal communication of cabin crew is linked to the quality of cabin crew's human service which affect customer satisfaction and brand attitude. Furthermore, Han & Yoo (2008) demonstrated formulated model among non-verbal communication of cabin crew, service quality, customer satisfaction, and loyalty.

Brand Image

In previous studies, Plummer (1985) reported that brand image was defined by the feelings, thoughts, and imagination that associated with consumer's memory. Also, it was defined by the overall impression that the public temporarily felt (Barich & Kotler, 1991). In addition, Park (2016) has identified the brand image as an important factor in attracting customers and improving competitiveness. Hence, brand image can have a significant impact on purchasing decisions in diverse industry (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry, 1990).

Perceived Value

In marketing, the value is defined by three concept. One is price what you pay, another is reward from payments, and the other is the overall evaluation of customer due to two concepts listed above (Zeithaml, 1988). Mittal & Sheth (2001) claimed that the currency is value, not money, in all interaction situation and the purpose of consumption is to find something worthwhile (Mittal & Sheth, 2001).

Customer Satisfaction

Customer Satisfaction is defined by overall emotion of customer, and it is satisfied by desire and expectation (Oliver, 1993). In prior research, the customer satisfaction is an important clue to maintain customer loyalty and profitability (Ko, 2015; Seo, 2010). In addition, previous study related to airline service, customer satisfaction directly related to customer expectations and desires when they purchase any goods and services in aircraft (Ko, 2015).

Loyalty

Jones & Sasser (1995) described that customer loyalty is the favorable emotion to products and services, and it is the preference of

future service based on the continuous purchase. Also loyalty is prediction and expectation with reference to past experiences (Oliver, 1999; Lee & Cunningham, 2001). In previous research related to airline, loyalty has interpreted as a positive emotion to the airline service (Oh & Lee, 2014), and the loyalty in airlines can be an important marketing factor in securing customers by providing excellent services to new customers and regular customers (Lee, 2015).

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of this study is to verify the relationship among airline brand image, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and loyalty in comparison with full-service airline and LCCs through non-verbal communication.

H1: Non-verbal communication quality of the cabin crew will influence on brand image.

H2: Non-verbal communication quality of the cabin crew will influence on the perceived value.

H3: Brand image of airline will influence on perceived value.

H4: Brand image of airline will influence on customer satisfaction.

H5: Perceived value of airline will influence on customer satisfaction.

H6: Brand image of airline will influence on customer Loyalty.

H7: Perceived value of airline will influence on customer Loyalty.

H8: The customer satisfaction of airline will influence on loyalty

H9: Formulated relationships will be different by full-service airlines and LCCs.

PROPOSED METHOD

Data collection

This study will be designed to define the relationships among four factors of non-verbal communication (Kinesics, Physical appearance, Paralanguage, Proxemics), brand image, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and loyalty. Modification of the preliminary questionnaires will be developed after a pilot test with consumers who have experienced in cabin crew's service within a year. The final survey will be distributed to

consumers in South Korea using online survey method.

Measurement of Variables

To determine the elements of current study, four dimensions of non-verbal communication (Kinesics, Physical appearance, Paralanguage, Proxemics) will be employed based on literature review (Hong, 2007; KO, 2015; Sundaram & Webster, 2000). To measure another dependent variables of non-verbal communication factors which are four elements: brand image, perceived value, customer satisfaction, and loyalty) will be estimated by previous literature (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Berry, 1990; Oliver, 1993; Zeithaml, 1988; Jones & Sasser, 1995).

Statistical Materials

Data will be compiled and analyzed by using the statistical-analysis program IBM SPSS 23.0 and AMOS 23.0. Specifically, first, demographic statistics will be analyzed to determine the informants' socio-demographic factors. Second, exploratory factor analysis will be performed, after that confirmatory factor analysis will be tested to verify the measurement model. Third, structural equation modeling will be performed to analyze the structural model for hypotheses. Last, multiple group analysis will be used to determine the moderating effect (LCCs vs. Full-service airline) on the relationship on the formulated model.

PROPOSED IMPLICATION

This study will investigate the influence of non verbal communication elements on brand image, perceived value, satisfaction and loyalty in airline business. Specifically, current study will compare to the attributes and relationships among the factors based on the size of the company like full service airline and LCCs. Findings will contribute to improve the service quality of non verbal communication and provide specific marketing strategic for both airline companies and consumers as well.

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SUSTAINABILITY AND ATTACHMENT TO REGIONAL SUSTAINABLE TOURISM: A COMPARISON OF THE PERCEPTIONS OF LOCAL RESIDENTS AND INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, tourism is an important industry and it has become a key sector for the economic growth and job creation in many countries in the world (Agovino, Casaccia, Garofalo, & Marchesano, 2017). From the fact that the number of tourists tends to increase significantly after the second world war. According to The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), if in 1950, there were only 25 million tourists in the world, this number increased forty-nine times in 2016, reaching 1.2 billion tourists a year.¹⁾ This organization also predicts that, the average growth rate of world tourism is 4.1% and international tourist arrivals will reach 1.56 billion arrivals figures in 2020 and 1.8 billion people will be expected by 2030 (UNWTO, 2016).

In the Asia-Pacific region, according to *the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA)* the number of tourists has increased steadily every year, and in 2020 is expected to reach nearly 650 million visitors.²⁾ Particularly, in the context of Vietnam tourism is growing rapidly, the number of tourists to Vietnam is increasing. According to a report of Vietnam National Administration of Tourism, international visitors to Vietnam in 2017 is 12.9 million visitors. In 2018, the number of international visitors to Vietnam has reached 15.6 million tourists and it is expected that by 2021 this number will reach 30 million international tourists.

In the tourism business, natural resources are intensively used and consumed, and tourism has major impacts on environments, ecosystems, economy, societies, and culture (UNESCO, 2009). While tourism development brings many positive effects on well-being and life quality, in many cases it has also created negative impacts on the economy, society, and environment (Agovino, Casaccia, Garofalo, & Marchesano, 2017; Eugenio Yunis,

2004). Therefore, sustainability has become an important topic and concept in relation to tourism planning and development (Yuksel, Bramwell, & Yuksel, 1999). Sustainable tourism development has become the concern of many countries and has attracted the interest of researchers in the world (Bramwell et al., 2016).

In sustainable tourism, the support of local people and tourists to sustainable tourism through their awareness of sustainable tourism is extremely important. According to Buonincontri, Marasco, & Ramkissoon (2017), it is a daunting task for tourism managers to encourage tourists towards environmental protection. Previous studies have shown many reasons for the tourists' environmental responsibility behavior (ERB). According to Moscardo (1996), tourists' ERB derives from their travel experiences at destinations. Meanwhile, the study of Cheng, Wu, & Huang, (2013) concluded that tourists are attracted to the destination and have a strong attachment to the destination, they will be responsible for the pro-environment at that place.

According to Hassanal Bahar Pengiran Bagul (2016), when locals realize the benefits of participating in tourism rather than costs, they will have the support for sustainable tourism. The study of Ling & Jakpar (2011) similarly suggests that the level of resident's support for tourism development is higher as they perceive the positive effects of tourism than negative. Meanwhile, (Morales, Agüera, López-Guzmán, & Cuadra, 2018) concluded that locals' attitudes influenced the community attachment and the higher the community attachment, the more people will support the development of sustainable tourism.

In the fact that there have been many studies on attitudes and perceptions towards sustainable tourism (Huayhuaca, Cottrell, Raadik, & Gradl, 2010; Kitnuntaviwat & Tang, 2008) or tourists

1) <https://ourworldindata.org/tourism>

2) <https://www.tourism-review.com/regional-tourism-increasing-in-asia-pacific-news4936>

((Andereck, 2009; Buonincontri et al., 2017; Nicholas & Thapa, 2010)Hardy & Pearson's 2017). However, these researches are limited to analyzing the perceptions of the stakeholders in an individually way. It does not compare and explain further the differences in the stakeholders' perceptions. In recent years, there have been a number of studies comparing the perceptions of stakeholders towards sustainable tourism (Byrd et al., 2009; Kruja & Hasaj, 2010). Kruja & Hasaj (2010) claim that there is a significant change in the perception of stakeholders about the principle of sustainable tourism. The authors also point out that most of the local resident welcome tourists. Furthermore, it is clear these studies only focus on a single destination. Meanwhile, tourists tend to travel along the tourist route.

This study addressed the gaps from previous research in the above-mentioned studies. The research focuses on the perception of sustainable tourism and attachment to regional sustainable tourism of the two main stakeholders, that is the local resident and international tourist. The study aims to explore and compare the perceptions of local people and international tourists on sustainable tourism and attachment to sustainable tourism in the region.

METHOD

The author approaches the qualitative research method. To collect the data, the author conducted

an in-depth interview with semi-structured questionnaires. Before beginning the official data collection, the author carried three draft interviews with two experts in tourism and a friend who was considered as the local resident. These interviews helped the author to check and modify the interview guide for the formal interviews. After the interviews, some points in the interview guide were revised and applied to official interviews.

The official interview was conducted in Vietnam (face to face) with 18 participants: 8 male (44,44%) and 10 Female (55,56%) aged from 18 to 80 years old. The interviewee included 10 Local residents living in three provinces of Hue (30%), Da Nang (30%), Quang Nam (40%) and 8 international tourists to Viet Nam (Table 1). The interview lasted between 30 and 45 minutes and the whole interview was recorded by mobile phone. Interviews carried out mainly in the cafe shop, at home, for purpose of creating a sense of comfort and intimacy.

FINDINGS

Sustainable tourism awareness

The results of the survey indicate that sustainable tourism is related to three aspects, economic, environmental, cultural - social. While international tourists are concerned about the environmental and economic sustainability aspects, local people are more interested in the socio-cultural aspect.

Table 1. Respondent Information

	Name	Age	Gender	Home	Length of living	Date of interview
Draft interviews	Thu	38	Female	Hue	38	23/2/2018
	Du	47	Male	Da Nang	40	24/2/2018
	Thy	62	Female	Da Nang	37	9/3/2018
Official interviews	Name	Age	Gender	Home	Length of living	Date of interview
Local resident	Khanh	80	Male	Quang Nam (Hoi An)	80	12/3/2108
	Thong	67	Male	Da Nang	67	10/3/2018
	Tram	31	Female	Da Nang	31	11/3/2018
	Đan	55	Female	Quang Nam (Hoi An)	40	13/3/2018
	May	55	Female	Quang Nam (Hoi An)	55	13/3/2018
	Tung	34	Male	Hue	34	18/3/2018
	Binh	40	Female	Hue	40	16/3/2018
	Hau	62	Male	Hue	62	13/3/2018
	Nga	34	Female	Da Nang	15	11/3/2018
	Ha	36	Female	Quang Nam (Hoi An)	36	20/3/2018

	Name	Age	Gender	Country	Stay time	Date of interview
International Tourist	Peter	44	Male	France	3 months	12/3/2018
	Ivan	29	Male	Russia	3 months	13/3/2018
	Sarah	26	Female	United Kingdom	14 days	25/3/2018
	Anthony	31	Male	United Kingdom	2 months	21/3/2018
	Laura	18	Female	Germany	6 weeks	23/3/2018
	Lisa	25	Female	Germany	3.5 weeks	20/3/2018
	Daniel	27	Male	Poland	3 weeks	20/3/2018
	Nina	24	Female	Latvia	1 months	26/3/2018

Note: All informants were pseudonyms.

(Sources: Author)

The main stakeholder in sustainable tourism

When asked about tourism stakeholders, both international and local resident said that sustainable tourism needs a lot of participants, including Local resident, tourist, tourism enterprises (restaurants, hotels, tour operator, bar shop, cafe shop...), local authority, government,

However, there are differences between international tourists and Local residents when asked about which stakeholders play the most important role in sustainable tourism practices. While local resident supposed that local authority, international tourist comment that that is local people.

Perception about Attachment

Survey results show that attachment not only expresses feelings and emotions between people but also between people and places.

The attachment was described by local resident such as the feeling homesick and sad when away from home, feeling happy coming back, the attention (when someone is sick). The reasons are: Place of birth and growing up; Have family and friends; There are many memories; Can't leave and the other reasons.

While, with international tourist, the attachment showed through the memories, and feelings of memory when finishing the trip and want to return. The reasons including: Have a good impression of people: friendly, hospitable; Satisfaction on services provided: comfort, staff, price and attracted by famous lands, beautiful scenery, especially, delicious food.

Attachment to regional sustainable tourism

There is a difference in awareness between

the international tourists and the local resident.

Almost all international tourists say that they connected with sustainable tourism in the region. While for local people, there are TWO groups:

Group AST, including the people who have a strong attachment to sustainable tourism and are willing to participate in sustainable tourism activities.

The reason, that is the attachment to the place where they were born or they perceived positive impacts of sustainable tourism.

In some cases, local people are aware of the economic benefits of engaging in tourism activities. This is a group of people who are involved in tourism indirectly.

Group NST, including the people who have the perception about the role about the sustainable tourism, but they do not spend the time to sustainable tourism practice. The reason are they don't have time, they always feel that tourism brings more negative impact than a positive impact. The other reason that they do not involve in tourism completely, they want to spend time on other work.

CONCLUSION

The results indicate that local resident and international tourists will engage in sustainable tourism activities as they perceive the positive impact of sustainability on economic, cultural-social and environmental aspects. However, the attachment to sustainable tourism depends on many factors such as: the length of the trip; travel experiences of tourists and the degree of participation or involvement in tourism activities; length of time to live in the locality (local resident). Based on this result, it provides a theoretical basis

for future research, where sustainable tourism will still be of major concern to the scientific community. On the other hand, it helps tour operators, local authorities, and governments to plan timely and appropriate tourist policies.

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INVESTIGATING NONHOST RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MEGA-EVENTS IN JAPAN

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INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism plays a major role in Japan's continuous economic development. To facilitate the country's growth, the government aims to increase the number of international tourists to 40 million annually by 2020 and 60 million by 2030 (Japan Tourism Agency [JTA], 2016). The hosting of mega-events is encouraged as it is argued that they enhance the nation's inbound tourism and provide powerful catalysts to stimulate regional revitalisation (JTA, 2018). In fact, Japan will host several mega-events in coming years including the Rugby World Cup 2019, the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games, and World Expo 2025 in Osaka, Kansai.

Although interests of visitors are often prioritised for destination development (Wang & Chen, 2015), residents are an important stakeholder for mega-events because development brought by such occasions could change the social fabric and have an impact on quality of life (Smith, Ritchie, & Chien, 2019). In addition, the success of an event largely depends on community support, in the sense that residents provide a welcoming atmosphere for visitors, participate in lead-in events, and they may become event volunteers. Organising mega-events also relies largely upon tax revenue derived from residents and businesses in regions or peripheral communities that are not hosting the event (Chien, Kelly, & Gill, 2018). Although tourism literature is replete with studies examining residents' attitudes toward mega-events in their communities (e.g., Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2013), little is known about nonhost residents' reactions toward mega-event development, event legacies, and the outcomes generated by event-induced tourism activities. Also, prior studies examining nonhost city residents' perceptions of the impacts of mega-events

have been centred on Western cultural contexts (e.g., Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012), or focused on destinations that have hosted some of the event competitions (e.g., Chien, Ritchie, Shipway, & Henderson, 2012). Given the scope and size of certain mega-events such as the Olympic and Paralympic Games, they can generate positive impacts including global media exposure, development of infrastructure, and facilitation of trade, which are likely to spill over to nonhost communities; however, concurrently, negative consequences, such as environmental damage, traffic congestion, and increased crime, are often inevitable (Liu, Broom, & Wilson, 2014). Thus, there is a growing view that the impacts of mega-events must also be understood from the nonhost community's perspective (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002).

Despite the government's ambitious plan to further develop Japan's international tourism capabilities via the hosting of mega-events, there is a limited understanding of how residents, especially those living in nonhost cities, feel about such a development. To extend the current understanding, this proposed study uses the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games as the context, and aims to achieve the following: (1) investigate nonhost residents' perceptions of the impacts associated with the forthcoming mega-event (i.e., the Tokyo 2020 Games) and the related inbound tourism growth in Japan; (2) understand the psychological mechanisms that underlie nonhost residents' responses; and (3) explore factors that influence nonhost residents' support of such mega-events. The proposed methods are discussed in the following section.

METHODS

To address the research aims, an online survey

will be conducted with residents in Osaka, which represents a nonhost city. Residents in Tokyo (host city residents) will also be surveyed for comparison purposes. A total of 600 residents from Osaka (N = 300) and Tokyo (N = 300) will be recruited from a consumer panel to participate in the study during the first half of 2019. Osaka was chosen as the nonhost city context based on its historical rivalry with Tokyo as well as its comparative geographical position.

Prior studies commonly adopted social exchange theory or the theory of reasoned action to explain residents' perceptions or attitudes toward mega-event development (e.g., Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Prayag et al., 2013). Findings, however, have been inconsistent. Anecdotal evidence also implies that residents would forgo economic benefits in exchange for peace and quiet in the community (Force, 2016). This research aspires to investigate the phenomenon from a different theoretical angle to provide an alternative explanation. Drawing on social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), nonhost residents' responses toward mega-events can be explained based on their identification with the community or region, referring to the construal of self through the lens of group membership, together with associated values and emotional significance (Greenaway, Wright, Willingham, Reynolds, & Haslam, 2015). Thus, the study attempts to examine how people's identification with their city manifests in their assessment of mega-event development. The measurement scales for the key constructs such as attitude towards the mega-event and perception of event legacies will be adapted from prior literature (e.g., Chien et al., 2012; Li, Hsu, & Lawton, 2014; Pappas, 2014; Prayag et al., 2013). Nonidentifying demographic data will also be collected for profiling purposes.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This paper introduced a research project that aims to provide the crucial first step to understanding nonhost residents' attitudes and perceptions of the impacts associated with mega-events, through focusing on the Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games as the context. The string of mega-events in the next few years are expected to generate a tourism influx not only in the host destination but also in nonhost destinations

in Japan. As a result, residents may find themselves in a dilemma where trade-offs need to be made between making individual sacrifices in the short run and considering the potential collective good of the community in the long run. This is a timely topic as it addresses an emerging challenge for many Japanese communities in the face of forthcoming mega-events and rapid tourism growth.

This study is expected to extend current understanding in the literature through comparative studies. This research will provide a rigorous test of the relationship between variables and offer robust findings regarding nonhost residents' responses to mega-event development, by testing the research propositions in different socio-cultural contexts. Specifically, it will extend the current research scope from a Western cultural focus to an Eastern cultural context. It will further compare responses of residents from a host and a nonhost setting. The study is then expected to inform the design and development of future research on nonhost residents' evaluations of mega-event legacies.

Lastly, findings are also expected to provide market intelligence for community planners, tourism marketers, and policy makers, such as local governments and destination marketing organisations, in terms of mega-event leveraging strategies and tourism development policies. They will provide useful insights into the development and maintenance of quality of life in communities and how to enhance their competitiveness in a rapidly changing social and economic environment in Japan.

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THE FRAMEWORK FOR CONSERVATION AND UTILIZATION OF HISTORICAL BUILDINGS – CASE STUDIES FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM AND JAPAN

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Tomomi Hanai

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INTRODUCTION

There are a lot of historical and cultural build buildings such as temples, shrines and etc. Some of those historical buildings have been enlisted as cultural properties under "the Act on Protection of Cultural Properties" because of historical and artistic values. The Japanese government has recently installed the system and policy framework to conserve and utilize valuable historical buildings with the Landscape Act and Act on Maintenance and Improvement of Traditional Scenery in Certain Districts. However, some of the historical buildings, which have not been enlisted and safeguarded with the policy framework, have been demolished and deteriorated in some areas.

The issues on Japanese national policy and methodologies of conservation and utilization have been discussed among academicians and practitioners who major in tourism development, urban planning, Japanese architectural history and etc. The role and issues on "the Act on Protection of Cultural Properties", which have made beautiful landscapes and historical buildings remained are studied by Goto (2006, 2008, 2009, 2012).

In spite of abundant studies on the policy framework of enlisted historical buildings, there are insufficient studies and research papers focused on the researches of the property owner and management side of non-enlisted historical buildings in Japan. On the one hand, some cases of conversion and renovation of the historical building have appeared recently in Japan. On the other hand, a charity organization has conserved and

converted historical buildings into accommodation in the United Kingdom. The non-profit organization called the Landmark Trust initiated its activities in 1965. Since then, many historical buildings have been managed and conserved by *the Landmark Trust*.

Nowadays, accommodating in historical buildings have become popular among tourists in Japan. And some private companies have initiated their business which revitalizes historical buildings and converged into other roles. However, the history of conservation and renovation of the historical buildings in Japan is short and the sustainability of the business is unclear. In order to obtain a clue to make the activities sustainable, it is important to clarify the Landmark Trust's activities for Japan and other Asian countries. Hence, this study aims to grasp a hint to construct the framework of conservation and preservation of historical buildings with case studies in the U.K. and Japan.

METHOD

Data for this paper were mainly drawn from ethnographic fieldwork research done in August 2018. In order to clarify the sustainability of each player, we focused on their business models. And methodologies for the purpose of this study were desktop and interview researches of *the Landmark Trust* in the U.K. and *Value Management Co., Ltd.*

FINDINGS

One of the factors contributing to the stable

(2012).

歴史的建造物・町並み保存をめぐる制度的課題.
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THE EFFECTS OF WESTERN FOREIGN TOURISTS' MOTIVATION AND SATISFACTION ON REVISIT INTENTION FOR VIETNAM: THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF GENDER, PAST VISIT EXPERIENCES, AND TRAVEL ARRANGEMENTS

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INTRODUCTION

Today's Vietnam sports a diverse blend of major tourism products to attract travelers, with examples including a rich cultural and historical milieu, natural beauty, adventure tours, spiritual outings, and more. Vietnam was chosen as the study location for this investigation precisely because of its increased popularity among international tourists and growing list of tourism offerings. Further, this investigation is warranted as, within the tourism context, few empirical studies have been conducted in regard to Vietnam (Truong & King, 2009).

Motivation has been defined as "a state of need or a condition that propels an individual to take a certain action that elicits satisfaction" (Moutinho, 2000). It is one of the major determinants of tourist behavior. Satisfaction itself is also critical to a successful destination enterprise as tourist satisfaction drives the selection of, spending in, and revisit inclination toward destinations (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Supporting and building that revisit intention has garnered wide scholarly interest because it is crucial for discerning effective marketing approaches (Kim et al., 2015). However, relatively little empirical evidence exists shedding light on the interrelationships among Western foreign tourists' motivations and satisfaction levels and their revisit intentions for Vietnam. In addition, there is scant research examining the moderating effect of demographics and travel characteristics in this context (Hsieh et al., 2016) on the research variables. The present study fills this research gap by exploring the relationships among motivation (push and pull factors), tourist satisfaction, and revisit intention for

Vietnam among actual visitors. In addition, the study examines the moderating effect of gender difference, prior visit experiences, and travel arrangements (i.e., packaged tours, fully independent tours, and backpacker tours) on the research variables.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Travel motivations: 'Push' and 'Pull' factors

In the push-pull factors proposed by Dann (1977), push factors refer to "the internal drivers/desires of the tourists in pursuing a traveling activity while pull factors are the destination's attributes that attract travelers and choose the destination." Push factors arise out of individuals' internal psychological forces, while pull factors are derived from external destination attributes (Dann, 1977). Both push and pull motivators, in their many forms, drive people to undertake travel and select particular destinations (Wong et al., 2017).

Relationships between travel satisfaction and revisit intention

According to Chen and Chen (2010), satisfaction manifests when tourists compare their pre-travel expectations to their actual travel experiences and come away with a positive feeling; if the comparison results in negative feelings, the result is dissatisfaction. Similarly, relevant studies have investigated revisit intention, identifying a number of factors that influence the revisit intention. Previous researches have also found that the relationship of between satisfaction and behavioral intention is positive, but they caution that this effect differs according to between and situations

(Szymanski & Henard, 2001). Ultimately, though, it seems clearly established that tourist satisfaction will enhance revisit intention while dissatisfaction will undermine it.

Interrelationships between push and pull motivations, overall satisfaction, and revisit intention

A plethora of research has demonstrated that push factors and overall tourist satisfaction are positively related (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Pull motivators are also positively and significantly associated with traveler satisfaction (Battour et al., 2012). It is established that motivation is an antecedent of revisit intention (Bigne et al., 2001). At least one study has posited that motivation affects revisit intention because motivation initiates travel behavior in the first place (Hsu & Lam, 2003). Prior studies have attempted to extend the theoretical and empirical evidences on the causal relationships among the push and pull motivations, satisfaction, and behavioral intention (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). One such study examined how motivated intersected with travel intentions (Jang et al., 2009), while others have shown direct effects for motivation on behavioral intentions and indirect effects filtered through constructs such as satisfaction (Beerli & Martin, 2004).

Past visit experience and gender difference

Push and pull factors differ according to certain socio-demographic characteristics (Collins & Tisdell, 2002). Relevant studies have attempted to examine differences across individuals' perceptions by gender (Rita et al., in press). They have also attempted to examine the influence of socio-

demographic and travel characteristics on motivations (Kim & Prideaux, 2005). Adam (2015) found that repeat-visiting visitors had lower risk perceptions than first-time visitors. The former developed a more positive destination image than the latter, resulting in higher revisit intentions. Teitler-Regev et al. (2015) revealed that individuals' perceptions and selections depended on their previous visit experiences in particular destinations. Based on the above literature review, this study's hypotheses are presented below, followed by the conceptual model for this current study in Figure 1:

H1: Tourists' motivation (push) has a positive influence on travel satisfaction.

H2: Tourists' motivation (pull) has a positive influence on travel satisfaction.

H3: Tourists' motivation (push) has a positive influence on their intention to revisit for Vietnam.

H4: Tourists' motivation (pull) has a positive influence on their intention to revisit for Vietnam.

H5: Travel satisfaction has a positive influence on intention to revisit for Vietnam.

H6: Gender significantly moderates the relationship between motivations, travel satisfaction, and intention to revisit for Vietnam.

H7: Past visit experience significantly moderates the relationship between motivations, travel satisfaction, and intention to revisit for Vietnam.

H8: Travel arrangements (i.e., packaged, fully independent, and backpacker tours) significantly moderates the relationship between motivations, travel satisfaction, and intention to revisit for Vietnam.

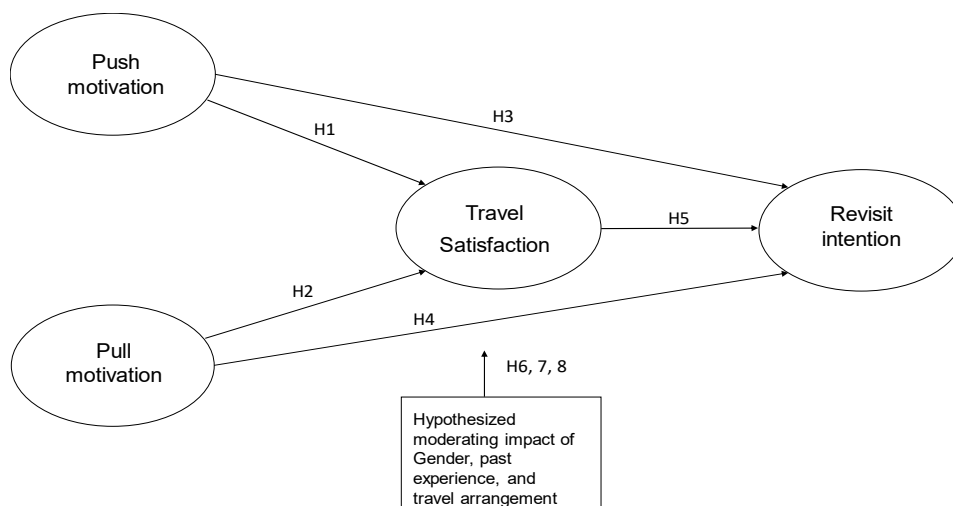


Figure 1. The conceptual framework

METHOD

Data collection

The empirical data for the study will be collected from Western foreigners who speak English at various tourist sites and major tourism destination areas in Da Nang and Hoi An, two famous and popular destinations in Vietnam. The data will be collected from respondents approached randomly at major attractions such as museums, beaches, and so on. Surveys will be distributed to actual tourists. Questionnaires will be collected by well-trained interviewers consisting of two college/graduate students. Prior to asking tourists to participate in the survey, interviewers will assess potential respondents' nationalities and ascertain whether can speak English comfortably.

Measurement

Multi-measurement items were used for each latent construct including motivation, travel satisfaction, and revisit intention using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree). Participants will rate statements asking about what motivated them to visit Vietnam (e.g., Ho & Peng, 2017) (e.g., "Vietnam offers cultural events featuring food and traditions"). Travel satisfaction has been adapted from previous studies (e.g., Kim et al., 2010) (e.g., "I feel satisfied with my trip to Vietnam"). Finally, revisit intention toward Vietnam will be tested with items selected from existing literature (e.g., Song et al., 2012). An example of a statement that will be used to measure this construct is "I would like to return to Vietnam in the future."

Data analysis

In line with to two steps suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), confirmatory factor analysis will be used to check the proposed measurement model (Hair et al., 2010). The maximum likelihood method will provide the fit of the structural equation model, which will show whether the data accurately fit the theoretical model and the chosen hypotheses. Additionally, as this study targets gender groups, discerns between groups with prior visit experience and those without, and compares the impact of disparate travel arrangements (i.e., packaged, fully independent, and backpacker tours), testing for differential effects

between groups will be conducted with a chi-square difference between the constrained and unconstrained models using various degrees of freedom (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

CONCLUSION

In recent years, the number of international travelers arriving in Vietnam has increased dramatically. There are limited studies investigating the interrelationships among travel motivations, satisfaction, and revisit intentions for Vietnam. As this study will examine actual international visitors' perceptions, it will help enhance tourism marketing strategies to attract still more foreign visitors. It will also enable operators to develop and differentiate strategies based on its robust examination of travelers' perceptions according to gender, prior visit experience, and travel arrangements (i.e., packaged, fully independent tour, and backpacker tour).

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GAINING COMPETITIVE ADVANTAGE THROUGH INNOVATION AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN HOSPITALITY

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INTRODUCTION

In view of the fact that innovation and entrepreneurship are major trends in the tourism and hospitality industry and that the entry technology for the tourism and hospitality industry is easier for start-ups than it is for high-tech industries and small and medium-sized enterprises with low thresholds for investment, the demand for business start-ups by the general public has become increasingly frequent. The larger the cultivation of talent is, the more intense it is. At present, foreign countries have begun to pay more attention to the tourism and hospitality industry for innovation and entrepreneurship (Lee et al., 2016; Weiermair et al., 2006; Zapalska et al., 2004), and there is a lack of integration and comprehensiveness. Most studies only focus on the entrepreneur's personal characteristics, the entrepreneur's personal factors, or entrepreneurial psychology (Hisrich, 1990; Littunen, 2000; Ramos-Rodriguez et al., 2012; Zapalska et al., 2004). Compared with previous single-level discussion, this study will explore and test the key elements of innovation and entrepreneurship in the tourism and hospitality industry.

To address these research gaps, this paper contributes to the existing literature on innovation and entrepreneurship in the following ways: First, the paper presents a multidimensional view of hotel innovation and entrepreneurship and a conceptual framework to examine what elements might affect hotel operators' implementation of innovation and entrepreneurship practices for future empirical studies. Second, the paper develops an effective and predictive instrument to capture the perceptions of innovation and entrepreneurship in hotels. Third, the paper provides practitioners (hotel managers)

with a framework for developing and structuring dimensions to ensure a set of innovation and entrepreneurship expectations. In summary, this paper first reviews the relevant literature on innovation and entrepreneurship to build the main conceptual framework of innovation and entrepreneurship in hospitality management. Against this background, the framework is then used as a basis for conducting an expert analysis of the dimensions of hotel innovation and entrepreneurship. The paper concludes with a discussion of the results, research limitations and future research possibilities.

METHOD

The results of this study, which included 228 hotel-related entrepreneurs, provide support for this model across various dimensions of hotel innovation and entrepreneurship. The sample demographic had more female (61.0%) respondents than male (38.7%). Most respondents worked in the housekeeping department (31.1%). The largest group of respondents (37.1%) contained mid-level executives. Of all hotel types, the largest group of respondents worked in a business hotel (42.2%).

The current study conducted CFAs for each of the four constructs independently to test the goodness-of-fit of each construct. The results of the independently constructed CFAs indicate the goodness-of-fit of each of the construct measurement models. Second, this study examined the hypothesis model by identifying the causal relationships among variables to determine the overall structural model fit. Finally, the present study conducted additional tests concerning the robustness of the structural model findings to compare the best fit for this study. Testing and

comparing models can help assess the robustness of the structural model.

FINDINGS

The present study found relationships among entrepreneurial motivation, market orientation, and competitive advantage and a mediating effect of market orientation. The results also confirmed that organizational learning moderates the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and market orientation. That is, organizational learning will enhance entrepreneurial motivation and then

improve market orientation.

The full structural model was tested to verify the relationships among the variables (i.e., entrepreneurial motivation, market orientation, and competitive advantage). Figure 1 summarizes the overall model fit and relationships among the measured variables. The result of the chi-square (χ^2) test for model fit was significant. However, other fit indices should also be considered. The values obtained for the other indices indicated that the model fits the data well ($\chi^2 = 169.96$, CFI = .99, GFI = .93, SRMR = .045, RMSEA = .069).

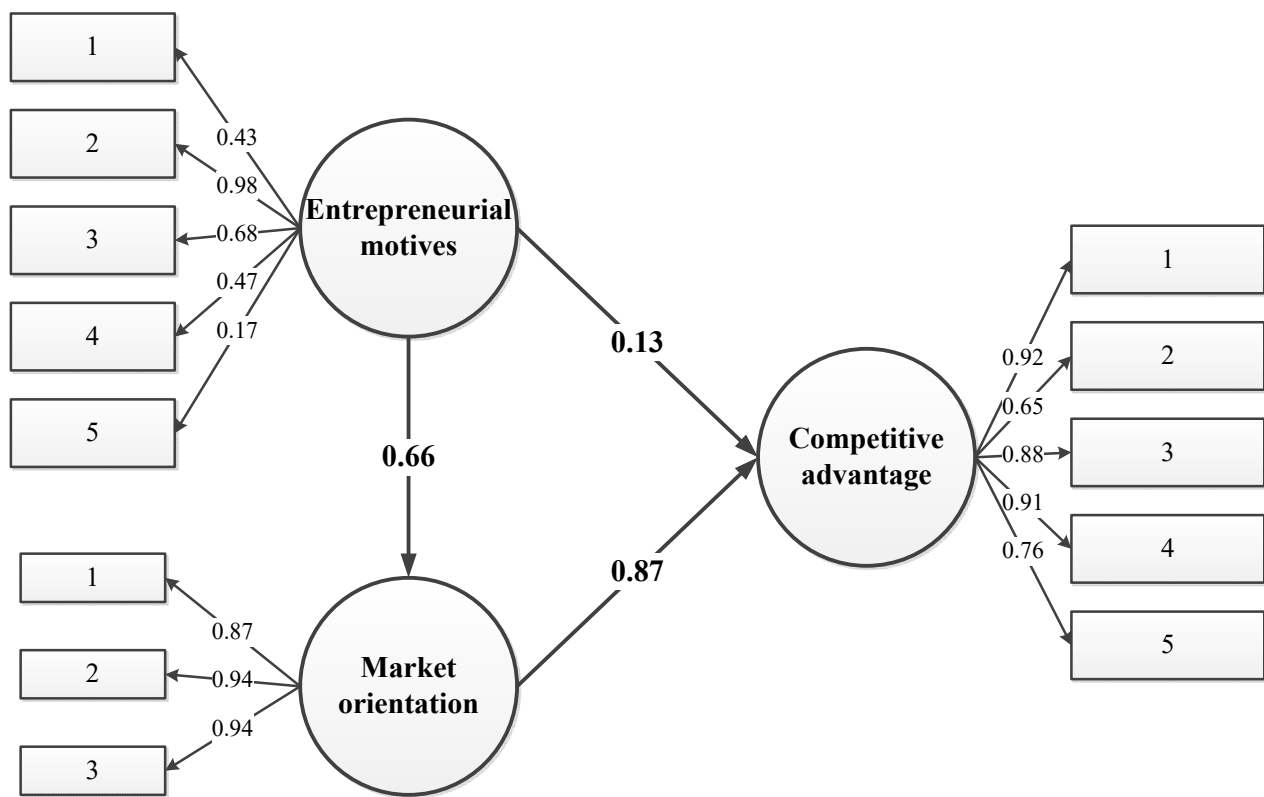


Figure 1. Path Diagram

The results for the standardized values of the hypothesized path estimates in the integrated model are summarized in Figure 1. Hypothesis 1 proposed that entrepreneurial motivation is positively related to market orientation. Consistent with Hypotheses 1, entrepreneurial motivation was positively related to market orientation ($\beta = .66$). Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive relationship between market orientation and competitive advantage, and their interaction was significant ($\beta = .87$). Thus,

Hypothesis 2 was supported. In the mediating effect proposition, Hypothesis 3 proposed that market orientation mediates the relationship between entrepreneurial motivation and competitive advantage. This study found a significantly positive mediating effect of market orientation between entrepreneurial motivation and competitive advantage ($\beta = .57$). Consequently, Hypothesis 3 was supported. Table 1 summarizes the direct and indirect effects of the research findings.

Table 1. Summarize the Direct and Indirect Effects

Paths	Direct effects	Indirect effects	Total effects	Hypothesis	Support
Entrepreneurial motives ® Market orientation	0.66			H1	Yes
Market orientation ® Competitive advantage	0.13			H2	Yes
Entrepreneurial motives ® Market orientation ® Competitive advantage		0.57	0.70	H3	Yes

Hypothesis 4 predicted that organizational learning moderates the relationships between entrepreneurial motives and market orientation.

Hypothesis 4 was supported. Table 2 summarizes the moderation analysis of the research findings.

Table 2. Multi-Group Analysis

Path	χ^2		df	$\Delta\chi^2$
Unlimited pattern	1415.09		208	--
Entrepreneurial motives ® Market orientation	1431.87		209	16.78***
Path	High		Low	
	Estimates	t-value	Estimates	t-value
Entrepreneurial motives ® Market orientation	0.69	7.31***	0.37	4.67***

“High” and “Low” mean the relative score of organizational learning.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we surveyed 228 entrepreneurs in hospitality innovation and entrepreneurship. Those entrepreneurs who identified the least inclusive conceptions are only able to use a single approach. On the other hand, those entrepreneurs who identified the most inclusive conceptions are able to maintain their focus on the innovation and entrepreneurship of a hotel but can use the entire range of approaches to support their experience. We were confident that the entrepreneurs in our study understood the research directions. The results of the present analysis have described actual differences and now provide us with information that can be used in the future to develop the concepts of innovation and entrepreneurship in hospitality.

In conclusion, this article’s claim that too little research has been carried out on hotel innovation and entrepreneurship has been confirmed. Most of the studies that have been published thus far focus on either innovation or entrepreneurship in terms of hotels, where the topic has been of significant interest in the context of future hospitality

development. The findings of this study provide fundamental information for effective future innovation and entrepreneurship strategies for hotels, particularly in Taiwan.

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EXPLORING TOURISTS' INTENTIONS OF USING SELF SERVICE TECHNOLOGY BASED ON VALENCE THEORY – A CASE OF AIRPORT SELF-CHECK-IN SYSTEM

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INTRODUCTION

With the development of new technologies and the consideration of reducing operating costs, self-service technology is widely used in various industries. In the airline industry, the self-check-in system dramatically speeds up the check in process. According to the International Air Transport Association (2018), the use of self-service check-in counter can reduce operation cost by US\$2.50 each transaction. The adoption of the self-service check-in counter not only allows passengers to check in by themselves, but also provides seat-selection options and other revenue generating services. Hsu, Chao and Shih (2012) revealed that users of self-service check kiosks have less waiting time and better utilization of machines. Although self-service technology brings cost benefits and convenience, the popularity of this technology in many Asian airports is still low. We are curious about this phenomenon. Thus, we intend to investigate travelers' intention to use airport self-service technology. We narrow down our scope in the following hypothesis:

What are the factors affecting tourists' decisions to use the self-service check-in system? And, which factors are more influential?

This study integrates the Valence Theory and the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) to derive a new model for explaining the above research questions. Valence theory has been widely employed in economic and psychology research (Lin, Wang, Wang, & Lu, 2014). This theory assumes that consumer's decision-making process is rational (Peter & Tarpey, 1975). According to the theory, rational people would assess perceived risks and

perceived benefits before using a product or service. The goal in the decision process seeks to acquire a net valence of having more benefits over the risks (or cost) (Peter & Tarpey, 1975; Kim, Cho, & Rao, 2000; Lin et al., 2014).

It is possible that tourists' adoption self-service check-in system is influenced by both negative and positive valence factors. In this study, based our literature review, we identified five negative valences and four positive valences. The five negative factors are: Inertia, Need for Interaction, Privacy Concern, Technology Anxiety, and Perceived Risk. The four positive factors are: Relative Advantage, Perceived Usefulness, Perceived Ease of Use, Convenience, and Time Saving.

The results of this study can provide implications for airline managers, industry-related personnel, and academics. The findings can also help airline managers understand the factors that affect passengers' use of self-service check-in kiosks at airport. The results may also suggest ways to improve self-service check-in kiosks, to increase the usage rate of self-service check-in kiosks, to reduce the operational costs, to enhance the service quality, and consequently to enhance the company's competitiveness.

METHOD

Based on literature review on similar topics in the tourism industry, we developed a survey instrument measuring all constructs in the research model. All items are based on a 7-point Likert scale. In the fall of 2018, we distributed 492 questionnaires for tourists from Zhuhai's and Macau's airports, and

collected 450 valid questionnaires. The measurement scales were adapted from previous research and changes were applied to some items to reflect the

Self-service check-in in the airport operation context. Both SPSS and Smart PLS statistical analysis tools were used to analyze the data.

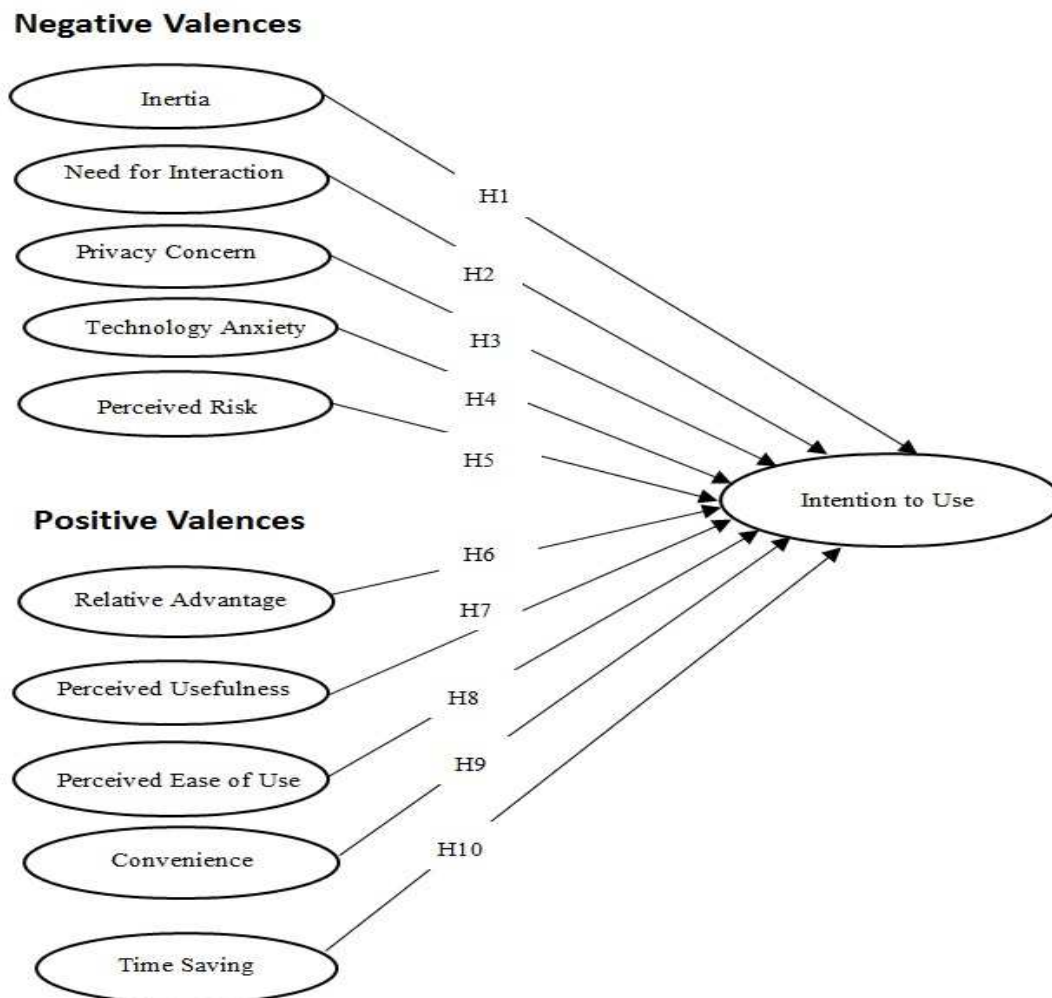


Figure 1. Research Model

We tested the internal validity and reliability of our instrument with descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha. The resulting Cronbach's alpha values are all higher than 0.90. The majority of the values are higher than 0.7 (All of Outer Loading are higher than 0.8 ; All of Average Variance Extracted are higher than 0.7). We conducted a Confirmatory Factor Analysis to verify our measurement items load correctly in their corresponding Constructs. Then, a Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis was conducted using smartPLS3.

FINDINGS

Our analysis discovered a few interesting, and somewhat surprising results. First of all, all five positive valence factors ("Relative Advantage", "Perceived Usefulness", "Perceived Ease of Use", "Convenience", and "Time Saving") have a significant impact on the "Intention to Use". However, among four negative valence factors, two negative valence factors ("Inertia" and "Privacy Concern") are not significant to impact "Intention to Use". And also, three negative valence factors ("Need for Interaction", "Technology Anxiety", and "Perceived Risk") have a positive impact on the "Intention to Use".

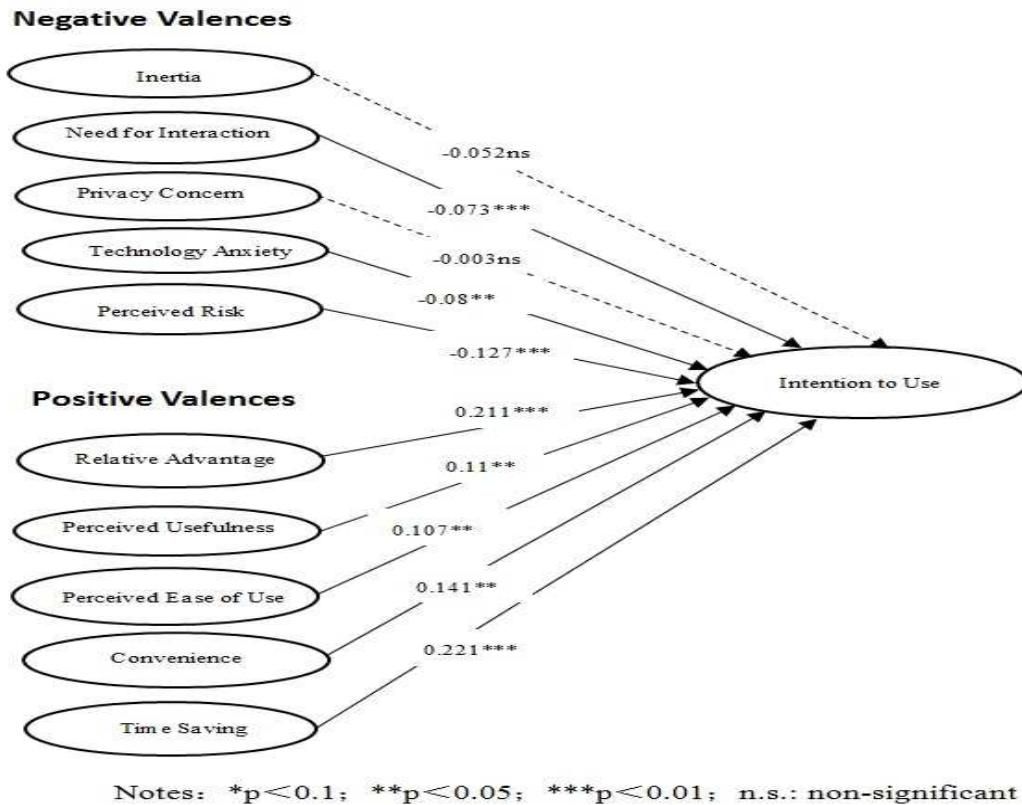


Figure 2 Structural Model

CONCLUSION

This study sought to examine whether selected valence factors can influence tourists' decisions to use the self-service check-in system in the airport. From the results, all five positive valences (i.e., time saving) and three negative valence factors (i.e., technology anxiety) were significant factors for intention to use. These outcomes suggest that customers can be convinced to use self-service check-in system for saving time reason and for other benefits such as perceived convenience and seat selection options. Therefore, the airline industry should provide more kiosks with improved easy-to-use system and enhanced security. Finally, with Valence Theory and the TAM, this research has expanded into a new research field and can provide a theoretical basis for the future related research.

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SPATIAL AND TEMPORAL DYNAMICS OF TOURIST BEHAVIORS: APPLICATION OF BIG DATA ANALYTICS

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INTRODUCTION

The majority of extant tourism literature has focused on tourist behaviors, particularly at the pre-trip stage, to understand how people plan their trips. However, it has been recognized that travelers do not necessarily behave in ways that are consistent with their plans (March & Woodside, 2005). Instead, travel behaviors are flexible and may change at the destination, due to the amount of information accessible via mobile phones and to various personal and contextual issues (Park & Fesenmaier, 2014). Accordingly, tourism managers face challenges in achieving insights into the complex travel behavior of tourists. Nevertheless, there is little research investigating tourists' behaviors and/or dynamic movement while they are visiting destinations. Recent advancements in information technology (e.g., mobile technology and social media) enables researchers to obtain comprehensive and subtle data—mobile sensor or geotagged information—describing tourist behaviors at a destination.

From the DMO's perspective, using advanced technology to collect real-time data on tourists' movement and activities provides golden opportunities to make destinations innovative by developing a tourism recommendation system. The recommendation system is the foundation of achieving smart destinations, a term which refers to an innovative tourist destination built on an infrastructure of state-of-the-art technology that facilitates the visitor's interaction (Gretzel, Sigala, Xiang, & Koo, 2015). The promise of a smart destination brings about an exponential increase in data by several orders of magnitude (Hashem et al., 2016). It is vital for tourism marketers to discover important insights by big data analytics. Indeed, Lamsfus, Martín, Alzua-Sorzabal, and Torres-Manzanera (2015) have stressed the

significance of understanding human mobility equipped with technological infrastructure, which better understand travel patterns and ultimately provide customized information with tourists based upon a context-awareness.

Accordingly, this research introduces not only a mobile sensor, but also credit card data, and suggests methodological techniques to analyze tourism big data. Thanks to sensor technology, the location information of a mobile device can be recorded on a regular basis. Big data generated from the mobile network system contain rich information covering a large representative population. More specifically, the findings of this research suggest not only inter-destination (or macro) but also intra-destination (or micro) movement patterns of international travelers visiting Jeonju city in South Korea (McKercher & Lau, 2007). Besides, credit card data include information about travelers' activities, along with transaction records, while visiting the destination. These information allows tourism researchers to assess temporal spatial patterns as well as activities of travelers at a destination. As a result, the findings of this research will suggest ways to develop destination planning/marketing and capacity management for tourism policy-makers (Shoval, Isaacson, & Chhetri, 2014).

LITERATURE REVIEW

Mobile Positioning Data

The vigorous development of mobile sensors brings about high accuracy and massive amount of spatial and temporal information for mobile users (Shoval & Ahas, 2016). There are, in general, four types of mobile data, such as Global Positioning Systems (GPS) positioning, Wi-Fi positioning, Bluetooth positioning, and Cellular network-based positioning (Hardy et al., 2017; Wang, He, &

Leung, 2018). GPS positioning is a method to identify location of mobile phone devices using the radio wave signals transferred by satellite systems. GPS system enables researchers to constantly attain data with high resolution representing spatial and temporal movement of people holding a GPS device. Recognizing the benefits of GPS positioning method, tourism researchers have employed the method to discover travel patterns in various contexts. For example, the GPS tracking tools have been used to identify the relationship between visitor flows and levels of crowding at a national park in Victoria, Australia (O'Connor, Zerger, & Itami, 2005). The study suggests not only typologies of tourist behaviors, but also destination strategy to manage infrastructure capacity at the national park. A series of McKercher's studies have used GPS methods to track travelers' movement at a destination. The study by Shoval, McKercher, Ng, and Birenboim (2011) asked inbound tourists to carry out GPS loggers tracking trajectory while traveling a Hong Kong destination. They identified spatial and temporal patterns of international travelers, such as certain places where people have mostly spent time according to different hot places at the destination. McKercher, Hardy, and Aryal (2019) applied the GPS approach with a smartphone app, which enables researchers to identify stay points for each grid contained cells of 20m x 20m. The study suggested travelers' varying movement patterns between different travel purposes visiting the destination.

Recently, many of tourism destinations offer people Wi-Fi access points, facilitating to connecting wireless Internet through received signal strength indication (RSSI) technique (Kotaru, Joshi, Bharadia, & Katti, 2015). Wi-Fi refers to a wireless protocol replacing a standard line network, in order to enable people to use the Internet with a broadband speed, when connected to a access point (Hashem et al., 2016). Consistently, for the purpose of enhancing wireless information exchange among mobile phones within a certain region (usually 100 meters), current mobile phones include a Bluetooth system. When a mobile user passes by a beacon device, his/her locational and time-based information is recorded (Barcelö, Montero, Marqués, & Carmona, 2010). A study by Versichele et al. (2014) proposed a

methodology to better understand spatiotemporal tourism behavior by analyzing Bluetooth tracking data. The findings of the study discovered associations of attractions for different visitor segments and moreover visualizing the complicated results in pattern maps. They identified a tendency of visitors in the center and outside of a city between tourist attractions.

Last, cellular network-based positioning data are collected by telecom companies to improve cellular networks with large spatial coverage and ultimately provides subscribers with high quality of mobile communication services (Wang et al., 2018). The spatial resolution, in fact, relies on a radius of cellular towers, which varies with different telecom companies and regions. In case of China, it is recognized that the radius of VRS in urban areas is between 100 to 500 meters; the radius in suburban areas is between 400 and 1,000 meters (Wang et al., 2018). There has been a critical concern to manage network infrastructure (cellular towers) because this issue is related to the communication quality and operating cost. Thus, in order to alleviate reliance on proprietary hardware, a method of network function virtualization (NFV) or virtual reference station (VRS) has been developed (Hashem et al., 2016; Hawilo, Shami, Mirahmadi, & Asal, 2014). NFV is an innovative technology in mobile communication transferring hardware-based networks into software-based applications. This evolution generates a number of benefits including scalability (accuracy of mobile location), performance improvement (the service quality) and operating expenditures.

Based on reviewing the relevant literature, GPS, Bluetooth, and Wi-Fi data face significant challenges particularly when tracking tourists over an extended time and area. It is observed that previous studies analyzing those mobile data are likely to focus on a day trip (or daily trajectory). Some of reasons may be (1) limited battery life of GPS devices; (2) difficulties collecting the devices after trips longer than a day (3) restricted signals at indoors or highly urbanized places (Hardy et al., 2017). As a result, this study argues that cellular network-based positioning derived from NFV have potentials to address the limitations, ultimately allowing researchers to investigate more inclusive understanding of travel behaviors.

Analysis of geographical information in tourism research

In general, travel diaries is a method that have largely been used to collect information on tourists' movements (Mckercher & Lau, 2008). People are required to annotate their routes and stop places as well as activities on the map in a daily dairy. However, it has been recognized that due to large reliance on tourists' recall of details, the accuracy of information and details of movement including specific routes and time taken to arrive at and stay in a place are restricted (Shoval et al., 2014; Thimm & Seepold, 2016).

Recently, the emergence of social media websites (photo-sharing systems: flickers, TripAdvisor etc.) and mobile technology facilitates for tourism researchers to obtain a large amount of geographical (or geotagged; georeferenced) information of travelers (Salas-Olmedo, Moya-Gómez, García-Palomares, & Gutiérrez, 2018; Zheng, Zha, & Chua, 2012). Indeed, travelers are likely to share their photos as a way to express their travel experiences by sharing location where and time when they visited certain places. Reviewing tourism literature, it is found that most of tourism studies have used this geographical information to understand travel trajectory patterns. Since nature of the geospatial resources is unstructured format, a variety of analytical approaches to identifying insights have been used, such as spatial cluster method, Markov chain model, and association pattern mining as well as 2D and 3D spatial visualization methods (Zheng et al., 2012).

Leung, Vu, Rong, and Miao (2016) proposed a method to estimate travel statistics by analyzing geotagged photos uploaded by travelers in Flickr. They used a density-based clustering algorithm to identify popularity of temples in Hong Kong and visit behaviors across nationality and time. The similar method was applied to assessing spatiotemporal patterns of tourist accommodations in Vienna (Sun, Fan, Helbich, & Zipf, 2013). The study of Vu, Li, Law, and Ye (2015) extended the

methodological diversity from spatial clustering application into Markov chain model assisting tourists' movement trajectories. In addition, they presented different tourist traffic flow between Asian and Western tourists. In addition to tourism studies focusing on specific city and/or district, the geographical data are useful to develop destination marketing from a macro perspective – country by country. Applying travel diaries analysis, Vu, Li, Law, and Zhang (2018) suggested the destinations significantly associated on the basis of sequential travel patterns.

METHOD

Data Collection

In order to address the research purposes, the researchers were able to access privileged mobile roaming datasets of international travelers who visited South Korea during the last 12 months (August 1st, 2017 – July 31st, 2018). Jeonju city as one of the most popular tourism cities in South Korea containing a number of heritage and food attractions has been chosen as a case study (see Figure 1). In other words, the datasets include the trajectory data of international travelers who visited Jeonju which facilitate tracking of where (i.e., latitude and longitude of places visited) and when (i.e., arrival and departure time at a place) they have visited during their stays in South Korea. As a result, a total of 1,026,638 trajectory data points were analyzed in this study. The supplementary data set comprise transactional data of credit card used by international travelers who have visited Jeonju city during the last 12 months - 6,485 transaction data. This data set includes not only the types of products purchased and transaction amount, but also when and where the credit cards were used. Please note that this research has retained the anonymity of the subjects in accordance with research ethics. Namely, no information was collected that could potentially enable researchers to identify individuals, such as gender, names, phone numbers, etc.

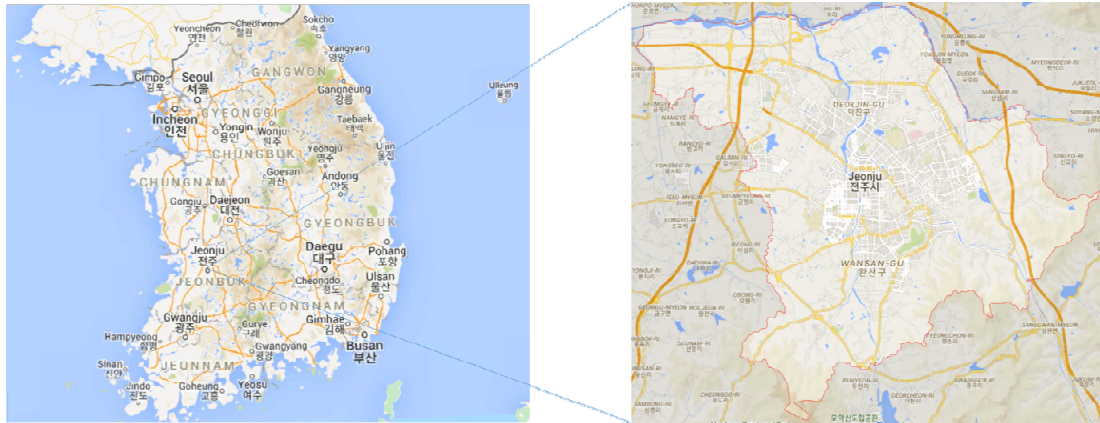


Figure 1. Location of Study Area – South Korea (left) and Jeonju (right)

Data Analysis

A series of big data techniques have been carried out from data pre-processing (e.g., matching trajectory information to suitable coordinates) followed by data transformation, data mining analysis, and evaluation of the results (Miah, Vu, Gammack, & McGrath, 2017) (see Figure 2). For the analysis of mobile data, initially, researchers have conducted a set of data preprocessing that aims at ensuring data quality and avoiding misleading result to a certain degree by removing or reorganizing redundant information before running any analysis (Pyle, 1999). In this study, the data preprocessing step mainly involves data cleaning process that focuses on detecting and processing the spatial and temporal error of data (Wu, Zhu,

Wu, & Ding, 2014). Figure 2 shows a flow map of mobile big data analytics this study follows. Indeed, the data analysis can be classified into inter- and intra-destination. That is, the approach to inter-destination is to understand travel patterns at a district level. Given that Jeonju is a key destination, it shows which districts of South Korea are associated to Jeonju based on travelers’ movement, including point density analysis and association rule mining (Versichele et al., 2014). The analysis of intra-destination is to identify travel behaviors within the destination (Jeonju), including density-based clustering (DBSCAN) and sequential pattern mining (Vu et al., 2018). More detailed descriptions of each analysis are followed.

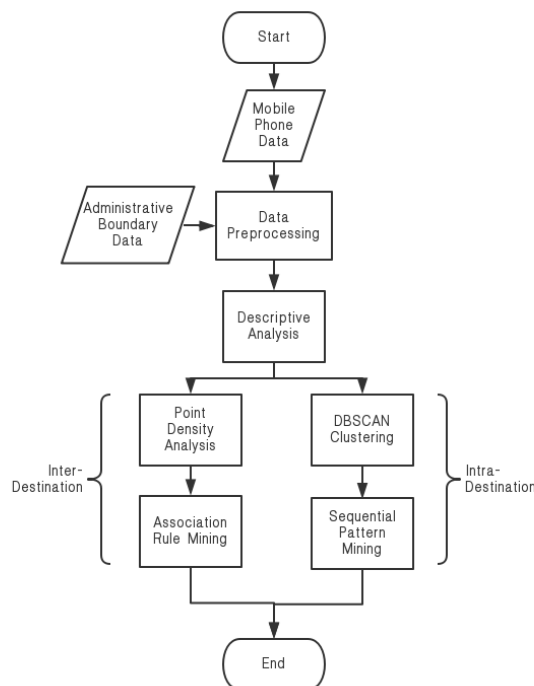


Figure 2. Flow map of spatial big data analytics

Point density analysis is an important spatial analysis that applies spatial interpolation method. Through point density analysis, a continuous surface can be generated based on discrete point data, which can indicate the aggregative distribution and disperse distribution of mobile point data. As the basic unit for computing density value, a neighborhood is defined around each grid. The density value of a particular grid is the total amount of data points that fall within the neighborhood, which hold the same weight to each other, divided by the total area of the neighborhood (Silverman, 2018). As a result, the point density maps represent variations of tourist flow along with temporal and spatial dimensions. In addition, the tourist attractions and public route in target cities are also shown on the point density maps, which is beneficial to the interpretation of analytical results.

As one of the classical data mining approaches, *association rule mining* aims at discovering potential relationships between variables in large databases (Piatetsky-Shapiro, 1991). The association rule mining is widely used to explore the associations in transactions for market basket analysis, which is stemmed from the research of Agrawal, Imieliński, and Swami (1993). Along with the notion of association rule mining, a transaction contains several items purchased by a customer at the same time. An association rule can be represented as $X \Rightarrow Y$, where X and Y are itemsets consist of one item or several items. The association rule means that the presence of X implies the presence of Y in the same transaction. For an association rule $X \Rightarrow Y$, there are three indicators including support, confidence and lift, which can measure the degree of correlation of that rule. Support (XUY) is the ratio of the frequency of transactions containing both X and Y and the number of all the transactions in the dataset. Confidence ($X \Rightarrow Y$) refers to the ratio of support (XUY) and support (X). Lift ($X \Rightarrow Y$) is the ratio of confidence ($X \Rightarrow Y$) and support (Y). The value of lift can reveal the occurrence likelihood of both X and Y . For example, if lift is greater than 1, then X and Y are more likely to show up together. In contrast, if lift is less than 1, then X and Y are not likely to show up together.

As a prevalent method of frequent itemset mining and association rule mining, the Apriori algorithm makes use of a breadth-first search

strategy and a candidate generation function (Agrawal & Srikant, 1994). Based on the downward closure property, the Apriori algorithm (Versichele et al., 2014) makes use of the principle that all subsets of one frequent k -itemset are frequent. Accordingly, it proceeds by identifying the frequent items and extending them to large itemsets when their occurrence frequencies are generating enough in the database. As user-provided constraints, minimum support and minimum confidence are defined to filter strong association rules with relatively higher probabilities. Association rule mining plays significant role in the travel pattern analysis. In this study, the mobile phone data is taken into consideration in the association rule mining. The travel trajectory of each tourist is consist of a serious of locations in a district level ('gu' as census track in South Korea) of their entire trips in South Korea. On basis of support, confidence and lift, the association rule with relatively higher degree of correlation indicates that travelers are more likely to visit those locations together in their trips compared with other locations.

For the analysis of intra-destination, *density-based spatial clustering of applications with noise (DBSCAN)* was employed to group stay points that are close in the space. Widely used in data mining and machine learning, this data clustering algorithm requires two parameters for implementation, which are distance measurement (usually Euclidean distance) and the minimum size of a cluster. Outliers will also be marked in low-density regions. In order to find popular areas of interest, only the stay points visited with a high frequency were used as the input of DBSCAN. In this research, stay point was captured at the level of virtual reference station (VRS). The visiting frequency of a VRS is accumulated once a tourist stayed there for more than 30 minutes. Note that in the clustering process, we filter those VRS that were seldom visited by the mobile users. In particular, by sorting the VRS by frequency in descending order, we select the most active VRS that account for 80% of the total visits for the clustering analysis. The cut-off value would be different for each city, which depends on the respective total visit count. For example, in Jeonju, the frequency threshold is 123, meaning that VRS with a total visiting frequency below 123 (throughout the year) is not included in the

clustering process. The improved DBSCAN starts from the most popular VRS and search for its neighbors within a defined radius, which was chosen as 300 meters for Jeonju in this study. To ensure the same performance of clustering algorithm, the number of clusters would be half of the amount of input VRS in the three cities. The algorithm would group density-connected stations for each cluster. In this project, the minimum size was set to be 1 (i.e., one single VRS can also form a cluster).

Then, an efficient algorithm, *Sequential PAttern Discovery* using Equivalence classes (SPADE) as a type of sequential pattern mining, was utilized to mine frequent sequences. SPADE is an Apriori based vertical formatting method, which performs fast discovery of maximal frequent events and sequences. This algorithm requires minimum support as the parameter as 100 for Jeonju

in this study, Thus, this algorithm will only find the sequences having a frequency more than the minimum support

RESULTS

At the initial stage, descriptive analyses were used to briefly understand travel behaviors when visiting South Korea in general and Jeonju city in particular. As shown in Table 1, the average duration of international travelers visiting South Korea is 7.77 days and 2.52 days in Jeonju city. In terms of travel distance, it is shown 635.42 km during visits to South Korea and 7.37 km in Jeonju City. The number of districts travelers have visited are also calculated. It shows that they have visited 8.33 numbers of districts on average, while visiting South Korea.

Table. 1. Descriptive analysis of International Travelers’ Visiting Behaviors

	Duration (Day)		Distance (km)		No. of districts visited
	Whole South Korea	Within Jeonju city	Whole South Korea	Within Jeonju city	While South Korea
Mean	7.77	2.52	635.42	7.37	8.33

In order to understand more details, Figure 3 and 4 present distributions of duration of travelers in South Korea and Jeonju City, respectively. It can

be said that international travelers mostly visit Korea less than 17 days. The most frequent durations are 4 or 5 days followed by 7 and 8 days.

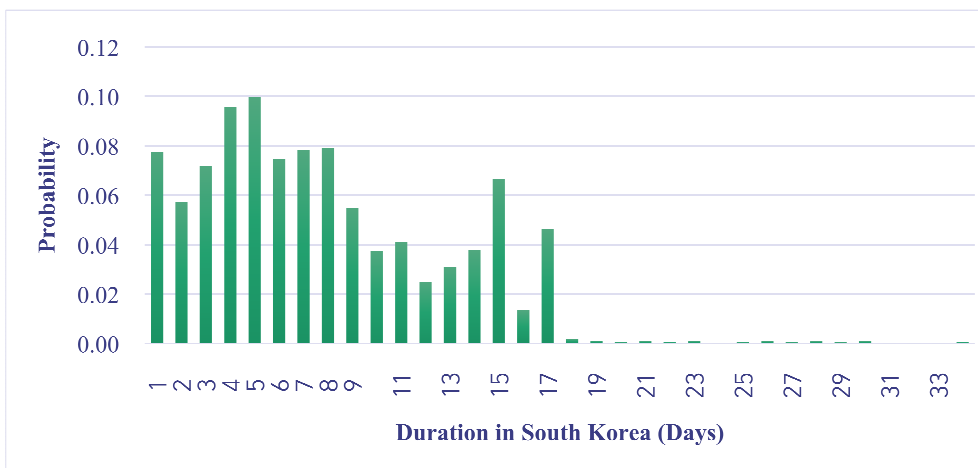


Figure 3. Distribution of Duration of International Travelers in South Korea

Figure 4 presents length of stays o in Jeonju City specifically. About 45% of travelers conduct

a day trip and around 30% of people tend to have an overnight in the city.

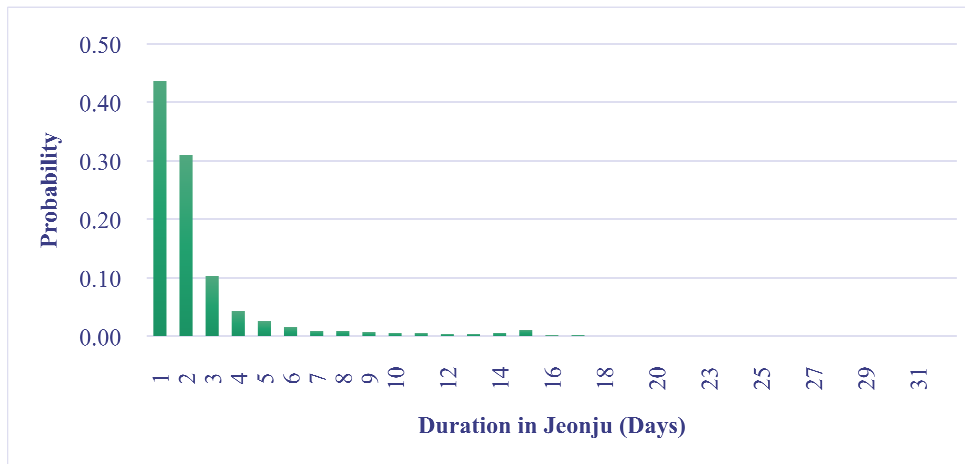


Figure 4. Distribution of duration of international travelers in Jeonju

Inter-Destination Movement Patterns

Figure 5 presents point density of travelers who have visited Jeonju during their trips in Korea. The highest levels of point density on the map are linked to travelers in Seoul, Incheon, and Busan., which are consistent to statistics provided by Korea Tourism Statistics. Indeed, it is shown that

international travelers are less likely to visit east part of South Korea when visiting Jeonju City. Instead, the travel movement has been detected mainly from northwest (Incheon airport or Seoul) to southwest (Gwangju) of Korea. Instead, they tend to visit three cities located in southeast of Korea, such as Daegu, Gyeongju and Busan.

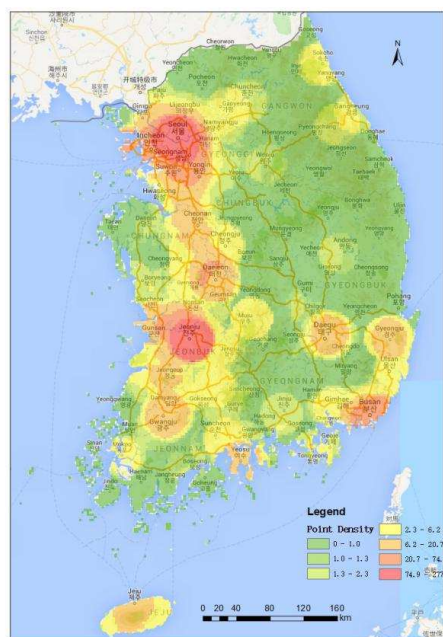


Figure 5. Point density map of mobile roaming data

Then, association rule mining was applied to identify key districts where travelers visited before or after visiting Jeonju (see Table 2). Note that Table 2 shows only selective results of association rule mining. The full results will be provided on request. Seoul has relatively high association with Jeonju

during international travelers' trips in South Korea. The support value of R1 (Rule 1) is 0.2727, which is highly significant and indicates that tourists are likely to visit Jongno-gu of Seoul, Jung-gu of Seoul and Jeonju together in their trips. Similarly, tourists also tend to visit Mapo-gu of Seoul, Jung-gu of

Seoul and Jeonju together, which holds the support of 0.1684. As shown in R3, tourists have a high propensity to visit Jung-gu of Incheon (location of an international airport), Jung-gu of Seoul, Jeonju and Jongno-gu of Seoul together. This pattern is observed in 16% of total patterns. R4, R5, R6 and R8 indicate the high association between Jung-gu of Incheon, Jung-gu of Seoul, Jeonju and Mapo-gu of Seoul, Seodaemun-gu of Seoul, Yongsan-gu of Seoul as well as Gangnam-gu of Seoul respectively. Among the tourists who have been to Jeju-do, there is a large likelihood that they visit Seogwipo-si of Jeju-do, Jeju-si of Jeju-do and Jeonju together by

7% of total associations (R7). Tourists also prefer to visit Jung-gu of Seoul, Jeonju and Jeju-si or Seogwipo-si of Jeju-do together (R10, R12, R14). This means that Jeju-do, a biggest island in South Korea, is an important tourism place to be considered as a package for travelers. Furthermore, Jung-gu of Busan, southeast part of Korea, is another important district to be associated with Jeonju (R9). As a result, it is identified that Seoul, Jeju-do and Busan are key places that significantly associated to Jeonju. That is, travelers tend to visit those three places before or after visiting Jeonju.

Table 2. Selective results of association rule mining for inter-destination patterns

ID	Rule	Support	Confidence	Lift
R1	Seoul/Jongno-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.2727	0.7661	1.7057
R2	Seoul/Mapo-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.1684	0.7188	1.6003
R3	Incheon/Jung-gu, Seoul/Jongno-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.1590	0.8026	1.7869
R4	Incheon/Jung-gu, Seoul/Mapo-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.1043	0.7893	1.7574
R5	Incheon/Jung-gu, Seoul/Seodaemun-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0897	0.8459	1.8833
R6	Incheon/Jung-gu, Seoul/Yongsan-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0763	0.7555	1.6821
R7	Jeju-do/Seogwipo-si \Leftrightarrow Jeju-do/Jeju-si	0.0690	0.9261	10.1818
R8	Incheon/Jung-gu, Seoul/Gangnam-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0676	0.6494	1.4460
R9	Busan/Jung-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0666	0.6100	1.3581
R10	Jeju-do/Jeju-si \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0553	0.6082	1.3541
R11	Gyeongsangbuk-do/Gyeongju-si \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0491	0.6117	1.3620
R12	Jeju-do/Seogwipo-si \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0475	0.6379	1.4202
R13	Busan/Haeundae-gu, Seoul/Jongno-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0462	0.7779	1.7320
R14	Seoul/Jung-gu, Jeju-do/Seogwipo-si \Leftrightarrow Jeju-do/Jeju-si	0.0451	0.9492	10.4362
R15	Gyeonggi-do/Cheoin-gu, Yongin-si \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0418	0.7409	1.6497
R16	Gyeonggi-do/Gapyeong-gun \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0363	0.8063	1.7953
R17	Busan/Saha-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0363	0.7010	1.5607
R18	Gyeonggi-do/Cheoin-gu, Yongin-si \Leftrightarrow Incheon/Jung-gu	0.0352	0.6246	1.3764
R19	Incheon/Jung-gu, Jeju-do/Seogwipo-si \Leftrightarrow Jeju-do/Jeju-si	0.0350	0.9642	10.6006
R20	Busan/Jung-gu, Incheon/Jung-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0350	0.7625	1.6977
R21	Gyeonggi-do/Paju-si \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0340	0.6799	1.5137
R22	Gyeongsangbuk-do/Gyeongju-si, Seoul/Jongno-gu \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0336	0.7768	1.7296
R23	Busan/Saha-gu \Leftrightarrow Busan/Jung-gu	0.0333	0.6435	5.8962
R24	Gangwon-do/Chuncheon-si \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0323	0.8118	1.8075
R25	Incheon/Jung-gu, Jeju-do/Jeju-si \Leftrightarrow Seoul/Jung-gu	0.0317	0.7552	1.6814

Note: 'do' refers to province based on census tract in South Korea; 'gu' refers to districts based on census tract in South Korea.

Intra-Destination Movement Patterns

According to clustering analysis, 222 out of 782 VRS in Jeonju were grouped into 107 clusters through the algorithm. Figure 6 illustrates the spatial patterns of the clusters. Since there are many clusters, to avoid visual clutter, we select those clusters of which their total visit account for more

than 1% of the total and annotate them with different colors. Note that areas labelled as A, B and C refer to the heritage, university, and local market, respectively in Jeonju. Such areas, taking up considerable proportion of visiting frequency, suggest that they enjoyed much greater popularity among tourists.

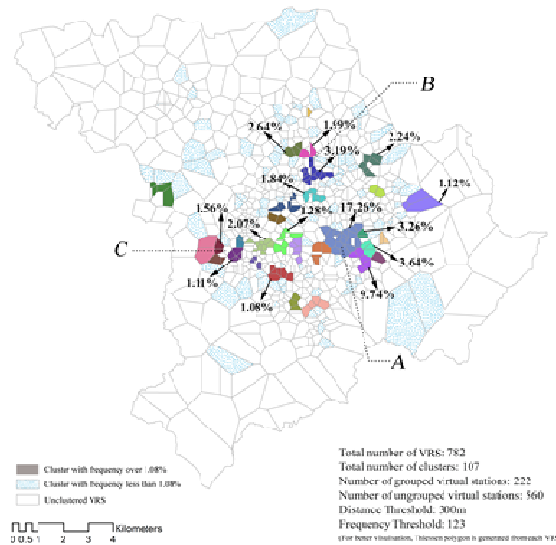


Figure 6. Results of density-based spatial clustering analysis

The spatial arrangement of these frequent visitation patterns is then visualized. Figure 7 shows the frequency visitation pattern with length of 2. The sequences indicate that tourists moved from one cluster to another. The arrowed lines represent the direction of the movement, and the numbers describe how frequent these patterns occur

(measured as the total number of times the pattern is detected, normalized by the total number of sequences analyzed). A self loop indicates that some users have repeated visits to the same area (cluster). Travelers' movement demonstrated a circular loop pattern which is same argument by a study of Lew and McKercher (2006).

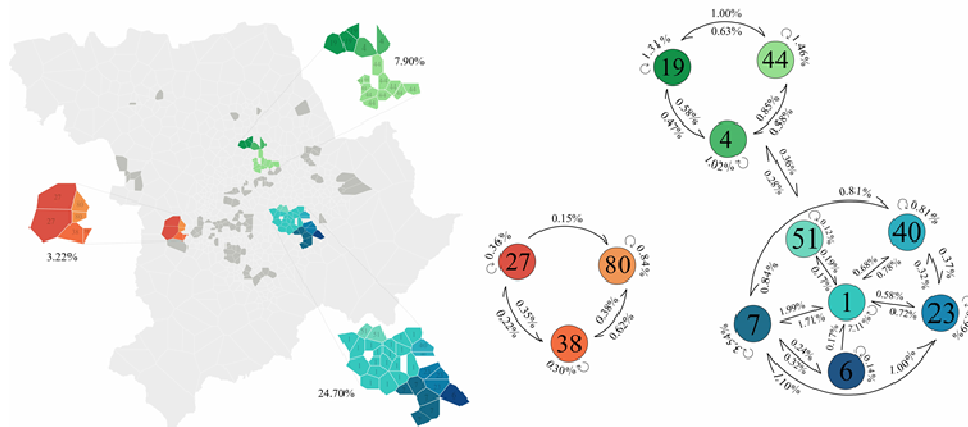


Figure 7. Results of Sequential Pattern Mining

As a supplementary data, this study analyzed credit card data showing credit card transactional record used in Jeonju. Figure 8 presents top five purchased items, accounting for 71.7% of transaction records. More specifically, travelers are likely to use their credit cards mainly to purchase

regular foods followed by distribution goods, health/hygiene and accommodation. The items purchased show heterogeneous patterns over time. Additional analysis also demonstrated the purchasing patterns in which travelers tend to purchase certain items at specific places.



Figure 8. Travel Activity Analysis

CONCLUSION

This paper examines tourists’ spatial and temporal movement patterns by analyzing not only mobile big data (main data source) but also credit card data (supplementary data source). To the authors’ best knowledge, this is the first research paper that applies the big data approach to shedding light on tourists’ dynamic behaviors from perspectives of both inter- and intra-destinations. There are several tourism studies assessing travel movement patterns particularly using data collected from social media websites, such as Yelp, Foursquare, etc (Li, Xu, Tang, Wang, & Li, 2018). However, the previous studies have focused on the traveler behaviors at a specific city (micro level) rather than comprehending inclusive movement in terms of inter-destinations. Given Jeonju city as a key destination, this research identifies important places where travelers visit the most and discovers associated districts with Jeonju. With regard to intra-destination, this study found out hot places in Jeonju by applying density-based clustering, instead of relying on census tract. Then, sequential trajectory patterns within the city have been identified. When looking at tourism literature, there have been a number of studies understanding the travel-planning behaviors particularly at the stage of pre-trips (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). Importantly, however, the study emphasizing travel behaviors at the destinations is still largely limited. The findings of this paper fill the literature gap on travel behaviors at the stage of during-trip with regard to both inter- and intra-destinations. Along with literature on multi-destinations (Hwang & Fesenmaier, 2003; Hwang, Gretzel, & Fesenmaier, 2006), this study reconfirm the idea that travelers

tend to visit numerous destinations as well as identified sophisticated patterns within South Korea.

This research also suggests a number of practical suggestions. It is found that along with Jeonju, international tourists visiting South Korea tend to visit center of Seoul, Jeju island and Busan as other key destinations. This information is important to develop regional marketing. For example, when Jeonju city creates a travel package or promotion, it is strongly suggested to include products related to those three key districts. In order to enhance the efficiency of travel movement, DMOs need to review the inter-city transport systems connecting the four districts including not only Jeonju but also Seoul, Jeju and Busan. These findings can be vital insights for DMOs to design appropriate travel packages and to develop destination recommendation systems. Along with constant advancement of information and communication technology, mobile sensor data are very likely to become one of key data sources elaborating people’s movement. Thus, the methodology that this research applied should be a useful guideline for future research who explore the mobile big data.

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MISBEHAVIOURS IN SHARING ECONOMY

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INTRODUCTION

While sharing is an old phenomenon, the term sharing economy and collaborative consumption are emerged in the past few years with the development of the internet (Belk, 2014). With diverse definitions of sharing economy, the term commonly refers to exchange forms facilitated through the use of online platforms with the aim of bringing together distributed individual to share underutilised assets among each other (Tussyadish, 2016). The rising of the sharing economy also gave rise to a culture of “what’s mine is yours” (Botsman & Roger, 2010). The transformation of ownership to access-based consumption motivated researchers to discuss sharing economy from a consumer-behaviour perspective, known as collaborative consumption (Belk, 2014; Botsman & Roger, 2010). The rising of such peer-to-peer (P2P) consumption within the sharing economy has transform the way we trade and share, which has deep implication for business and society (Guttentag, 2015).

Peer-to-peer accommodation platforms such as Airbnb continue to grow and provide access to more than 5 million unique places to stay in more than 81,000 cities (Airbnb, 2019). This makes Airbnb one of the most influential platforms in the media and within the academic literature for understanding the sharing economy (Tussyadiah, 2016). Peer-to-peer accommodation platforms are different from conventional accommodation services. Through the platforms, the initial transaction occurs online (e.g. matching) whereas the actual transaction happens offline in a physical environment (e.g. renting a flat or room) (Jarvenpaa & Teigland, 2017). To start a transaction on a platform, guests not only consider the attributes of the property, like conventional accommodation services, but also the attributes of the host. Hence, the attributes of host are essential for guests’ booking. On the other hand, host could also decide

who do they want to share or rent their spaces through P2P platforms. From a service marketing perspective, the intangibility and inseparability of the accommodation service indicate that hosts and guests’ behaviours are essential for sharing economy experience.

However, what lies behind of the booming of sharing economy have raised many concerns. Vaskelainen & Tura (2018) found out potential risks involved in sharing economy and those due to misbehaviours. Misbehaviours is commonly understood as violation of generally accepted norms of conduct in exchange settings (Fullerton & Punj, 1997). This indicates considering misbehaviours should take consideration of both exchange parties: hosts and guests. It also implies that as sharing economy is relatively new to majority of consumers and hosts, the generally accepted norms is still in the stage of developing. Hence, misbehaviours is common in sharing economy now. Some misbehaviours are minor, but some might cause huge problems and threaten the continuity of the sharing economy. For example, Edelman, Luca & Svirsky (2017) found that non-black host charge approximately 12% more than black host for the equivalent rental. Also, numerous newspaper articles have been reported that Airbnb hosts and Uber drivers attacked consumers lead to intensions on the safety and regulations concerns for this new form of economy.

Due to this reasons, existing research have largely focused on trust related issues within sharing economy (e.g., Liang et al., 2017; Tyssyadiah & Park, 2018). While those studies show different measures to enhance the trustworthiness of the platforms and the host and implicitly refer to the existing of misbehaviours, the actual misbehaviours has not been discussed in any details both from the host and the guest perspective. To fill this gap, the present study situates the discussion of misbehaviours within China to explore how Chinese

guests and hosts conceptualise behaviour and its associated influence on P2P experience.

METHOD

This working paper situates within the interpretivism paradigm. An exploratory qualitative approach was adopted to collect the data through semi-structured in-depth interviews. This approach enabled the researchers to explore the topic broadly but with some structure to ensure that the interview questions were relevant to the research question (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). The interview protocol consisted of two main sections: participants' socio-demographics and their reflective understandings of misbehaviours in P2P accommodation. We aim to collect around 40 in-depth interviews for both tourist and hosts. Currently, we already collected 2 interviews from tourists and 2 interviews from hosts and will try to finish all the interviews before the conference. Data analysis will adopt thematic analysis.

FINDINGS

As this study is still in process, it is impossible to give any solid themes emerged from the raw data. However, we try to demonstrate the complexity and dynamics of misbehaving in Chinese context as below

Conceptualising misbehaviours from guests.

It is interesting that the guests did not perceive P2P accommodation as dangerous or involved lots of risk. When considering misbehaving in sharing economy, guests often refer to hosts' behaviour. Examples are listed below:

"I want to book a room in Airbnb near a beach. On the map it does not show how to get there. I was sending an email to the host, they immediately block my booking! I was just thinking about it. It's rude." (Christina, 31)

"The host does not understand the idea of privacy. We rent the whole flat. When we back to the flat, they were sitting in the sofa. I know is their house. But if you rent a flat, the host should not enter to the place without noticing me." (Tom, 34)

Conceptualising misbehaviours from hosts. It

is interesting that while behaviours of guests play central role in hosts' conceptualisation of misbehaviours in P2P accommodations, platforms and other associated service provider also involved in this conceptualisation. Examples are listed below:

"I was approached by a company named locals. They had a look at my flat. They then send me a design of the flat, which will cost 5000 RMB. They never said the cost beforehand. I did not pay and insisted. I will not use their design for my accommodation.....then other company contacted me to sell different things.....I booked cleaning service from Xiaozhu. The cleaner stolen some stuffs from my flat. Its problematic." (Ana, 61).

"The guest booked my flat for a week. Then, she said her dad was sick now. She needs to cancel the rest of booking after staying a night. According to the platform policy I do not need to refund. But morally, I need to do it. But you never know whether what they said is true or not." (Stacey, 48).

CONCLUSION

While the sharing economy brings many benefits and innovative ideas to our society, misbehaving is influencing the enjoyable experience. The present study aims to understand how hosts and guests conceptualise misbehaving in P2P accommodation sector in China. Our initial findings show that misbehaviours are socially constructed terms, participants tend to define other particles as actor for misbehaving. While misbehaviours of hosts primary influence guests' experiences, more dynamic and complex situation emerged from hosts side. We hope to demonstrate more comprehensive findings in the conference.

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AIRBNB HOSTS AS MORAL AGENTS IN THE SHARING ECONOMY

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INTRODUCTION

The sharing economy is emerging as a global phenomenon, which is growing rapidly in both scale and scope. One of the most prominent forms of the sharing economy is peer-to-peer (P2P) accommodation. Considering the numerous socio-economic benefits P2P accommodation offers to both hosts and guests, its growth is unsurprising. Notwithstanding, the rapid growth of P2P accommodation has yielded several concerns over the potential negative impacts at the economic and social levels. For instance, it has been argued that the hotel sector and particularly lower-end hotels and B&Bs, are negatively impacted by the increase in P2P accommodation (Hajibaba and Dolnicar, 2017). Adverse effects on local housing markets and local communities as a result of touristification were also noted. For example, the increasing supply of Airbnb rentals has been found to intensify tourist overcrowding in central areas, threatening residents' well-being (Sans and Quagliari, 2016). Additionally, concerns over the spatial implications of the rise in Airbnb rentals have been raised (Gutierrez et al, 2017).

Within this context, the role of hosts in contributing to the minimisation of negative impacts has been highlighted. In particular, concerns have been voiced over the illegal activity of many Airbnb rentals and the 'free rider' attitude encouraged by Airbnb's absence of accommodation taxes (Guttentag, 2015). Likewise, an abundance of short-term rentals may negatively impact local housing markets (Guttentag, 2015) and encourage unscrupulous behaviour as landlords are evicting tenants in order to vacate units for use as short-term rentals. Although calls for the strengthening of regulatory controls in P2P accommodation have intensified, the role of host practice in mitigating

negative impacts has been scarcely considered. In fact, previous research in P2P context has focused mostly on guest perspectives (Moon et al, 2019). Nonetheless, Airbnb hosts act as mediators between guests and the platform. As they emerge as a community of practice, sharing knowledge and experience, they set boundaries between what might be understood as appropriate hosting behaviour. The aim of this paper is to explore the role of Airbnb hosts in relation to the socio-economic impacts of P2P accommodation. Specifically, we consider the morality of hosts and how self-perceptions of their moral identity may be reflected in their host practices.

Moral identity has traditionally been defined as a "self-conception organised around a set of moral traits" (Aquino and Reed, 2002: 1424). In other words, if individuals feel that moral traits such as being altruistic, honest, friendly, caring and fair are central for defining their sense of self, they have a strong moral identity. As Damon and Hart (1992: 455) have aptly put it, "people whose self-concept is organised around their moral beliefs are highly likely to translate those beliefs into actions". Moral identity, therefore, emerges as an important source of moral functioning. Aquino and Reed (2002) theorised that moral identity has a private and a public aspect, labelled respectively as internalization and symbolization. Internalization reflects the degree to which moral traits are central to self-perceptions. Symbolization reflects the degree to which these traits are manifested outwardly to others. However, Aquino and Reed (2002) explained that the self-importance of moral identity may assume greater or lesser importance over time due to situational and contextual factors. In light of the growth of P2P accommodation, readings of hosts' moral identity may illuminate knowledge of their adherence to legislative frameworks as well

as their overall responsible conduct as facilitators of the sharing practice.

METHOD

An exploratory, qualitative research framework was adopted to collect and analyse empirical data. Specifically, semi-structured interviews were performed with Airbnb hosts from European countries from November 2018 to January 2019. The choice of Airbnb hosts from Europe was not coincidental. We opted to focus on European-based Airbnb hosts to ensure some form of consistency and uniformity regarding hosts views, particularly in light of the influence of the context (e.g. regulatory framework) on host activities. The interviewees were purposively selected considering the backgrounds, age and gender of the informants to ensure enough diversity in the sample (Ritchie et al, 2014). Purposive sampling enables researchers to use their judgement to select people that will best enable them to answer their research questions and meet their objectives (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Specifically, the researchers posted an open call on various Airbnb host groups in social networks, inviting members to participate in the research. The open call informed group members of the purpose of the study as well as the way in which data would be used. Data saturation was reached at 35 interviews.

The interviews were conducted in English by an experienced member of the research team via skype and on a one-to-one basis. Each interview lasted approximately 35 to 90 minutes, with questions being framed according to the research objectives. Specifically, each interview proceeded from a number of general questions seeking to establish the hosting profile of the informants (e.g. number of years as Airbnb host) before moving into the topic of hosting motives, views over hosting practices and moral identity perceptions. Each interviewee was further probed if necessary and notes were taken before, during and after the interviews to capture verbal and non-verbal aspects of the interviews. Thematic analysis was used to analyse data whereby emerging topics were grouped into interrelated themes, following a coding scheme. Specifically, blocks of verbatim text were copied, re-organised and cross-referenced to allow the

identification of thematic categories and sub-themes (Hennink et al., 2010).

FINDINGS

Preliminary findings indicate that there are various motives for hosting and, as such, different types of hosts. The majority of informants identified financial benefits as a predominant reason for hosting, commenting on how the income earned through hosting allows them to cover personal expenses and maintenance costs associated with their properties. In fact, revenue gained from hosting constitutes a significant source of income for hosts who are unemployed. In the words of a host, *“I lost my job, so it made sense to try to make some money from a small flat we had at the top of my parent’s house”*. While some property owners are motivated by the economic benefits of hosting, others emphasised more the social aspects of it. Indeed, there are hosts who engage in hosting due to the sociality opportunities with a host commenting that *“it feels like guests are coming for a visit”*. As the discussion moved on, it became apparent that there are different types of hosts ranging from those who are professionally engaged in P2P accommodation to those who host people in a room of their property on an ad hoc basis. Inevitably, views on host practices varied accordingly.

More professional hosts seem to adopt practices that are comparable to traditional accommodation settings, offering services such as airport pick-ups, cleaning services and even small souvenirs. Contrary, the degree of willingness from hosts who are cohabiting with their guests appear to offer such services varies with some *“treating guests as flatmates”* to manage expectations and others *“cooking breakfast for them and that sort of thing”*. Overall, non-professional hosts stated their restricted inability to meet increasing guest expectations, who *“want hotel services at a low price”*. Within this context, it became evident that professional hosts desire stronger regulation in order to legitimise their practice and protect them over inappropriate guest conduct unlike non-professional hosts who seem to exhibit at times irresponsible behaviour in their practice. For instance, hosts claimed to avoid paying taxes suggesting that the money earned is too minimal to make an impact

on the local economy. As one interviewee argued this irresponsibility is “*morally reasonable because many hosts don’t pay taxes*”. In addition, hosts from northern European countries seemed to show more adherence to regional laws than hosts from southern European countries with a host from Greece concluding that in light of the government’s scandals and constant exploitation of citizens, avoidance to pay tax is justifiable. In fact, when asked to elaborate on the importance of morality and their self-perceptions of their moral identity, many hosts distinguished their everyday conduct to their hosting practice, arguing that “*being an Airbnb host is a role*”. As such, there are different types of hosts (figure 1) in accordance to the degree of

their moral identity and professionalism: a) those emerging as *moral agents* in the sharing economy viewing their hosting practice as an extension of their moral self, b) *pragmatists* who have a practical view in terms of their morality which seems to define their professional identity, c) *opportunists* with a fluctuant moral behaviour in accordance to their interests, mostly performing the bare minimum requirement of paying taxes but forsaking the social impacts of their practice and d) *amoral/immoral actors* that either do not understand the difference between moral and immoral actions or acknowledge the difference but justify immoral behaviour due to situational factors in the external environment.

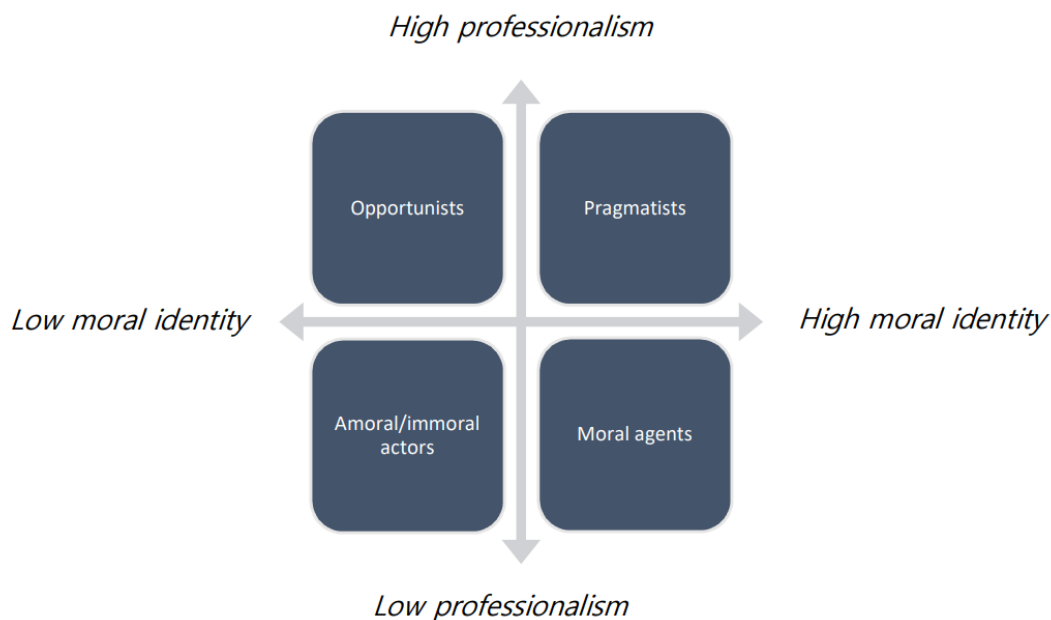


Figure 1. A typology of Airbnb Hosts

CONCLUSIONS

This paper aimed to explore the role of Airbnb hosts in relation to the socio-economic impacts of P2P accommodation, considering their moral identity and how self-perceptions of morality influence their host practices. In doing so, this paper contributes both theoretical and practical implications that may be of value to policymakers, practitioners and academics alike. On the one hand, findings are theoretically important because the study considered host perspectives, which have been less examined in pertinent studies. On the other

hand, findings have a practical value in that they highlight the important role of hosts in the co-creation of the sharing practice. The study offers a typology of hosts in relation to the degree of their moral identity and the professionalism characterising their practice, indicating that there are various types of hosts with varying levels of morality. The study also reveals that over time immoral host practices may traverse as a norm among hosts and thus suggests the inclusion of hosts in the development and/or strengthening of regulatory frameworks. As such, this paper may

serve as a stepping stone for further research on host morality and responsibility.

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BEHAVIOURAL ECONOMICS AND TOURISM: A REVIEW

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INTRODUCTION

Behavioral economics (BE) studies the effects of psychological, cognitive, emotional, cultural and social factors on the economic decisions of individuals and institutions and how those decisions vary from those implied by classical theory (Wilkinson and Klaes, 2012). BE which is mainly based on economics and psychology can be used to better explain a variety of anomalies, which are hard to be explained by the traditional models (Kahneman, 1994; Wilkinson and Klaes, 2012).

BE has been applied to study finance (Baddeley, 2013), organisational behaviour (Camerer and Malmendier, 2007), marketing (Ho, Lim and Camerer, 2006), educational investment and outcome (Koch, Nafziger and Nielsen, 2015) and reproductive health (Global Action, 2015). It can also provide useful theoretical foundations and approach to examine irrational behaviours of tourists, which are widely observed in tourism and hospitality settings, for example, the irrational travel behaviours due to partial information or positive/negative emotions. However, how the perspectives of BE can help to understand tourist behaviour has not received sufficient attention. While the use of theories of BE in tourism and hospitality has been growing in recent years, most of these studies ignored their connection with BE. Setting up the discussions in a wider context of BE when evaluating behaviours of bounded rationality in tourism and hospitality enables a more systematic and in-depth understanding of the theoretical underpinnings.

To fill in this research gap, this research will review and discuss some selected concepts from BE which are highly relevant for understanding tourists and other key stakeholders' behaviours in tourism market. The focus will be on the market context

with a special attention paid to decisions and behaviours towards economic activities. This review will discuss how BE can help to better explain and analyse the complexity of tourists' choices and their behaviours, and explore the prospects of the application of BE theories yet to be used to tourism and hospitality. The implications for tourism companies and policy makers will be proposed. This research will enhance the understanding of the incorporation of BE and tourism. The systematic review of the application of BE in tourism and hospitality can also enrich the scope of BE, which contributes to its development.

METHOD

This research reviewed articles published in Social Science Citation Index (SSCI) journals under the category of Hospitality and Tourism with in the recent three years, i.e., between 2016 and 2018. There are two stages of paper selections. First, the software EndNote were employed for the paper selection. All full papers published over the past three years in the SSCI journals under the category of Hospitality and Tourism (number of journals inserted here) were imported to EndNote. key words regarding the three dimensions, nonstandard preferences, nonstandard beliefs, and nonstandard decision making summarised in DellaVigna (2009) were used to search for and select articles in EndNote. Selected articles were further screened and those which are not relevant to behavioural economics were excluded. Second, since some articles involving behavioural economics may not use these key words, the abstracts of all papers published in these journals over the past three years were read and those meet the criteria will be selected. It's worth to note that some articles may involve concepts across two or three categories.

FINDINGS

This paper conducts the review following a classification of behavioural economics. No agreement has been reached on the classification of behavioural economics, which involves a wide range of concepts and debates. DellaVigna (2009) has conducted a comprehensive and in-depth literature review on behavioural economics, which has been published in one of the top tier economics journals, *Journal of Economic Literature*. In his research, he classified behavioural economics into three categories, nonstandard preferences, nonstandard beliefs, and nonstandard decision making. This classification has also been employed to review how behaviour economics can enhance understandings of education investment and outcomes by Koch, Nafziger and Nielsen (2015). Our review will follow the framework of DellaVigna (2009)'s classification. The reason to use this framework is because it includes most of the prominent concepts of this field and provides a reasonable classification.

In DellaVigna (2009)'s classification, nonstandard preferences cover three dimensions, time preferences, risk preferences, and social preferences; nonstandard beliefs include overconfidence, the law of small numbers, and projection bias; nonstandard decision making consist of framing, limited attention, menu effects, persuasion and social pressure, and emotions.

Nonstandard means that the evaluation objective differs from the traditional economic research's standard evaluation objective which is to maximize the utility. Therefore, the nonstandard evaluation object is more diversified, such as to improve humans' decisions about health, wealth and happiness (Thaler and Sunstein, 2008).

The preliminary results imply that the bounded rational behaviors were observed in various tourism and hospitality context.

Future agenda of potential applications of behavioural economics will be set up.

IMPLICATIONS OR CONCLUSION

Behavioral economics provides a better explanation for a variety of the bounded rational behaviors of human. The review makes an overview of the prior studies and provides a prospective framework for the future development of behavioral economics in tourism and hospitality context.

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HIGH-SPEED TRAINS AND SPILLOVER EFFECTS OF REGIONAL TOURISM FLOWS: THE CASE OF MIDDLE AND EASTERN CHINA

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INTRODUCTION

When advanced transportation infrastructure such as the high-speed train service network is introduced to a destination, we can expect the tourism revitalization of a destination due to the general decrease in travel cost, through pecuniary-cost or by time-cost allocated for a travel (Sun & Lin, 2018), the improvement of transfer convenience, riding comfort, as well as transportation service quality (Wang et al, 2018). From this perspective, Masson and Petiot (2009) and Wang et al (2014) propose that the high-speed train availability has a significant role in regional tourism development.

In the world, Japan was among the first to introduce the high-speed train Shinkansen, connecting its two largest metropolises of Japan, Tokyo and Osaka, in 1964 (Garmendia, et al 2012; Kurihara & Wu, 2016). Since then, as a symbol of modern transportation revolution, high-speed trains have run into people's sight in more and more countries or regions, including Spain, French, Italy, South Korea, and Taiwan (Zhou & Li, 2018a).

In 2004, the Chinese government announced an ambitious plan to drastically increase the speed of trains in the whole country. In 2007, bullet trains, using D as the first letter of the train number, went into operation with an average speed about 200~250 kilometers per hour, marking that China formally entered into the era of high-speed train. Up to 2015, China has built well an intensive high-speed train (HST) service network whose total length is No.1 in the world. From the viewpoints of governments or social media in China, the rapid extension of high-speed train service network is deemed as a favorable outcome of the economy development of

China or an outstanding accomplishment of regional governments; meanwhile, the public in China see high-speed train service as a considerable improvement of transportation convenience; accordingly their travel intention will be inevitably altered as the network of high-speed train service extends day by day.

At present, the intensive use of high-speed train network in China has aroused significant research interest worldwide. Many studies have investigated the impact of HST service on regional tourism in China, such as tourist arrivals or tourism revenues induced by the running of HST (Zhou & Li, 2018a; 2018b), the change of travel patterns at the micro-level as the introduction of HST service (Chan & Yuan, 2017). A few studies (Wang et al, 2012; Wang et al, 2014) predict that the HST will fundamentally change the tourism spatial structure of the regions covered by HST network, but they fail to present generalized evidences on what the specific changes might be.

With a purpose to fill this research gap, this study investigates the nature of spillover effect of regional tourism-flow in the HST era of China, in the years 2011-2015. Specifically, we select a research area in China where the distribution of cities which had or did not have HST service was comparatively stable during years 2011-2015. Selecting such research area is a precondition for constructing consistent spatial weighted matrices, which are used in econometric models to reveal the spillover effect of regional tourism-flow. Then, we divide the research area into the HST zone (including 82 sample cities connected by HST service), and the non-HST zone (including 51 sample cities bypassed by HST service). We collect panel data at the city level and apply to it spatial econometric models to estimate the spillover effect

of regional tourism-flow for different zones.

This study adds to the current body of literature on tourism impacts of HST service as follows. First, this study initially reveals the change of spillover effects of tourism-flow in the HST era of China. Specifically, in the HST era, for a given city, tourism-flows in the HST zone exert a positive spillover effect, while those in non- HST zone produce a negative one, and tourism-flows in the neighboring cities also exert a negative effect. As a benchmark, all these spillover effects are demonstrated to be positive in the time period before the intensive use of HST service in China, during the years 2002-2006.

This study also adds to current body of literature on tourism-flow spillover effect. Current literature demonstrates well how tourism-flow spillover effect exists, using different regions as the research context; however, they fail to reveal that how the tourism-flow spillover effect will alter as a great transportation infrastructure is introduced into the regions. Through a comparative analysis between the results for HST era and those for non-HST era, this study is the first to investigate the dynamics of tourism-flow spillover effect at the regional level and validates the significant change of tourism spatial structure as the era of HST commences.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Why high-speed trains matter to tourism

We present the analysis on the impacts of high speed-trains at the micro-level and macro-level respectively. The micro-level analysis, focusing on the impacts reflected on individual travel behavior, provides a solid base for the macro-level analysis which lays its emphasis on the impacts from regional or industrial perspective.

The micro-level analysis

According to Givoni (2006), Wang et al (2014), Sun and Lin (2018), and Wang et al (2018), thanks to high-speed transportation, the effect of “shrinking continent” or space compression is created for travelers. Herein, the space compression effect refers to a significant decrease of travel time from origins to destinations (O-D). According to the gravity model, the decrease of travel time will stimulate travel demand from certain origins to a

given destination (Yan et al, 2014; Zhou & Li, 2018a). Additionally, the reduced travel time will bring closer the cities connected by high-speed train service or increase the connectivity of the cities (Givoni, 2006), and the space-time constraint a tourist faces will be greatly relaxed, so that the tourists can travel much farther within a given time. From the eyes of travelers, the spaces between O-Ds seem to be artificially compressed. Concurrently, the travel pattern will be fundamentally altered, such as slowing down the rhythm of travel (Sun & Lin, 2018), increasing travel frequency, and the re-distributing travel time.

Wang et al (2014) explore the micro-level impacts of HST service in a noteworthy way. They propose that tourists always prefer a small “travel tour time ratio” (the ratio of the time tourists spend for the transportation between O-D (t_1) and the time tourists stay in a destination (t_2)). Owing to the operation of HST, the value of t_1 will considerably decrease. A smaller “travel tour time ratio” refers to a higher value of travel utility for tourists, and stimulates a larger tourism demand for a particular destination, at the same time the regions previously ignored will become new destinations for tourists.

The macro-level analysis

From regional perspective, the impact of high-speed train availability can be summarized briefly as the outcome of “an attraction effect”, denoting that when a city is connected by high-speed train service, its visibility within the transportation network, as well as in the whole tourism market, is enhanced, and hence its attractiveness for outsider visitors is increased (Albalade et al, 2017). Specifically, the increased accessibility will increase the demand for transportation and hence spur the business and leisure travel (Blanquar & Koning, 2017), bringing in higher revenue for regional tourism industry (Zhou & Li, 2018a; 2018b). Moreover, high-speed train may stabilize the occupancy rates at hotels and reduce the seasonality of a destination (Blanquar et al, 2017). Accompanying with the increase of tourism flow, tourism supply in the industry will be boosted, and in turn the local economy of a destination will be improved. In summary, the availability of HST service may effectively enhance a destination’s competitiveness with respect to the tourism industry.

The size of an involved region or city is

relevant when exploring the impact of high-speed train service. According to Bazin et al (2013), the opening of high-speed train service will generate a centralization effect of economic activities for a big city (a significant node in high-speed train network), and thus contribute in a great possibility to the growth of tourism economies for this city. Additionally, the available tourism resources (as the unique natural and cultural heritages), the accessibility of attractions, the tourism industry policy or strategies, all of these determine the actual impacts the connection of HST service may produce for a given region (Chan & Yuan, 2017).

Moreover, the interaction between different alternative transportation modes should be taken into account. We can anticipate a positive influence from high-speed trains only when high-speed trains enhance the overall number of transportation users or prompt a certain type of visitors, according to Albalade et al (2017). Theoretically, there are two types of interactions: substitution effect which refers to the modal competition between high-speed trains and other transportation modes, and complementarity effect which means different transportation modes complement or support each other (Albalade et al, 2017). The high-speed train transportation may harm air transportation due to the great ability of high-speed train transportation to draw the market share in medium distance. According to Zhang et al (2014), high-speed trains become one of the major determinants of market power loss for traditional carriers and a strong entry barrier for new airlines. When substitution effect dominates in the market, we cannot anticipate the opening of high-speed train results in the growth of the overall tourist arrivals of city, or the influence may not be as positive as expected.

Logically, there is a lower and upper bound in which high-speed trains have advantage over other transportation modes. Specifically, at shorter distances, cars are superior to high-speed trains since cars always have more flexibility and need less time to access to transportation networks; at longer distances, air planes hold the advantage over high-speed trains due to the faster speed air plans boast. Therefore, high-speed trains may differentiate them through targeting on the medium distance transportation (Sun & Lin, 2018), and hence a complementarity effect occurs as expected, which helps to build a comprehensive and seamless

transportation service system within a region. Besides, there is a potential complementarity effect high-speed trains may add to the convention train transportation according to Givono (2006).

Some studies pay attention to the asymmetric or unequal impacts of the high-speed train service among different regions (Hiramatsu, 2018). For instance, assuming that the accessibility is always synonymous with the intensive spatial competition among different destinations, Masson and Petiot (2009) propose that different destinations may face different outcomes resulted from the running of high-speed trains. Relying on the core-periphery model of the New Economic Geography (NEG) theory (Krugman, 1991) where the agglomeration or dispersion force, varied with the change of transportation cost, determines the spatial structure of a economy, Masson and Petiot (2009) carry out a prospective analysis on the potential outcomes of the forthcoming Southern Europe HSR line between Perpignan (France) and Barcelona (Spain), and propose that this line will reinforce the tourism agglomeration in Barcelona to the detriment of Perpignan.

In a handful of studies, such asymmetric impact is approximately termed as a tunnel effect, or corridor effect. A tunnel effect refers to improving the accessibility between the connected cities, and isolating the space between them, and letting these spaces compete each other to draw tourists (Gutiérrez, 2005). A corridor effect denotes that tourism industries in the cities connected by HST network will increase at the expense of the decrease of those in the cities bypassed by HST network (Shaw et al, 2014; Wang et al, 2018).

Finally, we should bear into mind that the introduction of HST should not be treated as a panacea for regional tourism development. According to Givoni (2006), the introduction of high-speed train service alone is not sufficient to prompt regional tourism. The expected positive impact depends on other conditions, such as a buoyant regional tourism economy which may facilitate the full use of the new opportunities created by the running of high-speed trains, or a complimentary regional tourism policy. In this way, the improved connectivity should be considered as a complementary factor for regional tourism development.

The spillover effect of tourism flow

Definition and mechanisms

When analyzing the spatial structure of tourism, researchers should not bypass the issue of tourism-flow spillover effect since the nature of spillover effect of tourism-flow profoundly determine the spatial structure of tourism for a region.

According to Capone & Boix (2008) and Capello (2009), the spatial spillover effect represents particular externality, which produces non-compensated or indirect impacts for a receiver situated nearby. The word 'spatial' is used to emphasize that spatial proximity is a primary condition for the economic externality to occur. In tourism field, the spatial spillover effect refers to a phenomenon that tourism activities in one region are closely associated with those in the neighboring regions, or an unintentional effect a region's tourism industry will receive from the tourism activities in the nearby regions (Yang & Wong, 2012; Yang & Fik, 2014; Yang et al, 2017). In tourism literature there are various kinds of spatial spillover effect that have been investigated, such as the spillover effect of tourism economy growth (Yang & Fik, 2014), and the spillover effect of tourism employment (Capone & Boix, 2008). Regarding the research purpose, we focus on the literatures related to tourism-flow spillover effects.

The spillover effect of tourism-flow denotes the impact of tourism-flows occurring in the neighboring regions on the tourism-flow in a particular region (Yang & Fik, 2014; Yang, et al, 2017), which to a certain extent reflects the spatial interactions of tourism activities among regions. Logically, the spillover effect of tourism-flow may be either positive or negative. A positive effect reflects that a group of regions supports or complements each other to draw tourists, or shares a same base of tourist resource, whereas a negative effect reflects a spatial competition, which means a group of regions may elbow each other for attracting tourists. The mechanisms triggering a positive spillover effect, including productivity spillover, market access spillover, multi-destinations travel plan, etc., are elaborated by Yang and Fik (2014), and those stimulating a negative spillover effect are discussed by (Patuelli et al, 2013; Zhou, et al, 2017).

The empirical examination

Many empirical examinations have been carried out so far, using a simple tourism system, which only includes a pair of regions as a case. For instances, Gooroochurn and Hanley (2005) examine the spillover effect of tourism-flow between the Republic of Ireland and Northern England, and find that the tourism demand of long-haul tourist in one region positively influence that of another region. Hoti et al (2007) find that the tourism growth rate of Cyprus has a positive spillover effect on Malta. Shareef and McAleer (2008) model the international tourism demand of two island countries - Maldives and Seychelles, and conclude a significant spillover effect of tourist arrival among two island countries. Balli and Tsui (2016) model the volatility of international tourist arrival for Australia and New Zealand, and demonstrate a significant spillover effect of international tourism demand between two countries.

A few examinations consider a generalized tourism system, which includes many regions (greatly more than two regions), to unveil the tourism-flow spillover effects. Marrocu and Paci (2013) consider Italy, consisting of 107 provinces, as case, and demonstrate that the tourist flows towards a certain province are enhanced by those to the neighboring provinces, i.e., a positive cross-province spillover exists. Yang and Wong (2012) consider a greatly larger tourism system, including 341 cities in China, and reveal the positive spillover effect of tourist flow for domestic and inbound tourism market respectively.

We propose that the nature of tourism-flow spillover effect is associated with transportation infrastructure. It seems to be impossible that a tourism flow will "spill over" to the proximate area without the transportation connection among regions. In the other words, the transportation connectivity is the precondition for all economic externalities to occur within certain regions. This study intends to collect empirical evidence to demonstrate that as a great advance of transportation infrastructure, the running of HST in China may change the nature of tourism-flow spillover effect, and in turn change spatial structure of regional tourism. This study extends the current studies on tourism-flow spillover effects through revealing dynamics of regional tourism-flow spillover.

METHODS

Samples and data

We use administrative cities in eastern and middle China as sample cities, considering that eastern and middle China boasts the most intensive network of high-speed trains in our research time period (2011-2015). As our analyses must be conducted in a geographical area which should have a stable distribution of the cities which had or did not have HST service, we exclude three provinces as Guangdong, Shanxi, and Hunan in eastern and middle China. We also exclude Fujian province because of the missing of data on Fujian province.

Finally, 10 provinces and 3 municipalities in eastern and middle China serve as the study area, including Jilin, Liaoning, Hebei, Shandong, Jiangsu,

Zhejiang, Anhui, Jiangxi, Henan, Hubei, Beijing, Tianjin, and Shanghai. Totally, we have 133 cities as the sample cities.

Figure 1 indicates 2 categories of research areas by different colors: The shadow areas indicate the HST zone, including 82 cities which had high-speed train service most of the years between 2011 and 2015. Specifically, 73 cities had high-speed train service all the time and 9 cities had high-speed train for 3 or 4 years between 2011 and 2015. The blank areas indicate the non-HST zone, including 51 cities which did not have high-speed train service most of the years during the research time period. Among them, 46 cities didn't have high-speed train service all the time and 5 cities had the high-speed train service for 1 or 2 years.



Figure 1. The distribution of the HST zone and non-HST zone in research area

Main spatial autoregressive model

Spatial autoregressive models are established to capture the spillover effects of tourism flows

(Anselin,1988; Yang & Wong, 2012). The traditional spatial autoregressive model (SAR) (Anselin, 1988) is specified as follows:

$$Y = \rho WY + X\beta + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

Differently, as an extended spatial autoregressive model, the main model of this study incorporates two spatially lagged dependent

$$Y = \rho_1 W_1 Y + \rho_2 W_2 Y + X\beta + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

In equation (2), Y is the dependent variable. X represents a set of independent variables and ε denotes the error term. W_1 and W_2 are n by n spatial weighted matrices that measure the spatial proximity among a pair of regions.

Following Le Sage (2009), this study conducts maximum-likelihood estimation technique to address the endogeneity problem resulted from the

$$\begin{aligned} \ln ARRIVAL_{it} = & \alpha_0 + \rho_1 W_1 \ln ARRIVAL_{it} + \rho_2 W_2 \ln ARRIVAL_{it} + \alpha_1 \ln TRAIN + \alpha_2 \ln AIR \\ & + \alpha_3 \ln HIGHWAY + \alpha_4 \ln HOTEL + \alpha_5 \ln TA + \alpha_6 \ln GDP + \alpha_7 \ln FDI \\ & + Dummy_t + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

In equation (3), $W_1 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ and $W_2 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ are employed to capture the spillover effects of tourism-flows of the cities within the HST zone and those within non-HST zone, indicated by Figure 1. Specifically, the establishment of W_1 and W_2 is as follow: Firstly, we construct a distance-based matrix W where W_{ij} is equal to $1/d^2$ (Getis & Aldstadt, 2004). Hereinto, d is the arc-distance between city i and j , which is provided by Geo-da software. Secondly, we replace the values in the column j of the matrix with 0 if the city j was included in the non-HST zone, and hence we get the matrix W_1 . Similarly, we replace the value in the column j of the matrix W with 0 if the city j was included in HST zone, we obtain the matrix W_2 . Clearly, ρ_1, ρ_2 reflect the spillover effect of tourism flows from the HST zone and that from the non-HST zone, respectively.

As a standard operation, all matrixes are row-normalized before putting into estimation.

The controlled variables are set as follow: TRAIN is the number of conventional trains available per day in a sample city, reflecting the accessibility to a city by conventional train transport (Zhou & Li, 2018a; 2018b). AIR is the total flight number available in one year for a sample city, measuring the accessibility by air transportation

variables to capture the spillover effects from HST zone and non-HST zone respectively. The general form of the main model is specified as follow:

inclusion of the spatial lagged dependent variables, and hence acquire consistent estimates of the regression parameters.

The research model of the study is shown in equation (3). The dependable variable is ARRIVAL, the number of tourists received by a sample city in one year, which reflects tourism flows within a certain city.

(Yang & Wong, 2012). HIGHWAY is the total length of highway, measuring the accessibility to a city by road transport (Khadaroo & Seetana, 2008). HOTEL is the number of starred hotels, indicating the capacity of service infrastructure which may be employed for tourism industry (Yang & Wong, 2012). TA is the number of tourist attractions which represents the quality of tourism resources, one key determinant of tourism attractiveness for a city (Ellerbrock & Hite, 1980; Rosentraub & Joo, 2009; Yang & Fik, 2014). GDP is the gross domestic product of a city, reflecting economy resources which a city may exploit to develop its tourism economy (Zhang & Jensen, 2007; Marrocu & Paci, 2013). FDI is the foreign direct investment of a city, which reflects the connection of a city with foreign countries and indicates a city's attractiveness to foreign tourists (Kulendran & Wilson, 2002; Khan et al, 2005). *Dummy_t* is a set of dummy variables denoting whether the time is t year to control the time variation effect by year.

Additionally, we establish an additional model as equation (6) to capture the spillover effect of tourism-flow coming from the neighboring cities which share common boundaries with a particular city.

$$\ln ARRIVAL_{it} = \alpha_0 + \rho_n W_n \ln ARRIVAL_{it} + \alpha_1 \ln TRAIN + \alpha_2 \ln AIR + \alpha_3 \ln HIGHWAY + \alpha_4 \ln HOTEL + \alpha_5 \ln TA + \alpha_6 \ln GDP + \alpha_7 \ln FDI + Dummy_i + \mu_i + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (4)$$

In the matrix W_n of equation (4), W_{ij} , the spatial relationship between city i and j , is assigned to be 1 if the city j shares a common boundary with city i , otherwise be 0. Accordingly, ρ_n reflects the spillover effect from the neighboring cities sharing common boundaries. As a traditional spatial autoregressive model (SAR), equation (6) can be

estimated through MLE (maximum likelihood estimation) technique.

All the variables, except $Dummy_i$, are in logarithmic form. To avoid a log of zero, it is set as 0.5 when the value of a variable is zero. Table 1 provides detailed definitions and data sources for all variables used in this study.

Table 1. The detailed definition of the variable

Variables	Definitions
ARRIVAL _{it}	The number of tourist arrivals to city i at year t (in 1,000).
TRAIN _{it}	The number of conventional trains running per day in city i at year t .
AIR _{it}	The number of flight available in city i at year t .
HIGHWAY _{it}	The total length of highway in city i at year t (in km).
TA _{it}	The number of tourist attractions in city i at year t . (In database for 2011-2015, tourist attractions include 5A and 4A scenic spots. In database for 2002-2006, 4A scenic spots and national park are included as tourist attractions since 5A attractions were not inscribed in this time period.)
HOTEL _{it}	The number of starred hotels in city i at year t .
GDP _{it}	The gross domestic product (in 1,000,000,000CNY) in city i at year t .
FDI _{it}	The foreign direct investment (in 1,000,000 USD) of city i at year t .

The descriptive statistic results for the variables for high-speed train era represented by years 2011-2015, are shown in table 2. Please note that in this study, with a purpose of comparative

analysis, years 2002-2006 are set as the representative of non- high-speed train era given that in China high-speed trains were initially put into use in 2007.

Table 2. The descriptive statistic results for the variables in HST era

Variable	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.
ARRIVAL	665	33727.25	37752.05	1104.15	283695.8
TRAIN	665	74.22707	55.89317	0	345
HIGHWAY	665	12654.64	6527.487	1555	38004.28
AIR	665	25354.59	82055.52	0	705774
HOTEL	665	50.57444	61.69733	1	614
TA	665	8.309774	9.163852	0	79
GDP	665	276.356	326.0968	37.25	2512.345
FDI	665	1272.62	2577.618	13.87	21134.44

FINDINGS

The baseline results

Table 3 reports the baseline results of this study, from the data on the sample cities in high-speed train era (2011-2015). According to the

result of Hausman test, all estimation results in this study are estimated by fixed effect (FE) technique (Hausman, 1978). Model (1) reveals the results of equation (6) where ρ_n reflects the spillover effects from neighboring cities sharing common boundaries, model (2) and model (3) include the

spatial lagged dependent variables ($W_1 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ and $W_2 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$) respectively and model (4) includes both aforementioned spatial lagged dependent variables.

As Table 3 indicates, the coefficient of the spatial lag term (ρ_n) in model (1) is statistically significant and negative, suggesting a negative spatial spillover effects from the neighboring cities. The coefficients of $W_1 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ (ρ_1) in model (2) and model (4) are significantly positive, however, those of $W_2 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ (ρ_2) in model (3) and (4) are significantly negative, highlighting that for a particular city, the HST zone and non- HST zone exert totally different spatial spillover effects in the high-speed train era.

The main results of this study come from model (4). Actually, according to the Akaike's information criterion (AIC), Bayesian information criterion (BIC) and maximum likelihood value, model (4) shows the greatest model fit among 4 models (Akaike, 1974; Raftery, 1995; Burnham & Anderson, 2004). According to model (4), the coefficient of $W_1 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ implies that a 100%

increase in the arrival of the cities located in the HST zone will stimulate a 26.6% increase of tourism flow of a particular city. To contrast, the coefficient of $W_2 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ suggests that a 100% increase in cities located non-HST zone will lead to a 48.7% decrease of the tourism flow for a particular city.

Except from the variables on highway and traditional train transportation infrastructure, all controlled variables exert significantly positive effects on regional tourism flow. The coefficients of $\ln HOTEL$ and $\ln TA$ reveal a significant contribution of service infrastructure and tourism resource on regional tourism follow, in line with Yang and Wong (2012), Ellerbrock and Hite (1980), Rosentraub and Joo (2009), Yang and Fik (2014). Moreover, positive and significant impacts of the $\ln GDP$ and $\ln FDI$ are also revealed, which are consistent with the finding of Kulendran and Wilson (2002), Khan et al (2005), Zhang et al (2011), and Marrocu and Paci (2013). Additionally, the AIR also induces positive and significant effects on tourism flow, which is the same as the finding from Yang and Wong (2012).

Table 3. The main results for HST era (2011-2015)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Variables				
$\ln TRAIN$	-0.00327	-0.00435	0.00688	0.00956
$\ln AIR$	0.0122#	0.0151*	0.0121#	0.0125*
$\ln HIGHWAY$	-0.139	-0.131	-0.133	-0.132
$\ln HOTEL$	0.212***	0.186***	0.221***	0.213***
$\ln TA$	0.0583***	0.0502**	0.0443**	0.0407*
$\ln GDP$	0.404***	0.280*	0.411***	0.333**
$\ln FDI$	0.0904***	0.0693***	0.0958***	0.0845***
$Dummy_{2012}$	0.126***	0.0812***	0.157***	0.129***
$Dummy_{2013}$	0.263***	0.172***	0.342***	0.287***
$Dummy_{2014}$	0.387***	0.258***	0.531***	0.459***
$Dummy_{2015}$	0.532***	0.363***	0.706***	0.614***
Spatial coefficients				
ρ_n	-0.217***			
ρ_1		0.170*		0.266***
ρ_2			-0.460***	-0.487***
N of Obs.	665	665	665	665
AIC	-457.2	-447.5	-473.5	-478.4
BIC	-398.7	-389.0	-415.0	-415.4
Maximum Likelihood value	241.6	236.8	249.8	253.2

Note: ***, **, * and # represent the significance at the 1%, 5%, 10%, and 15% statistical levels respectively. N of Obs. means the number of observations.

With a purpose to reveal the dynamics of the impacts, we apply the models in Table 3 to the data in non-HST era, represented by years 2002-2006. Table 4 reports the results. Models in Table 4 clearly present a different scenario for the effect of tourism-flow spillover. The positive coefficients of ρ_n indicates the positive spillover effect from the neighboring cities, which is in line with Yang and Wong (2012), while the coefficients of $W_1 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ and $W_2 \ln ARRIVAL_{it}$ are consistently positive, suggesting that as for tourism-flow spillover effect, the marked HST zone and the non-HST zone in the years before the availability of HST service are homogeneous. The comparison between the results in Table 3 and Table 4 reveals

a significant change of spillover effect for regional tourism flow.

Furthermore, it seems a little anti-intuitive that when HST network was put into operation intensively in the research area, the positive impacts of HIGHWAY “disappear” (become insignificant). The possible reasons for this may be that highway transport has been developed sufficiently in years 2011-2015, and hence it no longer is a positive determinant of regional tourism arrivals. The insignificant impact of the conventional train is validated both for HST era and for non-HST era, which is in line with the finding of Zhou and Lin (2018a; 2018b).

Table 4. The results for non-HST era (2002-2006)

	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Variables				
lnTRAIN	0.00123	-0.00230	0.00266	-0.000221
lnAIR	0.0235***	0.0237***	0.0218**	0.0231***
lnHIGHWAY	0.102**	0.104**	0.120**	0.110**
lnHOTEL	0.0832**	0.0908**	0.0964***	0.0875**
lnTA	0.0274**	0.0256**	0.0222*	0.0245*
lnGDP	0.204**	0.216**	0.252***	0.221**
lnFDI	-0.0160	-0.0171	-0.0188	-0.0174
<i>Dummy</i> ₂₀₀₂	-0.0193	-0.0382#	-0.0328	-0.0387#
<i>Dummy</i> ₂₀₀₄	0.0849**	0.0194	0.0243	-0.0128
<i>Dummy</i> ₂₀₀₅	0.148***	0.0427	0.0702	-0.00291
<i>Dummy</i> ₂₀₀₆	0.164**	0.0311	0.0193	-0.0558
Spatial coefficients				
ρ_n	0.391***			
ρ_1		0.555***		0.408***
ρ_2			0.504***	0.256***
N of Obs.	665	665	665	665
AIC	-512.1	-501.1	-488.1	-506.7
BIC	-453.6	-442.6	-429.6	-443.7
Maximum Likelihood value	269.1	263.5	257.1	267.3

Note: ***, **, * and # represent the significance at the 1%, 5%, 10%, and 15% statistical levels respectively. N of Obs. means the number of observations.

Explanations for the key findings

This study concludes that for a given city, the cities on the high-speed train corridor incline to share the sources of tourists with it; meanwhile those outside the corridor incline to compete against

it in drawing tourists. We term this nature of tourism-flow spillover effect as the polarization effect of high-speed train.

Herein, we present explanations for the positive spillover effect coming from HST zone as

follows :

Firstly, we assume that a representative city R is in the network of HST transportation. It is easy for R to benefit from tourism flows circulating in the HST network, due to a significant space compression effect, or the integrated transportation between city R and other cities in the HST network. Secondly, we assume that a representative city R is in outsides of the HST network. City R may also get a positive externality from tourist flows in the HST network, because there is a huge volume of tourists agglomerating on the HST zone, and these tourists can move quickly and extend their travel to city R through the high-speed train corridors in HST zone. To sum up, it is understandable that cities in the HST network exert a positive spillover effect.

As for the negative spillover effect from non-HST zone, we have the following reasoning:

We assume that city R is a node of HST transportation. There is no HST service in the non-HST zone and the space compression effect cannot apply to this zone. Consequently, there may be less tourists visiting the non- HST zone, meanwhile these tourists' mobility is limited, compared with those in HST zone. As a result, it is difficult for a positive spillover to come out for city R from the non-HST zone.

Then, we assume that city R is in the outsides of HST transportation. Generally, the main tourist sources are aggregated in the HST zone. When a tourist who stays in the cities with the availability of HST transportation wants to extend his/her travel to city R, it is greatly possible that he or she has to cancel a visit to other cities in the non- HST zone, due to the constraint of time budget. Therefore, the cities in non-HST zone have to compete against each other to draw the tourist from the HST network, and hence a negative spatial interdependency comes out. On the other hand, when a corridor of high-speed train is extended along a certain zone, the previously integrated space is actually divided and the cities in non- HST zone are isolated from each other, so that it seems to be difficult that tourists will spillover from one cities in non- HST zone to other cities also in non- HST zone.

Finally, this study concludes that the spillover effect of tourism-flow from the neighbors change from positive to negative as the coming of HST era in our research area. This conclusion is related

to the polarization effect discussed above. Generally, a city has the neighbors located in HST network, as well as those located outside of HST network. For a given city, the neighbors located in HST network exert positive spillover effect and those outside HST network produce negative one. Two effects counteract each other, and finally a negative outcome is produced as this study demonstrates.

CONCLUSIONS

Employing panel data at city level from middle and eastern China and spatial modeling technique, this study demonstrates that in the none-HST era (represented by years 2002-2006) of China, the spatial spillover effects of tourism-flow are homogeneous and significantly positive spillover effects apply to all regions, which is in line with the current literature as Yang and Wong (2012). However, in the high-speed train era (represented by years 2011-2015), the spillover effect of tourism flow becomes distinctly different. For a given city, cities in high-speed train network (the HST zone) contribute significantly positive spillover effects, while cities outside the high-speed train network (the non-HST zone) induce negative effects, which are termed the polarization effect of high-speed train service. Additionally, the spillover effects exerted by tourism flows in neighbors (sharing boundaries with a given city) become significantly negative in the high-speed train era. This study reveals initially the dynamics of spillover effect of regional tourism-flow, and demonstrates that the nature of spillover effects may change dramatically as a significant transportation infrastructure is introduced intensively.

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FACING CHANGES OF PLACE: POST INDUSTRIALIZATION AND TOURISM IN NEWCASTLE, AUSTRALIA

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INTRODUCTION

Recently, many regions have begun to rely on tourism as a tool for urban revitalization and economic redevelopment post of industrialization (Aytar & Rath, 2012; Hoffman, 2003). Tourism development in such post-industrial cities may help create employment, improve infrastructure and service, and transform the area's image toward a "modern city." However, it may also negatively influence a sense of pride among the local residents or generate unequal distribution of benefits (Maruyama et al., 2017). This line of problems has been identified in different parts of the world (Henderson, 2000; Santos & Yan, 2008). In addition, tourism development often reshapes not only the physical landscape but also the symbolic meanings of a place, which may or may not be consistent with residents' representation of their community (Gu & Ryan, 2008). Because residents' support for tourism is a critical aspect of successful tourism development (Pizam et al., 2000), it is important to explore residents' perceptions of a place and how it relates to their self-identity, or "place identity."

The goal of this study is to explore how tourism development affected local residents' place-based identity. For the purpose of this study, the City of Newcastle, Australia, was chosen.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In tourism studies, the social exchange theory (SET), which explains residents' attitudes towards tourism as a result of evaluation of benefits and costs from tourism, has been the dominant theory (Ap, 1992; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). More

recent studies have further revealed that, not only the material benefits but non-economic, psychological benefits (i.e. intergroup understanding, social and psychological empowerment, and emotional closeness with tourists) can foster positive attitudes about tourism (Maruyama et al., 2016; Ward & Berno, 2011; Woosnam, 2012).

In addition, some scholars (Lai & Kreuter, 2012; Wang & Xu, 2015) suggest that residents' place identity, influences their support for tourism development. To explore such influence, an identity process theory (Breakwell, 1986) provides a useful theoretical lens. Breakwell defines identity as "a dynamic, social product of the interaction of the capacities for memory, consciousness and organized construal" (Hauge, 2008, p.8) and suggest four principles that guide the process, namely distinctiveness, continuity, self-esteem, and self-efficacy. In general, if residents feel their identities are threatened by tourism development, they are more likely to oppose the development (Wang & Xu, 2015).

The City of Newcastle, NSW, Australia currently is experiencing a transformation of its identity. The steel industry was the major driver of industrialization in the city dating back to the 19th century. However, the closing of BHP, the largest employer in the area, which took place in 1999, had a significant impact on the town's economy. More recently, the city has been investing in urban development in which tourism is one of the driving mechanism to reenergize its economy. For example, the Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR) market has considerable impacts on the local economy (Newcastle City Council, 2013). In addition, "Supercars," a car racing event, will be

held each November from 2017 to 2022, which is expected to promote the city's tourism and increase its economic significance. Actions have been taken to install new infrastructures (i.e., a cruise terminal and light rail) and modify the physical landscape of the city to host increased and proposed tourism events and activities.

METHODS

This study utilized a qualitative approach. Twenty-eight individual interviews were conducted with residents and small business owners in Newcastle between February and November of 2018. Ages of participants ranged between 20s and 70s. Interviewees were recruited by using purposive and snowball sampling methods, and each interview lasted approximately one hour. At each interview, a series of open-ended questions to frame the interviews were provided. The questions were formed, surrounding the four principles of an identity process theory, including residents' perception towards uniqueness of the city, advantages and disadvantages of living in the area, characteristics of the place that make the residents proud, and ability of the city to continuously support the study participants' sense of self.

All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. To analyze the data, a cross-case approach was used (Goetz & LeCompte, 1981), in which social phenomena are observed, recorded, classified, and then compared.

FINDINGS

The preliminary analysis of the interviews revealed the residents' perceptions regarding uniqueness of the city, a sense of continuity, a sense of pride, and self-efficacy. The analysis also explored residents' perceptions of the changes brought on by tourism.

Interviewees repeatedly identified the city's history as a distinctive aspect of the place contributing to their place identity. One individual stated, "There is a real connection with our history there...we have got so much for all the heritage-looking buildings....It is such an important historical city in Australia's history. I think that makes it quite unique." Other uniqueness identified by the interviewees included natural environment,

climate, and cultural diversity.

The self-esteem aspect of place identity related to one's self-esteem supported by the quality of the person's interaction with the place (Breakwell, 1986). Similar to the uniqueness of the city, the interviewees mentioned history and heritage as sources of self-esteem. In addition, they mentioned strong work ethics among workers in the city and convenient access to various locations in Newcastle, such as beaches or surround cities. In addition, several interviewees mentioned that they expect tourism would increase a sense of pride among the local residents. As one stated, "Tourism makes people proud of the city when they realize that people are visiting for the purpose of seeing their city." Particularly, those residents who expressed a strong sense of pride in the history of Newcastle commented that they hope to share the history with visitors to the city. At the same time, they also expressed the sentiments that they do not have opportunities to do so. As one stated, "The historicity of the city is really interesting, but I don't think people really get a sense of that when they visit Newcastle." One mentioned a lack of consultation with residents by the city's tourism developers as a reason for the gap between what the locals want to show to tourists and what is currently shown.

Continuity refers to the quality of a place to continue to support characteristics that contribute to an individual's identity and relationship with the place (Breakwell, 1986). Several interviewees were aware of physical changes brought by redevelopment projects, such as the increase of residential developments or changes in the city's major transportation system and improvement of other infrastructure, and some of them expressed negative feelings towards the change. However, some others stated that the nature of the community had not changed. One stated, "They are still the same people that you see. You can wave and say hello to people as you are walking along." In addition, although several identified some positive change brought by tourism, such as renovation of old buildings and increased events and activities in the community, few identified any major changes brought by tourism. Rather, many expected tourism (or carefully developed tourism) would bring more positive changes in the near future. One interviewee stated, "Because we are bringing so much

international tourism in, so much different flavor to the area” and “I don’t see (tourism development) being negative at all.”

Self-efficacy is defined as “an individual’s belief in his or her capabilities to meet situational demands” (Wang & Xu, 2015, p.243) in the place of interest. More precisely, a feeling of self-efficacy is maintained if the environment facilitates or, at least, does not hinder an individual’s everyday life. The interviewees repeatedly mentioned that the parking space and accessibility had become extremely limited in the central business area in Newcastle due to the current redevelopment.

Overall, the interviewees did not identify major perceived changes from tourism, especially negative changes. Rather, they made comments to welcome tourism. Butler (1980) argued that locals’ attitudes towards tourism are generally positive at the emerging stage of tourism because impacts of tourism are still not manifested, and locals hold high expectations. Indeed, residents in Newcastle expect that tourism can be a potential economic and social driver for the community. At the same time, interviewees indicated the things they are most proud of (i.e., history) are not well utilized as a tourism resource. This gap may increase a sense of internal conflict, and eventually influence their attitudes towards the place (Wang & Xu, 2015). Therefore, tourism planners and authorities need to engage in genuine consultation with residents and understand their perceptions of the quality of Newcastle.

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THE EFFECTS OF MOUNTAIN CLIMBERS' PRIOR AWARENESS ON THE PAYMENT OF A VOLUNTARY ENTRANCE FEE

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INTRODUCTION

Currently, Japan is pursuing a policy that asks mountain climbers to bear a portion of the cost to conserve the natural environment and maintain the trails. While the climbers are supposed to pay the fees at the entrance to the trails, under the current system, it is difficult to mandate such payments. For public spaces in Japan, the only way to collect funds for environmental conservation from visiting tourists is to implement a tax system. Thus, the fees are paid as a donation at the climbers' discretion. To make the collection system for such voluntary entrance fees more widespread, it is necessary to analyze the rate of cooperation and payment behaviors of the Japanese climbers who comprise the majority of visitors to the mountains.

Yamamoto and Jones (2017), who surveyed climbers at Mount Fuji, revealed that the factors that affect payment behavior are the climber's prior awareness of the system, the visibility of the fee payment location, and the staff's greetings. Kuriyama(2013) has analyzed the data via an Internet survey using the Travel Cost Method to determine the relationship between the cost of the entrance fee to Mount Fuji and one's intention in climbing. While both analyses present interesting findings, they were focused only on those climbing Fuji, a mountain that symbolizes Japan, and the applicability of the results to other mountains is questionable. Yama-kei Publishers(2013) took an opinion poll concerning the payment of entrance fees at mountains in general, but this poll only asked the participants' intentions over the Internet; moreover, this analysis was not based on whether the climbers actually paid. It is necessary to conduct a survey and analysis based on the climbers at mountains other than Fuji.

Recently, implementing such voluntary entrance fees across Japan has become a social issue. As such, it is necessary to conduct an experimental study on the portion of Japanese citizens who comprise the majority of mountain climbers. The purpose of this study is to clarify the factors that influence the donation rate by conducting an experiment in which the climbers are requested to pay a voluntary entrance fee and answer a questionnaire.

METHOD

The site of the survey was the mountain range of Mount Myoko and Hiuchi in Niigata Prefecture. The reason for selecting this site is that the Ministry of Environment has chosen this area as the recommended model for entrance fee collection, which means that any research findings focused on this area will draw attention, that the need to secure funds for environmental conservation and trail maintenance is a matter of exigency, and that there is local interest in the issue. The overview of the survey is as follows:

- Survey location: All entry points to Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi
- Survey time, period: 5 a.m. to 5 p.m., October 1 to 21, 2018
- Content of survey: Counting the number of climbers, the collection of fees, and administering a questionnaire at the point of descent
- Subjects of the survey: Climbers

FINDINGS

The number of climbers, excluding those who were exempt from fee collection, was 3,459 people. The total amount of fees collected was 13140USD.

The donation rate was 75.1%. The average amount per donation was 4.44USD.

Basic Attributes of Respondents and Mountain Climbing Characteristics

The profile of respondents by age group was as follows: 0.5% were in their teens, 6.8% were in their 20s, 12.2% were in their 30s, 19.8% were in their 40s, 21.3% were in their 50s, 25.0% were in their 60s, 7.9% were in their 70s, and 0.3% were in their 80s. There was a higher number of respondents in the older age groups. First-time climbers of Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi accounted for 52.2% of respondents, those who had climbed these mountains 2 to 5 times previously accounted for 34.0%, and those who had climbed them more than 6 times accounted for 7.7% of respondents. The participants were also asked how many times they had climbed a mountain, including mountains other than Myoko and Hiuchi, over the past year, and the results were the following: 59.4% had climbed a mountain 6 or more times, 26.6% had climbed a mountain 2 to 5 times, and 4.7% had climbed a mountain once, showing a high ratio of experienced climbers in the sample.

Awareness and Behaviors Related to the Voluntary Entrance Fee Collection System

The majority of climbers were not previously aware of the voluntary fee system: 40.5% were aware of the social experiment prior to their climb, while those who were not aware accounted for 58.9% of the respondents. When those who made donations were asked what compelled them to contribute, 61.7% answered that they agreed with the donation's intent and purpose, 52.3% stated that they felt it was their natural responsibility as a climber, and 15.3% said that they saw the attendant working at the reception area. Although the donation is meant to be voluntary, 4.4% of the people who responded said they felt they were forced to make one. On the other hand, those who did not donate also shared their reasons: 24.1% said they did not notice that they were supposed to donate, 18.0% said they did not donate because the donation is voluntary, and 14.9% said they did not know how the money would be used.

The Correlation Between the Act of Donation and Prior Awareness

When the correlation between the act of donation and the presence or absence of prior awareness of this social experiment was examined using the chi-squared test, the findings confirmed a significant correlation between the two, with the level of significance set at 0.1% ($p < .001$). Prior awareness of the voluntary entrance fee collection system and the act of donation showed a significant correlation, indicating that those who were aware of it were more likely to contribute. Based on such findings, it has become clear that, while donations may be voluntary, if climbers are given information on the details of the system prior to climbing, there will be a higher donation rate.

The Correlation Between the Act of Donation and the Frequency of Mountain Climbing

When the correlation between the act of donation and the frequency of climbing was examined using the chi-squared test, the correlation was found to be significant ($p < .05$). Thus, the frequency of mountain climbing and the likelihood of making a donation were found to have a significant correlation; these findings can be interpreted to mean that those who were aware of the voluntary entrance fee collection system had a higher probability of donating than those who were not aware.

The Correlation Between the Act of Donation and Prior Mountain Climbing Experience at Mount Myoko

When the act of donating and prior experience climbing Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi were examined using the chi-squared test, no significant correlation could be found ($p = .259$). Therefore, prior experience of climbing Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi seems to have little influence on one's likelihood of donating.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we clarified the characteristics of the climbers, their attitudes, and their actions. Based on that knowledge, we clarified the factors that influenced the behavior of climbers in donating to the voluntary environmental conservation fund (in the form of an entrance fee) at Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi. Furthermore, since more than half of the respondents to the questionnaire were

not aware of the social experiment concerning the voluntary entrance fee donation system, it was found that it is important to raise awareness of the system to increase donations. While systems in which the climbers are requested to bear a portion of the financial cost of maintaining a location are being introduced at famous natural tourist destinations such as Mount Fuji and Yakushima National Park, they are still uncommon; thus, raising the awareness of such systems is a vital task. The way in which information is provided beforehand should be considered, and a system to raise awareness about the voluntary entrance fee system among potential climbers would be desirable. The donation rate at Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi was 75.1%. On the other hand, the donation rate at Mount Fuji in 2014, the year when it implemented the voluntary entrance fee system, was 68.0%; by 2015, the rate had gone down to 52.9%. Mount Fuji is registered as a World Heritage Site and there is a high level of understanding among the citizens that it is important to conserve its resources. Furthermore, since it is a famous mountain, awareness of the system is thought to have been widespread. However, it was surprising to see that the donation rates at Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi surpassed that of Fuji.

In addition, considering the fact that prior awareness of the donation system remained at 40.5% in this experiment, it is possible that there are other factors that influence the donation rate. One such factor was the fact that climbers at Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi tend to be frequent climbers. Yamamoto and Jones (2017) point out that those who climb Mount Fuji tend to be relatively young, in their 20s and 30s, and that many of the climbers are first-time climbers. On the other hand, the climbers at Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi

are generally older, in their 50s to 60s, and have made mountain climbing their hobby. Based on the findings of this study, we can see that those who climb mountains more often have a higher rate of contribution; on the other hand, prior experience climbing Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi specifically has no correlation to the donation rate. This indicates that, while participants may not have had prior experience climbing Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi, prior experience climbing other mountains may have influenced donations. Which specific activities at other mountains could be expected to positively influence the rate of donation could be a topic for further investigation.

This study yielded the findings described above. At Mount Fuji, which has already implemented a donation system, the donation rate decreased in the year following its implementation. At Mount Myoko and Mount Hiuchi, it is important to clarify the factors that could positively influence continued donations.

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A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF CULTURAL WORLDVIEW AND CULTURAL EXPERIENCE AT NATURAL TOURISTIC SITES

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INTRODUCTION

This paper attempts to examine the relationship between the cultural worldview and cultural experiences of touristic sites. The study develops the hypothesis that people of different cultural worldviews may have different cultural experiences based on literature review. Then empirical examination is carried out. The study first modifies the measurement scale of cultural worldview and cultural experience. The relationship of cultural worldview and cultural experience is tested by using the data collected in Huangshan 2016 and 2017. The study aims to make contribution on understanding the importance of cultural worldview on tourist experiences.

METHOD

The questionnaire was developed to conduct the research. The questionnaire had two parts. The first part was basic demographical information of research samples. The second part was related to core contents of this study. In this part, four dimensions of cultural worldview (self-cultivation, cultural linkage, cultural loss and Chinese traditional culture) and six dimensions of cultural experience (high cultural, popular cultural, science knowledge, person-valuing, culture preference and general impression), as well as satisfaction were measured by associated scale items. The items used to measure cultural worldview came from Chio (2007); and the items used to measure cultural experience came from Cui et al. (2017). All these items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 represented “I do not agree at all” and 5 represented “I agree very

much”.

After the design of the original questionnaire, several experts helped to check the correctness and clarity of item expressions. The corrected and clarified measurement items can be easily understood by research participants. The questionnaires were distributed in Huangshan in 2016 and 2017. 300 questionnaires were in August 2016, and 253 were collected (84.3%) in 2017.

FINDINGS

EFA test. EFA was conducted on the original items of cultural worldview and cultural experience using SPSS dimension reduction analysis module. In the CW scale, the study found four factors, which were: a) Cultural Linkages; b) Cultural Loss; c) Chinese traditional cultural and d) Self-Cultivation. In the CE scale, the study found six factors, which were: (1) High Culture, (2) Popular Culture, (3) Science Knowledge, (4) Person-Valuing, (5) Culture Preference and (6) General Impression.

Measurement model. The overall model of CW scale fit was satisfactory with good index values (CMIN/DF= 2.596, NFI= 0.774, RFI= 0.726, IFI=0.848, CFI= 0.845 and the RMSEA =0.071). Meanwhile, Cronbach’s alphas (0.551-0.900) for most measure indicated an acceptable internal consistency across the items (Table 4). Additionally, the composite reliability estimates ranged from 0.559 to 0.908, and the average variance extracted (AVE) of most of the constructs were greater than 0.5. Furthermore, nearly all factor loadings for the individual items (except PC3= 0.447, CP2= 0.385 and GI3= 0.349) were found to be significant (>0.6) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

Table 1. Demographical information for the participants

Items	Category	Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	181	56.2
	Female	141	43.8
Age	Younger than 15 yrs	19	5.9
	15-24 yrs	171	53.1
	25-44 yrs	104	32.3
	45-64 yrs	28	8.7
	Older than 64 yrs	0	0.0
	Junior school or lower	29	9.0
Education	High school	61	18.9
	Junior college	49	15.2
	Bachelor	153	47.5
	Master or above	30	9.3
	Less than 1001	119	37.0
Monthly income (RMB)	1001-2000	33	10.2
	2001-3000	30	9.3
	3001-5000	49	15.2
	5001-10000	60	18.6
	More than 10000	31	9.6
	Civil servant	11	3.4
Occupation	Enterprise staff	72	22.4
	Farmer/worker	23	7.1
	Private business owner	17	5.3
	Institutional staff	41	12.7
	Student	143	44.4
	Retired	2	0.6
	Others	19	5.9

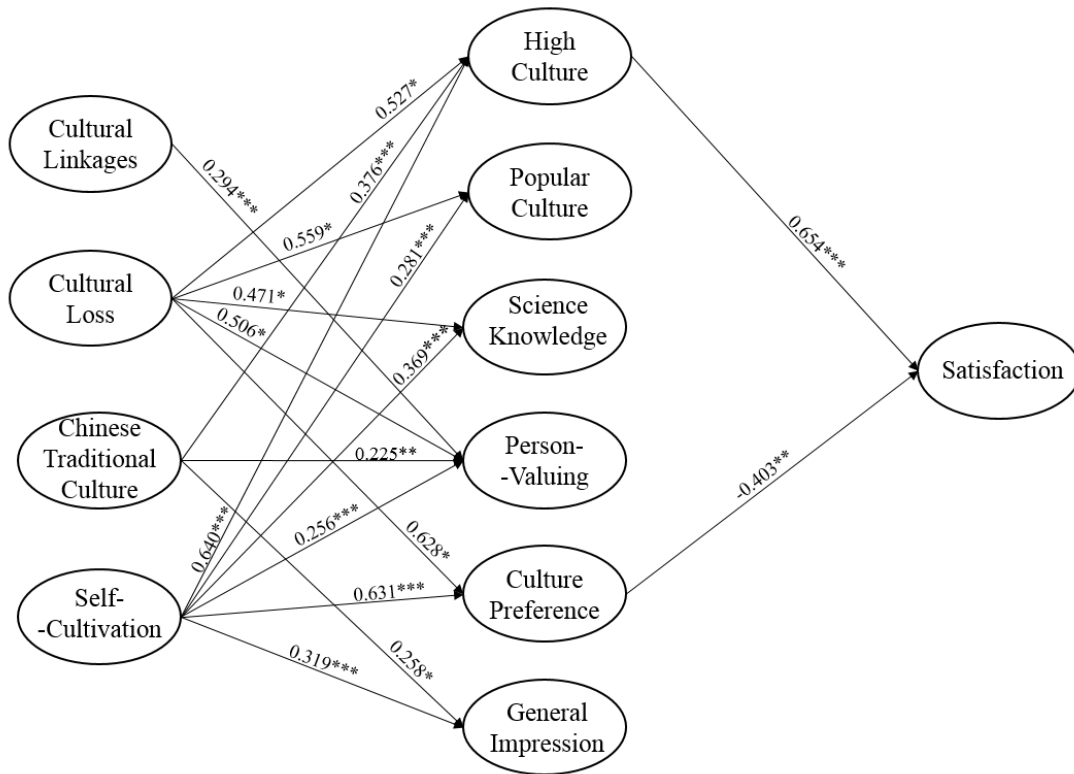
Note: The percentages were rounded up to one decimal point. Therefore, the percentage may not add up to 100.0 because of rounding errors.

CONCLUSION

This study has identified the scale of Cultural Worldview and Cultural Experience. While the Self-Cultivation and Culture Loss have a positive impacts on the CE, Chinese Traditional Culture also

affects the some dimensions of CE scale. But it is noting that only High Culture have influence on the total satisfaction during the travel in Huangshan Mountain Scenic Area, but the relationship between the Culture Preference and Satisfaction is negative significantly.

Structural model.



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

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CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN THE EXPERIENCE ECONOMY

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BACKGROUND

The idea of experience economy stressing an increase in industry revenue in proportion to an increase in consumer emotional pleasure is rooted in the theory of experienced utility (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). This theory postulates that humans are emotional and irrational; they make decisions based on their hedonic quality. According to Pine and Gilmore (1999, 2011), the boundaries between the traditional roles of a provider and a consumer break down in the experience economy. Considering these theories, Chang (2018 a, 2018 b) explored the loss and gain values of the service and experience economy in tourism and hospitality. The findings show that the loss value of experience is greater than the gain value of experience. In contrast, the loss value of service is smaller than the gain value of service. Moreover, the monetary values of experiential components significantly vary by regional cultures. Scholars attribute cultural differences to how experienced a society is with sociocultural factors and financial markets (Belk, 2015). Accordingly, customers' financial investments also vary across countries because each country has different cultural and economic conditions (Kumar & Pansari, 2016). Plausibly, other cultural contexts would yield results that are different from Chang's (2018 a, 2018 b) South Korean studies. Hence, this study investigates the potential effects of culture on the experience economy in tourism and hospitality by comparing Korean and American consumers. Research Question (RQ) 1: What are the patterns in the gain and loss values of service and experience of tourism and hospitality products (THPs) for South Koreans and Americans? Research Question (RQ) 2: What are the patterns in the experiential product (EP) values and loss values of experiential components of the EPs for South Koreans and Americans? Research Question (RQ) 3: What are differences in gain and loss values of service and experience of THPs as well as in EP values and loss values

of experiential components of the EPs between Koreans and Americans?

METHOD

The sample comprised South Koreans and Americans for the analytical comparison. Out of the 550 Korean and 430 American participants collected in the main study, 543 Korean responses and 424 American responses were usable for data analysis after the deletion of outliers to a normal distribution. Data were analyzed using descriptive analysis, a paired samples t-test, and independent t-test 1) to indirectly compare patterns within each country and 2) to directly compare THP and EP-related monetary values between countries. More specifically, for the first purpose of data analysis, this study analyzed several patterns with respect to the ratios (%) of the gain and loss values of service and experience of THPs perceived by South Korean and American consumers. In addition, a paired-samples t-test was conducted to assess statistically significant differences between the gain and loss values of service and experience of THPs. For the second purpose of data analysis, the amount of USD was directly compared between South Korea and the United States at the same price level, using 2016 Comparative Price Levels (CPL: the purchasing power parity ratios for private final consumption expenditure to exchange rates) (OECD, 2016). The price level in South Korea, against the United States' price level set at 100, was 87 at the time of data collection in 2016. The monetary values that Koreans indicated were first converted 1 KRW to USD 0.0008473 and then, were multiplied by 1.15 to be 100 as the price level. Independent t-test analysis was used for such a direct comparison.

FINDINGS

To assess statistically significant differences between service and experience gain values for past THP purchases and between service and experience

loss values for future THP purchases, a paired-samples t-test was conducted. For Koreans, the difference between service gain values and experience gain values is statistically significant, $t=3.14$, $p=0.002$, but the difference between service loss values and experience loss values is not significant, $t=1.25$, $p=.213$. Americans showed different patterns from Koreans, having no significant differences in the financial amount of gain and loss per se between service and experience of THP. Of the subjective monetary values of products with 20 experiential components, the ratios of loss values (i.e., subjectively perceived financial loss if the experiential domain of the product was not satisfactorily experienced) are relatively higher for Koreans than for Americans. Independent t-test analysis was conducted to compare between Koreans and Americans in terms of service and experience values. For gain values of THPs, there is no significant difference in service gain value between Koreans and Americans, while Americans are more likely to pay for experience gain value than Koreans are, $t=-1.978$, $p=.049$. For future THP values and loss values, Americans are willing to pay more for THPs in future than Koreans are, $t=-2.706$, $p=.007$. All financial amounts of loss of THPs per se are significantly different between Koreans and Americans, with Americans exhibiting larger amount of service ($t=-2.272$, $p=.024$) and experience ($t=-2.152$, $p=.032$). For hypothetical loss values of service and experience in future THP purchases, Koreans evaluated the ratio of service loss values for future THP price as 43.32% and the ratio of experience loss values as 40.92%. In contrast, for Americans, the ratio of service loss values for future THP price is 65.83% and the ratio of experience loss values is 72.45%. For the monetary values of the EPs, Americans pay more for a majority of the EPs. In contrast, any subjective loss amount of the experiential components are not significantly different between Koreans and Americans—that is to say, Americans value the financial amount of experiential losses lower than Koreans do.

IMPLICATIONS

Cultural differences may further support and explain these results. Koreans tend to show more prevention-oriented and less risk-taking behaviors,

and end up with more secure decisions (Lee et al., 2000). Therefore, they prefer to invest more in certain, standardized, and structural resources than Americans do (Power et al., 2010) do. In this vein, Koreans may find it more appealing to choose service that focuses on the passive role of consumers who receive tangible/intangible benefits that providers already make, offer, and guarantee, although there is no dynamic relationship to create memorable experiences beyond the expectation (Pine & Gilmore, 1999, 2011). Even if Korean customers cannot receive the corresponding service, they seem to ensure that the provider will take full responsibility for any loss or damage of service. In contrast, they may be reluctant to invest more money in experiences that are considered unexpected and intangible products involving uncertain consequences. Contrarily, Americans invest money to achieve self-enhancement goals and to stimulate their emotions with more unique and innovative experiences. Thus, they are more willing to take risks even when the consequences are not guaranteed (Bontempo et al., 1997; Chan et al., 2009; Lee & Bradford, 2015). With respect to cultural differences, Americans predict more optimistic future events and happiness associated with it to last longer (Lee et al., 2011; Wirtz et al., 2009). They thus tend to invest more on the future event (Bontempo et al., 1997). Their expenditures are also more likely to increase when the future event is associated with hedonic products, such as with THPs (Chang, 2017; Wirtz et al., 2009). The promotion-oriented culture that underpins American investment styles may account for why American consumers put a higher price on future THPs. Since they set higher future THP price than Koreans do, their service and experience loss values are also relatively higher. However, their percentage of experience loss values of the future THP is relatively larger than that of service loss values of the future THP. As mentioned earlier, Koreans place a relatively more weight on service components of THPs than experience components of THPs, while Americans also consider service components of THPs important, but they prioritize experience components of THPs more than Koreans do. However, Koreans perceive the EPs to be different from THPs. They feel greater losses when the EPs lack experiential components than Americans do. Their relatively larger loss values of the EPs resulted

in no significant difference in loss values between Koreans and Americans, even though Americans' EP prices were significantly higher than that of Koreans. Experiences are symbolic and intangible, but symbolic meanings manifest into different economic values explicitly based on consumers' cultural backgrounds.

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UNDERSTANDING THE DYNAMICS OF RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN INDONESIA: AN APPLICATION OF THE “STRUCTUGENCY THEORY”

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INTRODUCTION

Tourism has a long history in Indonesia; started during the colonialism era (Hampton and Jeyacheya, 2015, Kinseng et al, 2018). Tourism in Indonesia have grown faster during the last decades, and has become more and more important in the recent years. In the five years to come, Indonesian government has five focus of development, namely infrastructure, maritime, energy, food, and tourism (BPS and Tourism Affairs, 2017). Furthermore, it is stated that tourism was assigned as the leading sector due to its strategic role.

As elsewhere, “sun, sand and sea” have traditionally become famous object that attract tourists in Indonesia. However, there is also a growing interest of people in Indonesia to visit rural areas for recreation in recent years. In line with this interest, the government also promoting the development of tourism in rural areas by designating many villages as “tourism village” (desa wisata).

One of the “tourism village” in Indonesia is

Plajan village, located in Jepara Regency, Central Java. It is very interesting to study the dynamics of tourism development in this village.

In sociology, social action has become one of central attention since the very early of its birth. There has been a long debate between those who view that individual actor is an independent, has capability to make choices based on their calculation and values, and those who view that actor’s action is actually determined by structure. In his classical work, *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, for example, Max Weber shown that the Protestants acted rationally, based on their ethics which were derived from Calvinism (Weber, 1930/1992). In contemporary sociological theories, Symbolic Interactionism, Phenomenology, and Rational Choice are all emphasize the autonomy of individual in their actions. On the other side, theories such as Structural Functionalism and Marxism argue that human actions are determined by social structure.

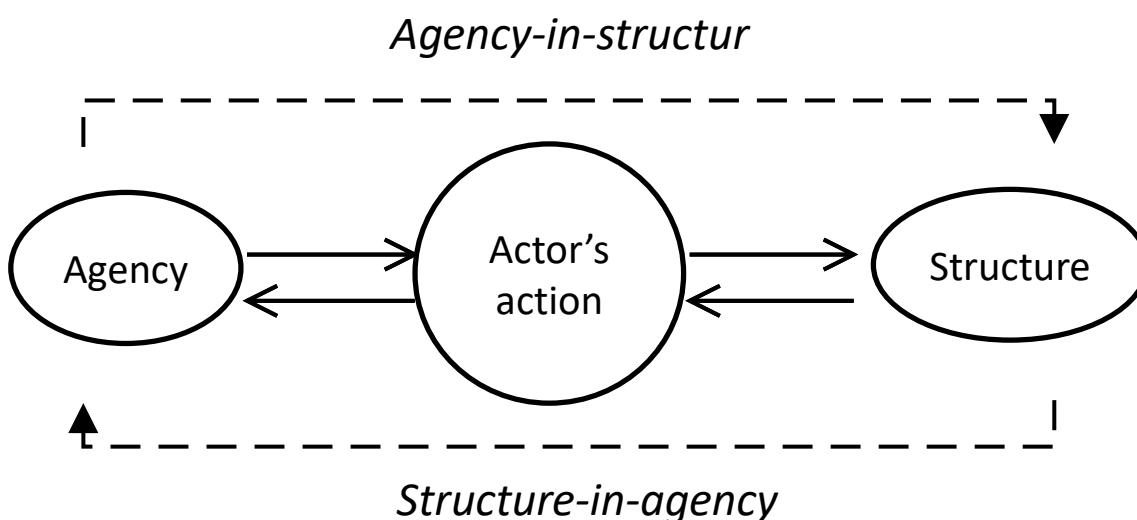


Figure 1. Interplay between agency and structure in actor’s action

Source: Kinseng, 2017

In recent development, in his Structuration theory, Giddens argued that this dualism of actor versus agency is actually a *false dualism* (Sibeon 2004:48). According to him agency and structure should be viewed as duality; they are like two sides of the same coin. Every action is considered as interplay between agency and structure. While rejecting Giddens idea of duality of agency and structure, Kinseng (2017) used term “Structugency” to argue that every action consists of two elements, namely agency and structure. Kinseng agreed with those who argued that, at the conceptual and analytical level, agency and structure must be treated as separate and different entities. An actor particular action can be more determined by agency or by structure or by both equally. The interplay between agency and structure in actor’s action is presented in Figure 1. In this study, we use this “Structugency” as our theoretical framework to analyze the dynamics of rural tourism development.

METHOD

The research was conducted in two phases; first in April 2018 and second phase in April 2019. The research was conducted using a qualitative approach. Data were collected mainly through in-depth interviews with key actors of the tourism development in Plajan village, especially Mr. Mwt, his wife, and other actors who actively involved in the development of tourism in Plajan villlage.

FINDINGS

In the past times, Plajan village was known as areas with barren land. Water was scarce during dry season but flood during rainy season. When Mr. Mwt become Village Head (Kepala Desa) in 2005, he started a reforestation program as an effort to overcome the natural condition of the village. Within this reforestation program, his policies among others include: if someone cut one tree, he must plant five trees; a newly married couple must plant trees; and designated locations for “natural tourism” (wisata alam) in the village.

The reforestation program brought about several positive impacts for the Plajan villagers. It transformed the Plajan village from a barren land to become green areas. The trees also become source of wood needed for the furniture industry in the

village. For the village tourism development, the designation of several places as tourism objects turn out become a very important policy.

Mr. Mwt own a land that mainly consist of forest and hills. In his land, there is also a big tree (beringin tree) with many hanging roots. The age of the tree was very old, more than 100 years. Mr. Mwt took an initiative to make the tree as an object of tourism. Beautiful mountains and rice fields can be seen from the location of the tree. This condition attract tourists to come to this place. As the first tourism object in the village, this tree has become the icon of the Plajan village tourism.

To manage the tourism activities, Mr. Mwt stimulated villagers’ participation. For example, he assigned several villagers as cleaning, parking, ticketing workers, etc. Later on he established a more formal organization, consists of Head, Secretary and Treasury as well as head of several divisions. Moreover, Mr. Mt and several others also established a group called “Kelompok Sadar Wisata” (Pokdarwis), literary means group of tourism aware, which function to monitor and develop tourism in Plajan village. Initially, Mr. Mwt was the Head of this group but since 2017 he was replaced by another person and he became the “Advisor”.

As time pass by, another tourism objects were found and “created” by Mr. Mwt and some villagers. For example, Goa Sakti, Gong Perdamaian, Pura Dharma Loka, Sirkuit Bumi Arafah, are also popular tourism objects in addition to the Akar Seribu. In its development, the “Pokdarwis” also conduct Visit Plajan program every year starts in 2015. In this event, several cultural performances are conducted, such as traditional dance and singing. They also use digital technology including creating Website to promote their tourism to the world.

In 2015, the number of tourists who visit Plajan village were 20, 470 persons, in 2016 drop become 8,390 person, but grown very dramatic in 2017 become 66, 502 persons. Due to the rapid development of tourism in Plajan village, Head of Jepara Regency (Bupati) issued a decision letter No. 050/105 year 2015, which assigned Plajan village as a tourism village (Desa Wisata). The “golden era” of tourism in Plajan village was from 2014 until 2016. After that the development of tourism in Plajan village has been declining. When we conduct the research in April 2019, basically only

the Akar Seribu is still well maintained and visited by many tourists.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings above shows clearly the important role play by the agency of the actors, especially Mr. Mwt in promoting the development of rural tourism in Plajan village. Actor's actions such as creating a natural object like a tree to become a tourism object is more influenced by his agency rather than structure. Mr. Mwt and several villagers later also create organization and rules to facilitate tourism activities in their village. In other words, they create enabling structures for the tourism development.

However, it doesn't mean that structures are not important. Referring to Giddens (2003), the availability of natural resources that can be created as tourism objects are enabling structures for the development of the village tourism. So does the Bupati's "decision letter" assigned Palajan village as a "tourism village". Moreover, referring to Sibeon (2004) another important structural factor that influenced Mr. Mwt and others to develop tourism further is tourists who visit the village.

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CHANGES IN THE MARKET STRUCTURE AND OPPORTUNITIES OF THAI TOURISM IN THE MAIN FOREIGN TOURIST MARKETS

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INTRODUCTION

During the last two decades, Thai government had the policy to focus more on promoting foreign tourist markets. In the first decade, after the economic crisis in 1997, foreign tourists had a gradually expansion. After the year 2009, there was a leap expansion of Chinese tourists which is both an opportunity and a challenge for Thai tourism. Such expansion has resulted in a change in the market structure of foreign tourists in Thailand. It was also reflected problems related to the high tourist concentration (the over-tourism) and tourist carrying capacity of Thailand. The leap expansion of Chinese tourists was not happening only in Thailand, but it also occurred both at the regional and global level which UNWTO (2011) has predicted since 2011. Changes in the international tourism market both in the world and Thailand would inevitably affect the competitiveness and opportunities of Thai tourism. Hence, this article aims to 1) assess the advantages and position of the competitiveness of Thailand's tourism and 2) analyze the situation, market trends and market opportunities of Thailand compared to the main competitors in ASEAN. The results of the study will be an important information that enables us to know the position and trends of changing the competitiveness of Thailand's tourism in the major foreign tourist market after the rapidly increasing number of the Chinese tourists and the political crisis in Thailand. Additionally, this also includes approaches for improving marketing strategies for each market in the future, leading possibly to a marketing promotion strategy that emphasizes the enhancement of quality and building cooperation

with neighboring countries to work on marketing together instead of competing with each other through pricing strategies.

METHOD

This article divides the analytical approach into two parts. The first part is an overview of the trend, size, and stability of the market expansion over the past two decades. The second part is the analysis of the competitiveness and opportunities of Thailand when compare with the competitors in the ASEAN region (exclude Brunei). However, regarding the analysis of Chinese's tourist market, we add Japan and South Korea to be the other two competitors of Thailand (ASEAN+2). This part applied a competitive advantage ratio (CAR) in both static and dynamic to assess the ability to attract and analyze market trend situations. Shift-share analysis (SSA) was also applied to assess the competitiveness position and market opportunities of Thai tourism. The analysis was divided into three periods, namely 2001-2008 (before the market structure change in 2009 due to the leap expansion of Chinese's tourists), 2009-2012 (before the chaos in the country leading to the coup in 2014) and 2015-2017 (after the coup in 2014).

The analysis of the opportunities of Thai tourism was done in two segments of foreign tourist markets, which were divided since the change in market structure of foreign tourists in Thailand after 2009. The first segment is the mature market which comprises of the ASEAN and Europe tourists. This group of foreign tourist is the main market of Thai tourism for more than a decade and still has a high market share presently (the

proportion is approximately 44 percent in 2017), but the potential and trend of growth increase at a reduced rate. The second segment is the emerging market which includes Chinese, Russian, and Indian tourists. This group of foreign tourist has the potential and trend to continue to grow during 2009-2017, and also has an average annual growth rate at least two digits over the past eight years.

FINDINGS

The leap expansion of Chinese's tourists in the last decade affected the international tourism structure of the world. China has played an increasingly important role in the global tourism economy. It will also have an important role in driving the world's tourism for the next decade, while Europe will play a less important role and has more travel within the region.

Thailand is affected by the expansion of Chinese's tourists as well. This expansion has changed the foreign tourist market structure in Thailand. The European and ASEAN market that is the main market has reduced the market share, and was replaced by the Chinese market. The foreign tourist market of Thailand can be divided into two major segments, namely the mature market segments, which is ASEAN and European markets, and the emerging market segments that includes Chinese, Russian and Indian markets. Nearly a decade ago, the mature market grew less than the emerging market. In each market segment, Thailand faces with different competitors in both the same region such as Singapore, Malaysia, Indonesia, and other regions such as Japan, South Korea, and Turkey.

The expansion of each market in the past three years has been different. The emerging-market segments (Chinese, Russian, and Indian tourists) benefited from the ability to attract tourists of the countries in ASEAN region as well as the specialization and competitiveness in tourism of

Thailand. While the mature market segments like ASEAN market benefited from only the competitiveness in tourism of Thailand. While European market benefited from both the specialization and competitiveness in Tourism of Thailand.

During the past three years (2015-2017), there was only ASEAN market that Thailand has no competitive advantage, but it has a tendency to increasing. In other words, Thailand is in the situation of "Retreat" in this market. The European and Chinese markets are two markets in which Thailand has a tendency to increase its competitive advantage. Regarding the European market, the ability to attract this group of tourists of Thailand has decreased at a faster rate than the ability of all countries within the ASEAN region. Hence Thailand falls into the "Follow retreat" situation. For the Chinese market, Thailand can attract this group of tourist less than all the countries throughout the ASEAN region. Therefore, Thailand faced with the "Lagging opportunity" situation in this market. The remaining two foreign tourist markets are Russian and Indian which Thailand is in the situation of "Rising star" because they have the ability to attract these groups of tourists more than all the countries within the ASEAN region.

The policy or strategy that should be implemented to promote Thailand's tourism is different according to the market. The European, Russian, and Indian markets are the markets that Thailand does not need to change the marketing strategy (Right track). That is because Thailand has both the competitive advantage and tourism specialization in these markets. Regarding the ASEAN market, Thailand should pay specific attention to enhance the specialization to be able to compete for more market shares. Chinese market is the market that Thailand should pay sustained attention or use the specialization in tourism to raise the level of competitive advantage.

Table 1. Market Status, Competitiveness, and Opportunities for Thai Tourism in the Important International Tourist Markets.

Item	ASEAN	Europe	China	Russia	India
1. The Outbound tourists, 2016					
- Number (million persons) [Average growth rate during 2010-2016 (% per year)]	69 [6.7]	618 [3.04]	135 [15.33]	32 [-3.55]	22 [9.07]
- Expenditure (Billion US\$) [Average growth rate during 2010-2016 (% per year)]	68 [6.5]	441 [7.21]	250 [21.3]	31 [1.90]	17 [11.03]
2. Market status in ASEAN, 2017					
- Market size (million persons) [Average growth rate during 2009-2017 (% per year)]	45.68 [4.68]	12.53 [4.75]	35.55 ^{2/} [23.78]	1.72 [15.98]	3.94 [8.22]
- Thailand's share (%)	20.17	51.97	27.58 ^{2/}	78.41	35.79
- Major competitors of Thailand	Malaysia Singapore	Singapore Indonesia (Intra 84%)	South Korea Japan Vietnam	Vietnam (Turkey and Europe)	Singapore Malaysia Indonesia
3. Market status in Thailand					
- Market size: 2009 → 2017 (million persons)	3.97→9.12	4.06→6.51	0.78→9.81	0.34→1.35	0.61→1.41
- Market share: 2009 → 2017 (%)	28.1→25.8	28.7→18.4	5.5→27.7	2.4→3.8	4.3→4.0
- Average growth rate during 2009-2017 (% per year) ^{1/} [Trend when compare with during 1999-2009]	10.96 [↑]	6.08 [↓]	37.28 [↑]	18.90 [↓]	10.96 [↓]
- Instability during 2009-2017 (CV) ^{1/} [Trend when compare with during 1999-2009]	0.86 [↑]	1.18 [↑]	0.76 [↓]	2.00 [↑]	0.83 [↑]
4. Average growth rate during 2015-2017 (% per year)	7.31	7.53	11.15	23.40	14.90
5. Source of the growth during 2015-2017 ^{3/}					
- Market growth in ASEAN	×	×	✓	✓	✓
- Thailand has competitive advantage	✓	✓	×	✓	✓
- Thailand has specialized	×	✓	✓	✓	✓
6. Comparative advantage					
- Situation in 2017 ^{4/}	×	✓	✓	✓	✓
- Trend during 2015-2017 ^{5/}	↑	↓	↓	↑	↑
7. Opportunity of Thai in the future					
- Market trend situation ^{6/}	Retreat	Follow retreat	Lagging opportunity	Rising star	Rising star
- Policy/ Strategy ^{7/}	Specific attention	Right track	Sustained attention	Right track	Right track

Note: ^{1/} "↑" and "↓" are the trend when compare with 1999-2009; ^{2/} including Japan and South Korea; ^{3/} considering from Shift-share analysis; ^{4/} considering from NRCA (×= NRCA < 0, ✓ = NRCA > 0); ^{5/} and ^{6/} considering from Dynamic-CAR; ^{7/} considering from the component of allocation effect.

Source: Calculated from the data of Thai Ministry of Tourism and Sports and Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA)

RECOMMEDATIONS

Regarding the results of this study, Thailand should use different marketing policies in each foreign tourist market according to market segments and dynamic changes that occur. Simultaneously, they should continuously monitor and analyze the changes in their tourism competitiveness as well as

special expertise in each market in order to be able to implement policies in accordance with and keep up with the current rapid changes.

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TOURISM RESEARCHER IN THE MIDST OF A DISASTER: CHANGING ROLES, SHIFTING PRIORITIES, AND CREATING STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

This paper records the challenges experienced by a doctoral researcher during his data collection in Kathmandu, the capital city of Nepal; and how he eventually overcame the obstacles to complete his research. Narrated using an autoethnographic approach, the paper takes readers through a journey hindered by two major earthquakes, several rejections by the participants to the researcher's interview requests and the evolution of fear of being not able to complete the data collection on time. It also examines how a researcher derives meaning from the ongoing challenges; and how such challenges affect the choices that he makes during his data collection. Finally, the paper identifies that a constant interpersonal dialogue with the self and with concerned stakeholders along with the ability of the researcher to persevere and adapt are the key to successfully overcome challenges.

Keywords: data collection, the earthquakes, researcher's vulnerability, autoethnography, Nepal.

INTRODUCTION

Many doctoral researchers return to their hometown to undertake fieldwork (see for e.g., Hassani Esfehiani, 2017; Melubo & Lovelock, 2018; Mukherji, Ganapati, & Rahill, 2014). During fieldwork, most doctoral researchers set their roles and priorities focused around collecting relevant and sufficient data within their scheduled time using (mostly) predetermined instrument(s). How are the roles and priorities of the doctoral researchers affected when disasters such as an earthquake hit the research area during the course of their fieldwork? How do doctoral researchers develop their strategies to cope with such disasters, and give continuity to their research at the same time? This paper examines these questions.

Disasters such as 'the South East Asia Tsunami in 2004, the Haiti Earthquake in 2010, and Typhoon Haiyan in 2013, have caused the deaths of hundreds of thousands of people and catastrophically disrupted the lives of millions more' (Ferreira, Buttell, & Ferreira, 2015, p.30). These disasters, whether natural or man-made, have been increasing over the last few decades affecting communities, households and individuals (Myers & Wee, 2005). Because of the severity of their impacts, they also tend to attract a significant number of studies, within a year, after the major disasters have occurred (Gaillard & Gomez, 2015). Although these disasters 'offer researchers the ability to explore and advance current preparedness, response, and recovery practices' (Lavin, Schemmel-Rettenmeier, & Frommelt-Kuhle, 2012, p.1), researchers often face a number of significant challenges during their fieldwork (Hu, 2015). For example, among others, the researchers have faced planning challenges due to frequent cancellations of interview schedules by the disaster victims; language challenge due to lack of availability of interpreter and logistical challenge due to lack of transportation and accommodation facilities in disaster-affected areas; and, ethical challenge as the researchers faced dilemma whether to pursue with their designed questionnaire with the disaster victims in their sorrowful and vulnerable state (Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; Collogan, Tuma, Dolan-Sewell, Borja, & Fleischman, 2004; Fleischman & Wood, 2002; Hu, 2015; Mukherji, Ganapati, & Rahill, 2014; Richardson, Plummer, Barthelemy, & Cain, 2009; Rosenstein, 2004).

It is, however, important to note two important aspects of the existing disaster-related literature. First, the fieldworks of the studies that report disaster-related fieldwork experiences were mostly conducted in the aftermath of the disasters, that means most researchers had arrived at the research sites after the disaster had occurred. Therefore, it is possible that many post-disaster researchers had some level of awareness of the possible challenges

they might face while conducting research at the disaster site, and were mentally and physically prepared to overcome them. These mental and physical preparations are also aided by the plethora of existing literature that provides suggestions on the roles of the researchers and ethical guidelines for conducting research in disaster areas (see for e.g., Ferreira, Buttell, & Ferreira, 2015; Lavin, Schemmel-Rettenmeier, & Frommelt-Kuhle, 2012; Richardson et al., 2009; Collogan et al., 2004). Consequently, the environmental, physical, methodological and/or ethical challenges that are reported in the existing studies are mainly related to the external contexts and/or people in the disaster sites. Second, there is a consensus in the existing studies that most research participants are vulnerable at the disaster sites, if they are also the disaster victims, because of their need for services and their inability to cope with, anticipate, resist and/or recover from the impacts (Ferreira, Buttell, & Ferreira, 2015). However, excepting a rare few (for e.g., Ballamingie & Johnson, 2011, Mukherji, Ganapati, & Rahill, 2014), none of the studies has examined if the researchers at the disaster sites are also vulnerable. Because the environment of disaster may be entirely unpredictable, researchers may be 'hindered by safety concerns, primarily related to immediate dangers founded within the crisis situation and following the disaster' (Lavin, Schemmel-Rettenmeier, & Frommelt-Kuhle, 2012, p.5). Furthermore, the emotional toll experienced at the disaster site while seeing and listening to disaster victims may even become the source of physical trauma to the researchers (Flory, Kloos, Hankin, and Cheely, 2008). However, researchers' conditions and vulnerability at the research site, the effects on researcher's own internal position at the disaster site, and the roles performed by the researcher within those positions are largely absent from existing literature (Collogan et al., 2004; Mukherji, Ganapati, & Rahill, 2014).

In this paper, I aim to fill this gap by examining how new roles emerged for me as a doctoral researcher when the massive earthquakes hit the research site, Kathmandu, Nepal, during the course of my data collection in April and May 2015. Through this paper, I also report on the priorities and strategies I adopted to fulfil those roles. The findings of this study contribute to disaster-fieldwork literature as well as tourism

literature by providing new insights into fieldwork challenges that arise due to the researcher's vulnerability at the disaster site. I also enumerate the implications of my experiences to the research community in general and doctoral researchers in particular.

I have chosen the autoethnographic approach to share my lived experience. It is argued that autoethnographies 'work best when they are applied to an experience or context from which the author seeks to understand or derive meaning. Often these experiences involve conflict and are situated within a broader social context or worldview' (Kelley, 2014, p. 349). Buckley (2012) have argued that if a psychological experience exists in the memory of the person who experienced it, and comprehensible only to those who have experienced it, and indescribable to those who have not, then the autoethnographic approach is the most suitable research methodology. In other words, 'if ...personal experience is critical to comprehension, then an autoethnographic basis is the only approach available' (Buckley, 2012, p.962). The use of autoethnography in this paper helped me examine my judgements, presumptions and preconceptions, positioned me to be open to differing viewpoints and explore alternate perspectives.

DISASTER, VICTIMS AND THE RESEARCHER

Oliver-Smith (1996, p. 305) defines a disaster as:

...a process/event involving a combination of a potentially destructive agent(s) from the natural and/or technological environment and a population in a socially and technologically produced condition of environmental vulnerability. The combination of these elements produces damage or loss to the major social organizational elements and physical facilities of a community to the degree that the essential functions of the society are interrupted or destroyed, which results in individual and group stress and social disorganization of varying severity.

The above definition leads to our understanding that disasters, whether natural or man-made, are non-routine events that are capable of causing harm to people and the society in all possible ways (Kreps, 1989). There is always unpredictability of the hazard occurrences and

secondary hazards, such as aftershocks that occur after a major earthquake, reoccur irregularly. These secondary hazards create high uncertainty in the life of all people living in the affected region because of an emergency evacuation, displacement, public health risks, unavailable transportation, and food undersupply among others (Hu, 2015). There is an overwhelming consensus in the existing literature that, because of these uncertainties, researchers, often, not only find it difficult to follow a routine research schedule but also occasionally encounter a number of methodological and ethical challenges while conducting research with the vulnerable participants in the disaster setting. To top this up, many researchers, themselves, become vulnerable during their research.

Some of the most common methodological challenges that researchers encounter while conducting research in the disaster-affected areas include time constraints, difficulty in contacting or recruiting participants, difficulty in data collection from individuals following a disaster, inability to track displaced populations, and lack of communication (Lavin, Schemmel-Rettenmeier, & Frommelt-Kuhle, 2012). Often, the researcher may not be able to contact the disaster survivors as they may not have easy access to a phone as both landlines and cell towers can be damaged and may take days to weeks to repair. While studying the experience of Hurricane Katrina evacuees to understand factors that were influencing evacuation decisions in impoverished minority communities who were most severely affected by the disaster, Eisenman, Cordasco, Asch, Golden, and Glik (2007) reported that although they were successful in recruiting participants at their temporary lodgings, it became difficult for them to conduct interviews because the participants would have been moved and no one could tell them about their whereabouts. Flory, Kloos, Hankin, and Cheely (2008) also experienced difficulty in getting individuals to call in and found that some had low literacy skill that caused an additional barrier for their research while conducting clinical research following the Hurricane Katrina.

The most critical challenge that researcher face in the disaster setting is related to ethical issues. For researchers, the ethical dilemma arises from a number of aspects. For example, while conducting research in the disaster setting, the researcher not only has to protect the privacy and rights of research

participants, but also need to disseminate the application of their findings accurately and with quality (Ausbrooks, Barrett, & Martinez-Cosio, 2009; Lavin, Schemmel-Rettenmeier, & Frommelt-Kuhle, 2012). Ausbrooks, Barrett, and Martinez-Cosio (2009) reported that they simultaneously faced the several ethical challenges including getting informed consent from the participants, compensating participants for their information and maintaining their confidentiality among others during their research on middle- and high school students who were displaced by Hurricane Katrina. Similarly, Hu (2015) faced an ethical dilemma that arose because of research bias and role conflict in the absence of independent review institutions during their action research project on community reconstruction after the 2008 Sichuan Earthquake in China.

Vulnerable population in the disaster areas poses even greater ethical challenges for researchers. For example, as mentioned above, while conducting research, the researcher needs to pay due consideration to the ethical treatment of vulnerable populations and protect them from being further harmed by the dissemination of their information. Although no specific category of population has been described as vulnerable in general, some countries, for example, the USA has identified pregnant women, handicapped or mentally disabled persons, prisoners, and children as the vulnerable group of population for the purpose of research because of their socio-economic and educational situations (Ausbrooks, Barrett, & Martinez-Cosio, 2009). However, researchers also believe that disaster victims/survivors also tend to be in a particularly vulnerable position because they need services and can be easily manipulated (Fleischman & Wood, 2002; Rosenstein, 2004). Furthermore, disaster affects its victims' capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from its impacts (Ferreira, Buttell, & Ferreira, 2015). If these subjects are asked to recollect disaster-related events during interviews, they may suffer from re-traumatization and overburdened. Norris, Galea, Friedman, and Watson (2006) had found that 74% of human subjects experienced post-traumatic stress and one-third of them showed symptoms of depression during their review of studies on disasters and their particular impact on the mental health of the people experiencing them. Other

victims have suffered distressing worries, difficulty in sleeping and concentrating, and disturbing bad memories (Collogan, Tuma, Dolan-Sewell, Borja, & Fleischman, 2004). Therefore, as disasters may cause a wide range of effects on the subject that may affect them physically, behaviorally, emotionally and cognitively, researchers need to pay extra care and attention on how their studies can influence their participants.

Although existing studies elaborate heavily on the vulnerability of participants in the disaster research, less is known about the vulnerability of the researcher in the disaster field, and even fewer studies have focused on the vulnerability experienced by a doctoral researcher. Proximity to the trauma increases the psychological impact among the individuals (Ausbrooks, Barrett, & Martinez-Cosio, 2009), and therefore, disaster researchers are also prone to vulnerability. These researchers are vulnerable in a number of ways. For example, listening to survivors' intense stories of pain and suffering and physically seeing their trauma may be overwhelming and emotionally draining to the researcher, and can result in burnout and fatigue (Flory et al., 2008; Mukherji, Ganapati, & Rahill, 2014). Similarly, they may also face natural risks, public health risks, riots, psychological problems, and complex community relations (Hu, 2015). One of the fewer studies that expand on doctoral researcher's vulnerability on the disaster setting has been published by Mukherji, Ganapati, and Rahill (2014). Their paper describes several cases of severe stressful situations and collective traumas that the three authors experienced during their separate fieldworks following the 2011 Great East Japan Earthquake and Tsunami, the 2001 Gujarat Earthquake in India, and the 2010 Haiti Earthquake. The doctoral researchers on the disaster setting can also face vulnerability because of their inability to control the outcome of their research. For example, Ballamingie and Johnson (2011) reported that because some of their important participants refuse to participate in the research because of their personal problems in the disaster site, it almost affected the timely completion of their dissertation. Their problem was later resolved as other, unintended participants, agreed to participate in the researcher.

Not only the experience of a doctoral researcher in the disaster setting is rare, but the

accounts of a researcher (including a doctoral researcher) in the midst of crisis are also the rarest. While conducting a survey of the existing literature through google scholar, the author came across only one study by Richardson, Plummer, Barthelemy, and Cain (2009) that report on the difficulty experienced by the researcher while conducting research in the middle of the disaster. In their paper, Richardson, Plummer, Barthelemy, and Cain (2009) examine the challenges experienced by four faculty members in schools and departments of social work located within the Gulf Coast area who made their initial forays into disaster-related research in the midst of Hurricanes Katrina and Rita. The authors noted that apart from other challenges, they faced difficulty in staying focused on research agenda, managing multiple requests for research participation, and balancing personal and professional needs and obligations towards their family and friends who were also victims of the hurricanes.

In tourism, studies have mostly focused on the impacts of and management of disasters in destinations and communities. For example, Calgaro and Lloyd (2008) have examined the impact of the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami on coastal tourism communities in Thailand and highlights the vulnerability of tourism destinations to external shocks. Similarly, while Ritchie (2004) outlines and discusses a strategic and holistic approach to crisis management for the tourism industry, Huang and Min (2002) and Huan, Beaman, and Shelby (2004) evaluated the impacts and recovery of Taiwan after the 1999 Earthquake.

The above review of disaster literature clearly illustrates that while there is an extensive concern about the challenges that researchers face and vulnerability of the participants during research in the disaster setting, the effects on the researcher, and particularly the doctoral researcher is underrepresented and completely absent in the tourism disaster-related literature. Because researchers also face vulnerability and sometimes in ways that may cause harm to them physically, psychologically and professionally, it is important to examine their experiences. This paper aims to fill this gap.

THE EARTHQUAKES

I began my PhD journey in March 2014 at

the University of Otago, New Zealand. Blessed with encouraging and supportive supervisors, I spent the year 2014 in the university, enthusiastically reading about and writing on my topic--trade union movements in the tourism industry. By early 2015, I had identified my research questions, finalized my methodology and obtained the required ethical approval to start collecting data from Kathmandu, the capital city of Nepal, and my home country.

Apart from Kathmandu's suitability to my area of research (because of its experience with trade union disputes for more than 20 years), the perception I initially had of my lived familiarity with the place and my insider knowledge of the industry, within which I had worked in the capacity of a lecturer on tourism management as well as industry professional, motivated me to undertake this research in my hometown. Because I believed that I had a sufficient number of acquaintances, I was hopeful that I would complete my data collection much earlier than I planned. Contrary to my initial conviction, my research journey was severely constrained by two major earthquakes, many political strikes, border area unrest, unofficial border blockade by India and consequently several rejections by participants to my request for an interview. In this paper, I particularly focus on and examine how my physical condition, choices and decisions were affected by those two earthquakes and, the strategies I adopted in order to overcome these difficulties to complete my data collection.

I reached Kathmandu in late March 2015. After taking a break for a little more than a week and spending some happy moments with my family, I redirected my thoughts towards data collection. My plan was to collect data through interviews with trade union officials and members first and then with the employers of hotels and airline companies. Having decided on this plan, I looked through the internet and prepared a quick list of names and addresses of the hotels that were most commonly associated with trade union-related problems. Then, I approached the union's office in one of the four-star hotels in Kathmandu and successfully conducted my first interview with the president of the trade union in that hotel. Later with his help, I located another participant and conducted a second interview.

On the 25th of April 2015, Saturday, I decided to take a short break from my work and take my family for a little road trip on the recently

inaugurated highway (Banepa-Bardiwas highway). Even though the highway was recently inaugurated, it had gathered scores of appreciation from people for its unique landscape and beautiful scenery, and I was curious to see it for myself. I borrowed my father's small car, left home at around 11.00 AM and hit the highway about 40 minutes later. As is usual, it was a busy Saturday afternoon and because there was traffic on the road, the car only crawled. But, our spirits were high and in spite of the traffic, I was laughing and enjoying the drive with my wife and my daughter.

All of a sudden, I felt my car sway on the road, as if it were on the surface of a tide on the sea, moving up and down with the wave. Unable to comprehend what was happening, I immediately stopped the car in a panic and looked out from the window. To my horror, I saw all other vehicles swaying exactly the same way as my car. That was when I noticed a big bus standing parallel to our car swaying heavily; ready to fall over on us any time. My heart was beating loudly in my ears now, and sweat broke out from my forehead. A cacophony of chirping birds, barking dogs and frightened people had completely surrounded the environment. Everything was in chaos. A little distance to our left, a two-storied house on the roadside collapsed. A massive earthquake of 7.9 magnitudes had hit the city. The earthquake lasted approximately one minute but it brought in devastation beyond imagination. Within a three-week time, when the people were still struggling to survive the aftershocks of the first earthquake, another massive earthquake of the same magnitude as the first one hit on May 12. Estimates released a couple of months after revealed that the earthquakes killed over 9000 people and injured more than 21000. Almost 500,000 houses were fully damaged, and more than 300,000 had suffered partial damages.

METHOD

I have chosen autoethnography as an approach to examine and analyse my lived experiences as a doctoral researcher in the midst of the disaster (earthquakes) for this paper. Autoethnography is defined as 'an approach to research and writing that seeks to describe and systematically analyse (graphy) personal experience (auto) in order to

understand cultural experience (ethno)' (Ellis, Adams, & Bochner, 2011, p. 273). Therefore, autoethnographers tend to use both the aspects of autobiography (self) and ethnography (cultural experience) in order to do and write an autoethnography. However, instead of making use of observation and interviews to gain an understanding of others (which generally the ethnographers do), in autoethnographic researches, the researchers make use of their own experiences to understand and make meanings (Polkinghorne, 1991). In order to do so, primarily, autoethnographers write stories from their experiences that are complex as well as meaningful and allow authors and readers to make sense of the human experience and phenomenon under study (Brown, 2016). Autoethnographic stories examine the meaning of human experiences by allowing readers to enter and feel part of the story that includes emotions, intimate detail, and dilemmas, and think with a story rather than about it (Ellis, 1999; Ellis & Bochner, 2000). Therefore, autoethnographies are 'highly personalised accounts that draw upon the experience of the author/researcher for the purposes of extending sociological understanding' (Sparkes, 2000, p. 21).

In the current study, I draw from my extended lived experience the contexts, conditions and situations that I and my family members faced during and after the two earthquakes. I also analyse the emotions and trauma faced by me and my family members as disaster victims, and ethical dilemmas, methodological challenges and procedural difficulties while continuing my doctoral fieldwork between April 2015 and February 2016. Because all of these lived experiences are deeply and emotionally embedded inside my memory, it is only comprehensible to those who have experienced such conditions before and indescribable to those who have not. Therefore, I decided to use the autoethnographic approach to explore my lived experiences. Although autoethnographic approaches have been popular in the community and vocational psychology, linguistic, sports and leisure, it is relatively new and uncommon in the tourism and hospitality industry. Among the few, Buckley (2012) has examined the 'rush' as a key motivation in skilled adventure tourism, Brown (2016) has explored the motivations and experiences of literary tourists, Noy (2007) has researched poetic tourists

and their experiences, and Jennings, Kachel, Kensbock, and Smith (2009) have examined the tourism and hospitality research students' experiences. It is important to acknowledge that the autoethnographic approach is not free from criticism. Whereas some scholars feel that autoethnography is not proper research, others think that it lacks rigour, theory and analytical components and it is not possible to write publicly and ethically (Delamont, 2007; Ellis, 1999, 2004). However, it is equally important to note that objectivity and generalization are not the primary goals for qualitative research (Reissman, 2008) and like any other qualitative research the autoethnography also aims to study a subjective phenomenon. In relation to analytic rigour of autoethnography, Buckley (2012) has argued that 'the approach is analytic, in the sense that it attempts to identify key aspects of those experiences, distil them to irreducible components, and show their relationships...' (p.962).

Autoethnographers extract data from numerous sources including interviews and newspaper articles about themselves, letters, participant observation field notes, document and artifact analysis, reflective journals and research diaries among others (Wall 2008). It is usually suggested to use multiple sources of evidence to support opinions and experiences (Duncan, 2004). For autoethnographers, one of the most common and important sources of data is their own memories (Wall, 2008). Just as the memory of participants becomes an important source of data during ethnographic studies, the memory of the researcher in the autoethnography (who actually acts as the participant) becomes important. As Coffey (1999) argues, all ethnographic research, including autoethnography, is "... an act of memory because fieldwork and the resulting texts cannot be separated from the memories that shape them" (p. 127).

For the current study, I have also used multiple sources to extract data. Because my experiences as a researcher in the midst of a disaster occurred between April 2015 and February 2016, my most important and valuable source of data was the field note diary that I extensively wrote during my doctoral fieldwork. In the next section, I have provided several autoethnographic vignettes that were directly extracted from my field notes and describe my immersive experiences. My other

sources of data were: i) emails communications with my PhD supervisors (which I used here after obtaining permission from them), ii) my own participant observation, and experiences which gave me insider experiences, and iii) my memory. I have referred about a few people in the current study including my father, mother, wife, brother and his son and sister, and have obtained their permission for doing so.

After developing a retrospective account of my life during and after the earthquakes drawn from the above sources and doing a formative analysis of the day-to-day assessment of the contexts, situations and behaviours as well as emotions, I then conducted summative analysis that helped to emerge two broad themes which are discussed in the next section. As suggested by Brown (2016) I have used the first person in this narrative in order to keep its authenticity, honesty and a flow that might resonate and facilitates engagement with the reader.

DUALITY OF ROLES

As a disaster victim

In Nepal, we often hear stories about the massive earthquake that had hit the country about 80 years ago, and people who had survived the earthquake then could still recall how painful their lives were during that time. Only then was I able to truly understand what they felt. After the earthquakes, my priority shifted from conducting doctoral fieldwork to the management of the stressful situation and logistics for daily survival for me and my family members for the initial few months. The following excerpt from my field note written on 28 April 2015 (third day after the first earthquake) summarizes mine and my family members' conditions at that time:

The periodic aftershocks of the first 7.9 magnitude earthquake have forced me and my family to take shelter in a makeshift camp out in the field alongside hundreds of others like us. For me and my family, life seems to be full of panic, disruption, sadness and grief these days. There is no electricity in the camp and performing daily chores like cooking and washing dishes and clothes have become onerous. There is no telephone here and mobile phones have broken down because their batteries cannot be recharged. And we still experience aftershocks several times

a day. The situation was even worse last night because it was raining and we were not able to protect ourselves from the rain even being inside the makeshift camp. I don't really think that I will be able to concentrate on my fieldwork now because at the moment my whole priority is to survive this situation. But anyway, we feel lucky to have survived until now.

Apart from the extreme damage that the earthquakes caused to people's life and property, they also considerably weakened us psychologically. We felt helpless, at nature's mercy and shrouded entirely in uncertainty, loss and weakened energy. After one and a half month of life in the makeshift camp, we moved back into our house in the first week of June. Then, all my family members including my parents, my brothers' family and my cousin's family (altogether sixteen people) slept in the same room for the next several months. Fear was the most dominant emotion we felt during the entire time.

Whilst the aftershocks of the earthquake occurring every now and then sustained the fear; the psychological trauma that came with the earthquakes often caused my family members to become irritated, anxious or confrontational. Some of my family members even experienced panic attacks. The following excerpt from my field note written on 12 July 2015 clarifies the situation:

The situation has really become tensed now. My sister keeps reading the information about aftershocks and sharing them with everyone. My mother gets panicked and becomes fearful whenever she hears that and start yelling at my sister. I and my father have been telling my sister not to do such things, she tries not to, but cannot stop herself from doing so..... My brother's four-year-old son cries most of the time because he constantly remembers how he felt during the earthquake and its aftershocks, and my brother gets irritated because of this. The whole house is in mess. The situation, to say the least, is grim.

Apart from the frequent aftershocks, the stressful situation in the family was also caused by the lack of resources that could not satisfy family requirements. The most problematic situation aroused when the shortage of cooking gas start hampering food preparation. Because sixteen people ate together every day, the cooking gas would run out frequently and we needed to order the

replacements in every 10 to 12 days. After some time, the local vendors refused to replace the cylinder because they had to satisfy other customers as well³). Every evening I and my family would sit down to discuss how we could get cooking gas the next day, but all our efforts always went in vain. Then one day my father brought home a used kerosene stove that someone had given him. We somehow managed and cooked food with it. Sometimes, I walked for an hour or so to a gas station, waited in a queue for another couple of hours to receive only 10 litres of kerosene that we used in the stove to prepare food. Later, it too died out. Then, ultimately, my brother managed to collect some firewood and that was what we used to cook food for several months when there was a shortage of cooking gas. Vegetables and other daily food supplies were hard to find in the stores. Even when available, they were so expensive that common people like us had to think twice before buying them.

As a member of a family, my focus by then had directed towards the management of my family psychology, as well as the development of strategies to cope with the recurring physical and emotional problems. Therefore, I was spending a significant amount of my time counselling family members, taking care of them and sometimes even taking them to the hospitals, and arranging necessities for the basic survival. Hundreds of other disaster victims were also experiencing similar or even worse situations in the area where I lived. Therefore, I along with a few other members organized a volunteer group to help those needy victims. Together, we visited disaster victims, and distributed food, clothes and other materials provided by the government, non-governmental organizations and disaster relief agencies. But more importantly, we counselled them and provided our emotional support.

During those time, I understood the value and importance of family members and the society, the meaning of our lives, and the situation of hundreds of thousands of people around the world who live their lives on a daily basis because of their natural, cultural, socio-economic, physical, mental, emotional and other circumstances just like how we were living then because of two unforeseen events.

Although, while writing this paper now, I doubt about my intellectual capacity to objectively analyse the situation back then, because of the circumstances I was facing, suddenly all struggles by the people for their existence and identities became perfectly rationale for me. As things started getting better by the end of August. my family members returned back to their homes. We were still experiencing occasional aftershocks, but by then, we were accustomed to living with that. Whenever there was an aftershock, we quickly ran out of the house, waited for a few minutes for it to subside, then moved back in.

As Fleischman and Wood (2002) and Rosenstein (2004) believed, disaster victims are vulnerable. As the current study shows, after the earthquakes, the victims had to take shelter in the makeshift camps where they faced difficulties in a number of ways including performing daily chores. Communication facilities were irregular and occasional rain made their lives difficult in the makeshift camps. Because I was also a part of this sub-culture, the situation was no different for me and was equally in a critical position just like Mukherji, Ganapati, and Rahill (2014) and Richardson, Plummer, Barthelemy, and Cain (2009) were. I also had difficulty in staying focused on the research agenda, balancing personal and professional lives and resolving family emotions. As Hu (2015) indicated, not only was it the earthquakes, but also the secondary hazard, the aftershocks that irregularly occurred after the earthquakes, created high uncertainty in our lives.

As a researcher in the disaster-affected setting

As the struggles of life in a makeshift camp continued, I decided, nevertheless, to contact participants from my previous list, even though I had very little hope that I would be able to reach many of them. As expected, most telephone calls were unattended. A couple of them responded but politely refused to participate. I did not find it ethically sound to prioritize my research timeframe and insist on interviews when my participants were going through such grievous times. The only option remaining for me was to wait for some more days until they were comfortable enough to respond to me.

When I could not establish connections with any of my participants until the first week of June

3) Although this problem was also caused because of the border area blockade by India during that time.

(we had just moved back to our house from the makeshift camp by then), I revised my strategy and decided to visit union offices in hotels and airline companies once again. I found that most of the hotels were either closed or were running with very few staff members. I took appointments with a couple of managers in hotels, that were still running, in order to investigate the situation, and discovered that most employees, including union officials and members, had taken leave to go back to their ancestral homes and take care of their families and damaged properties. The following excerpt from my field note written on the 10 June 2015 summarizes the situation I was facing as a researcher in the disaster-affected setting:

Since the last couple of days, I have been visiting several hotels and inquiring about their situation and asking them if workers and staff members have come back from their hometowns. Most hotels look deserted- neither guests nor the staff. I even found two hotels completely closed. A few owners and managers of the hotel told me that they were expecting their staff members to return soon but they didn't look very confident. I am confused about my situation now. Two and a half month have already passed since I am here in Nepal, but I have barely collected data for my research. To top it all, I am losing hope every day.

After a few unsuccessful days, I decided to slightly change my methodology and interview any available owners and managers first and then later interview trade union officials and members, when they came back to the city. I wrote an email to my supervisors and informed them about the situation to seek approval for my new plan. After getting the approval, I spent the next few days trying to get appointments with the owners and managers of hotels and airline companies and, I did succeed in getting a few. Considering the situation at the time, I decided this was a great achievement for me and allowed the progress to once again renew my vigour. I was happy that I would be able to interview my new participants within the next two weeks and resume my data collection. This had given me new hope.

However, it seemed that luck was not on my side. I had set up appointments with two hotel managers for the next week but both of them asked me over the phone for a rain check because they

were busy preparing for the international donor's meeting which was scheduled to happen in Nepal from June 25, 2015. The government of Nepal was planning to brief the international community on the earthquakes and its damages and was intending to request donors for funds. Businessmen were invited to participate in the meeting and therefore, owners of hotels and airline companies were busy. Even though they promised that they would get back to me once the meeting was over, I had little hope. So, I started contacting other owners and managers.

However, when I contacted more owners and managers I found myself in an unusual situation: they agreed to participate in the interviews but refused to fix a date and time. The following excerpt from my field note written on 23 June 2015 describes my dilemma:

I am in a very confusing situation. When I approached hotel owners and managers and requested them for an interview after clearly stating why I was there, almost all of them showed interest and agreed to participate. But, when it came to actually set up a time for the interview, most of them dismissed me and told me that they would get back to me once they had checked their schedules. However, no one really has contacted me. Even those who contacted, they did it only to postpone the meeting. This worries me now. I have begun questioning myself, and whether the way I am approaching these people is right. I wonder if it is usual for people to agree to sit for an interview but keep postponing it.

My PhD supervisors told me (through email) that it was perfectly usual. One of my supervisors even made a humorous comment: people would rather do anything than talk to an academician, "it is a little like going to the dentist for them," he said (I quoted this after obtaining his permission). Both of my supervisors suggested that I be persistent, keep on contacting them, suggesting dates for a meeting, offer to come to their area on such and such day and time and insist until they agree to an interview.

The encouraging response from my supervisors had a tremendous effect on me. I was moved and I regained my energy. I spent most of my time doing two things in those days: first, I continued to analyse the interviews I had conducted earlier. I had a set of new questions and a list of people I needed to conduct follow-up interviews

with, but because of the prevailing situation, the plan had to be paused. I did hope that once the situation became normal, I could proceed with round two. Second, I made it a daily routine to call to at least one potential participant every day and keep in touch with them. This strategy had two benefits: I was always in my participants' mind and they knew that I was looking forward to conducting interviews with them; and, they informed me who could be other potential participants for my research. This strategy paid off well in the weeks that followed.

In the next couple of weeks, I managed to get an interview done with one of the hotel owners who had decided to shut his hotel down due to trade union activities a couple of years ago. I also managed to conduct interviews with two trade union officials and obtained plenty of information from them. I had hope for the success of my research now because both of them promised to help me get more interviewees once employees began returning to their normal jobs. At this point, I was hopeful and happy because I felt that even though my plans were taking a little longer to be realized than I had originally expected, the research itself was going to be okay. I also realized the importance for a researcher of holding onto two virtues - patience and persistence (Lincoln & Tierney, 2004). When we work with people, not many things are under our control and everything can change as situations change because people respond differently to different situations. Therefore, I realized that I must always remain adaptable. Moreover, frequent communication with my supervisors also played a crucial role in lifting up my spirit morally and psychologically. Even today, I vividly recalled their assurance "Remember that we can skype if you need to have a proper supervision 'meeting' with both of us at any stage. So bear this in mind." After two weeks, I became even more hopeful when a hotel owner informed me that the employees had slowly begun returning back to their jobs. By the first week of August, I was able to conduct some more interviews with trade union officials and members and obtain several other appointments that would keep me busy for the next month.

One of the biggest challenges I faced during my visits to hotels and airlines those days for interviews was the time-consuming nature of those visits: the government and private owners had begun

demolishing damaged houses and properties. As a result, there were blockades on many roads and even in the areas without demolition activities, there was always debris on the main street that made commutation difficult. Because of this, the number of people that I could visit every day and my research activities, alike, had become limited. Many days, I walked for hours to conduct my interviews because the public buses were overcrowded. Additionally, there were regular power cuts for 12 to 14 hours a day, and so using the internet and charging mobile phones sometimes became very difficult. As usual, and like most of the people in Nepal at the time, I and my wife scheduled cooking our meals according to the power cut schedule because we used a heater instead of the cooking gas. Sometimes we cooked our lunch as early as six in the morning, and sometimes we prepared our dinner at two in the afternoon. All of these had dramatically slowed down my progress on research.

The mental pressure caused by my inefficiency in conducting enough interviews and the insufficient time I had to complete my PhD fieldwork (I had to return back to the Otago University by November 2015) was so huge that it occasionally overpowered me and I often felt anxiety and depressed at times. I was struggling to stay focused on my research and was trying hard not to table it. I knew that I had taken the research far enough and that it was possible to keep it going, but perseverance was becoming tough. I frequently re-examined my situation during those days and spent time thinking of ways to make the most of the interviews I had conducted earlier. A number of thoughts and counter-thoughts often came across my mind. The following excerpt from my field note written on 27 August 2015 describes my mental condition during those days:

By now, I have conducted 14 interviews in total and completed my preliminary analysis on them. Ideally, I should be happy with the number I have finished until now, and in the context of the complex and difficult research environment in which I am currently in. But, I would prefer to conduct more interviews. In any case, there aren't a specific number of interviews I am required to conduct for my qualitative research. But I want to make sure I have enough interviews to ensure data saturation and in turn, be able to assure examiners that saturation truly was

reached.

Considering the difficulty that I was facing to finish my interviews on time, I gradually realized that I had to extend my stay in Nepal for an additional two or three months to successfully complete my data collection. My supervisors welcomed this idea. One of my supervisors even suggested that I think of the possibility of a deferral. The suggestion was worth considering. On the positive side, if I was unable to work on the data collection in time, it meant that, in the words of one of my supervisor, I could 'stop the clock' so the thesis could still progress in a productive way. On the downside, my scholarship would stop during the deferral period and I had no other means to support myself financially.

Prolonging my stay in Nepal certainly was not a very good option for me either. I wanted to complete my field work as soon as possible and return back to New Zealand. But, at the same time, when I got back to my University, I wanted to have substantial data in hand, and I knew that if I could work properly for two or three months, I would be able to gather the data I needed. In my calculation, I figured that if I could work without many interruptions, I would be able to wrap up my field work by the end of January or early February. This way, I could return to New Zealand by the second or third week of February. Upon consulting with my supervisors, we agreed to assess the situation in Nepal until the end of October to decide whether I should extend my research period, or move to defer.

Things started to change by the second week of October. Although the process was still slower, I was able to interview more people. At some points, I was pleasantly surprised to find participants acting cooperatively. In fact, some of them were so proactive they themselves called me to set up appointments. Many of them were helping me spontaneously in recruiting more participants. I felt so uplifted by this turn of events I wondered once again if I could finish my data collection before the end of my extension period. Certainly, my earlier strategy of calling up a participant a day to keep in touch had started paying off. My supervisors gave me an extension for 3 months.

By early December, I had started my second round of interviews, scheduled appointments with more participants and completed some initial

analyses. Some of these interviews were intense and gave me a lot of information to work on. But, some interviews were not very informative and some were even repetitive. Even though things had not improved greatly and life was far from ideal in Nepal, my research was going well. I also wanted to make sure that I had allowed myself time to reflect on my interviews and identified any 'gaps' that I wanted to follow up on thoroughly. Even then I knew that if I found an irreconcilable gap, I could arrange to do follow-ups from New Zealand via skype/phone or email. Therefore, after much consideration, and reflection, I informed my supervisors that I was ready to return to New Zealand.

As my personal experiences confirm, methodological challenges exacerbate for researchers in a disaster setting (Lavin, Schemmel-Rettenmeier, & Frommelt-Kuhle, 2012). I not only encountered time constraints and difficulty in contacting participants following the earthquakes, but I also suffered from numerous rejections from those participants who had already confirmed to become a part of my research. Consequently, I faced the dilemma of whether to continue my research or defer as I was unsure of its timely completion just like what Ballamingie and Johnson (2011) had experienced.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In this paper, I examined my experiences as a tourism researcher in the midst of a disaster. While previous studies have extensively focused on ethical challenges that a researcher faces, and vulnerability of research participants in the disaster-affected areas (Ausbrooks, Barrett, & Martinez-Cosio, 2009; Collogan et al., 2004; Ferreira, Buttell, & Ferreira, 2015), the vulnerability of the researcher has been under-represented. In tourism and disaster-related literature, this topic has been completely absent. Just like the research participants, because researchers are equally vulnerable when they are conducting studies in the disaster areas (Ballamingie & Johnson, 2011; Flory et al., 2008; Mukherji, Ganapati, & Rahill, 2014), it is important to understand their own experiences. In addition, their experiences can provide valuable information for those doctoral researchers who aim to embark on their research journey in such areas. Filling this research gap, this

paper has provided valuable insights into the dual roles, that a doctoral researcher has to perform—the role of a disaster victim and the role of a researcher in the disaster setting—if the research site is hit by a disaster during the data collection period. Since many doctoral researchers return to their home country for their fieldwork, the lessons learnt from this study are even more important for them.

This paper contributes to the existing literature in two distinct ways. First, this is one of first of its kind in the general disaster fieldwork literature and the first one in the tourism that examines the experiences of a doctoral researcher while conducting fieldwork in the midst of a disaster. Not only the number of disasters, both natural and technological (man-made) has been increasing across the world over the past several decades, but also the engagement of researchers in the disaster-affected areas (Gaillard & Gomez, 2015; Myers & Wee, 2005) as well. Since the disaster victims naturally become the primary focus, very rarely the researcher's own experiences and difficulties are examined. Consequently, 'the risk and benefits of participation in disaster-focused research are not fully understood', leading to a significant need for such studies (Collogan et al., 2004, p.364). Furthermore, there has been a growing popularity of dark tourism across the world in which tourists visit places associated with death, disaster, atrocity, or ongoing socio-political conflict among others (Amirtha, 2015). Researcher's own experiences in the disaster sites can provide profound information and knowledge about the challenges and other aspects which the tourists can use to plan their travel.

Second, my experiences demonstrate that the doctoral researchers' vulnerability increases in the disaster site in their home country not only because as they themselves become disaster victims along with their family members and have to experience comparable sufferings and pains that the disaster brings to any other victim, but also because they have to find a way to continue their research in the middle of all those unsupportive conditions. These unfavourable conditions sometimes push the doctoral researchers to an extent that they start losing hopes and believing that they might not be able to complete their doctoral project.

Furthermore, the lessons I learnt from my research in the midst of the earthquakes in Nepal

carry practical implications for the doctoral researchers as well as the research community. Lavin, Schemmel-Rettenmeier, and Frommelt-Kuhle (2012) once noted that 'plan A almost always fails in a disaster so it is important for the researcher to have multiple contingency plans. Deadlines can change and chaos is a given during a disaster...' (p.7). I learnt that a researcher in the field needs to have patience, flexibility and determination. It is always possible that whatever we expect may come true too late, or may never come true at all. The ability to wait for an appropriate time to act, be flexible with plans and to pick up from setbacks ensures that we keep moving ahead, no matter how slow. My original data collection plan met several setbacks such as the earthquakes, rejections, shortages of food and cooking gas, and difficulties relating to maintaining daily lives. However, the only thing that moved it forward was that I was willing to continue to get up and keep moving. I revised my plans, analysed my situation, changed my strategies and approached different situations differently, but I never stopped persevering. There was a time when I was confronted with the dilemma of deferral, but instead, I chose to extend my fieldwork. I now realize I made the right decision because, by the end, my participants had become cooperative. Having faith that the situation would eventually change for the better was an all-time motivation that I utilized from the very beginning. We face multiple and often competing and conflicting roles and responsibilities during our studies in the disaster sites (Richardson, Plummer, Barthelemy, & Cain, 2009). Therefore, patience, flexibility and determination are the three tools that we researchers should always have on our side.

I also learnt that periodic communication with my supervisors was a crucial factor that helped me overcome my anxiety, resolve my doubts and stimulate my energy. There were several times when I encountered doubts and questioned my own way of working. However, my supervisors' encouraging words, their suggestions on how I should proceed and their assurances that they were always there for me and were willing to communicate with me through skype or telephone or email, boosted my confidence and helped me overcome nervousness. After all, it is always nice to have someone out there who is willing to guide us when we are in

doubt. It saves time and energy and restores our strength. Richardson, Plummer, Barthelemy, and Cain (2009) expect that, in the future, university faculty members are likely to be approached to engage in disaster research while they themselves are in the midst of natural disasters. Because the realities of research on disaster situations are far different from most empirical academic research, frequent communications with the university through the supervisors will also help the universities and other research community to be aware of the potential situations, prepare their strategies and train their researchers accordingly. In addition, I also realized the importance of frequent communication and networking with the participants. During the difficult time, I acted on my strategy to telephone a participant a day. Following this strategy resulted in cooperation from a number of participants in ways I had not even imagined before. While it is true that this particular strategy may not be applicable in all circumstances, the value of communicating and networking with participants must not be underestimated and can be applied in a diversified way depending upon the situation.

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