2nd Global Tourism & Hospitality Conference

and

15th Asia Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism

16-18 May 2016

HONG KONG 2016

Proceedings

Vol.2

The Proceedings of HONG KONG 2016:
2nd Global Tourism & Hospitality Conference
and
15th Asia Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism

Innovation · Education · Research

16 – 18 May 2016

Hong Kong

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School of Hotel & Tourism Management 酒店及旅遊業管理學院

The Proceedings of HONG KONG 2016: 2ndGlobal Tourism & Hospitality Conference and 15thAsia Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism Vol.2

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Preface

This year, a group of 53 students from the School of Hotel and Tourism Management (SHTM) of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (PolyU) forms an Organising Committee who takes the chance to organise and manage an international joint conference, **HONG KONG 2016**: **2nd Global Tourism & Hospitality Conference (GTHC) and 15th Asia Pacific Forum (APF) for Graduate Students Research in Tourism** which is held in the state-of-the-art teaching and research hotel of SHTM, Hotel ICON, during 16-18 May 2016.

HONG KONG 2016 has combined two prominent conferences in the field of hospitality and tourism. GTHC was firstly organised by the SHTM jointly with the Taylor & Francis Group in Hong Kong in 2014. APF was found by SHTM in 2002 and has been held in various locations in Asia Pacific Regions. This is the second time for APF to be held in Hong Kong.

With the theme ***"Innovation · Education · Research"***, this unique two-in-one conference aims to provide a networking platform for educators, thoughtleaders, industry professionals and students to exchange insights related to innovations and trends in the global tourism and hospitality industry, as well as opportunities andchallenges that the industry is currently facing. This conference attracts more than 200 delegates from 30 countries from 28 regions, and over 150 abstracts were received.

In the three-day conference, the great diversity of academic and social programs offers a networking and insight exchanging platform for the delegates. On the academic side, sessions such as Pre-Conference Workshops, Paper Presentations, Panel Discussion, Keynote Speeches and Poster Displays create enjoyable learning experiences for the delegates.

On the social side, HONG KONG 2016 provides delegates great opportunities to be connected with others during the Opening Ceremony, Welcome Reception, Optional Dinner with Speakers, Closing Ceremony and Gala Dinner. The Pre-Conference Tour to the Lantau Island will provide attendees a value-added delightful retreat from the dynamic cityscape of the urban of Hong Kong.

Many prominent international and local scholars and experts have been invited asspeakers of the conference, to name just a few:

- Professor Kaye Chon, Dean and Chair Professor, SHTM, PolyU
- Mr. Tony Chow, Director, Creative & Content Marketing, Asia Pacific, MarriottInternational, Inc
- Professor Fabien Fresnel, Dean, Ecolehôtelière de Lausanne

- Professor Dennis Reynolds, Dean, Conrad N. Hilton College of Hotel and Restaurant Management, University of Houston
- Professor John Tribe, Professor, University of Surrey
- Ms. Kathy Pugh, Vice President of Education Services, edX

Key topic area that covered at the keynote and panel sessions include Developing Trends in Global Travel and Tourism Industry: Challenge and Issues, New Modes of Collaboration in International Education, Current Issues and Trends in Tourism and Hospitality Research, Certification in Hotel Industry Analytics (CHIA) - pre-conference workshopsponsored by STR SHARE CENTER and Pursuing a Successful Research Career-pre-conference workshop sponsored byTaylor and Francis Group.

Efforts and supports from all guests and speakers are vital to the conference's success. With the support from PolyU, SHTM, school professionals, delegates, sponsors, conference supporters and volunteers, we strived to make HONG KONG 2016 a remarkable success.

Organising HONG KONG 2016 provides us a valuable hands-onopportunity to learn, explore and experience from the "real world" conference.We would like to extend our sincere gratitude to PolyU, SHTM, Dean Kaye Chon, Dr. Sam Kim, Dr. Chloe Lau, Dr. Stephen Pratt and Ms. Leslie Fung.

We wish you all a productive conference ahead and an enjoyable stay in Hong Kong!

HONG KONG 2016 Organising Committee

Message from Conference Chairman

It gives me great pleasure to present to you the HONG KONG 2016 Conference: 2nd Global Tourism & Hospitality Conference and 15th Asia Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism organised by the School of Hotel and Tourism Management (SHTM) at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (PolyU). I am delighted that the conference takes place in vibrant Hong Kong and at our state-of-the-art teaching and research hotel, Hotel ICON, on 16-18 May 2016.

HONG KONG 2016 is an unique two-in-one conference combining the 2nd Global Tourism & Hospitality Conference and the 15th Asia Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism. The conference takes the theme "Innovation · Education · Research". The theme aptly reflects the aim of this conference which is to provide a networking platform for educators, thought leaders, students and industry professionals to exchange insights related to innovations and trends in the global tourism and hospitality industry, as well as opportunities and challenges that the industry is currently facing. Organising a conference of this scale takes collective team efforts by many people and I wish to acknowledge our faculty members and students who are working tirelessly to ensure that delegates are provided with an exceptional platform to exchange dialogue, to connect and network. I look forward to your participation in the conference.

Dean Kaye Chon

Walter Kwok Foundation Professor in International Hospitality Management
Dean and Chair Professor
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
and
Conference Chairman
HONG KONG 2016

Message from Programme Chairs

2016 GHTC & APF welcomes you all the Asian cosmopolitan city of Hong Kong! As the Program Chairs of this conference, we would like to sincerely express our warmest welcome to you for participating in this conference event in the hospitality and tourism field.

Since last year's September in the planning itinerary, we have been happy that the time has finally come for this joint conference to be successfully hosted at the Hotel ICON. It is our pleasure to be the Program Chairs of this joint conference. We are grateful to observe the phenomenal enhancement of capabilities of our students through their passionate participation. This conference different from other conferences in terms of planning and organizing entirely by students.

This year, we received over 150 papers from different study areas within the hospitality and tourism field. Based on the rigorous review process, more than 130 prestigious papers were selected for stand-up and poster presentations. Honestly, it was very difficult to select Best Papers out 14 candidate papers. We express kudos and congratulation to Best Paper Awardees.

With more than 200 delegates from 30 different countries and a great diversity of academic and social programs in the 3-day conference, we hope that all delegates achieve their aims and safely return to their residence.

Best wishes,

Dr. Chloe Lau

PhD, MBus, BSc, Assistant Professor, SHTM
15th Asia Pacific Forum for Graduate Students Research in Tourism Programme Chair and Supervising Instructor

and

Dr. Sam Kim

PhD, MS, BS, Associate Professor, SHTM
2nd Global Tourism & Hospitality Conference Programme Chair

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Apf1653 Determinants and Outcome of Career Resilience: Perspectives of Hotel Employees in China

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to explore the determinants and outcome of career resilience. A conceptual framework was proposed based on extensive literature review. It proposed that OCM and ICM may contribute positively to career resilience; career resilience may be positively related to career satisfaction. Data would be collected in domestic hotels in main tourist cities in China, and structural equation modeling would be used to test the proposed relationships. The findings of this study may provide useful implications for both hotel managers and employees.

Keywords: Organizational career management, Individual career management, Career resilience, Career satisfaction

Introduction

Rapid economic and technological development, fierce competition and expansion of tourism industry have led to the strategies and structures of organizations changing significantly. According to Drive (1982), the traditional careers were stable pattern that features predictable, linear career development within one or two firms. However, today's dynamic working environment has revolutionized this model to one that includes: perceptive uncertainty about future arrangements, multiple roles, lack of job security and less explicit career paths. This has led to the fact that the employment relationship between employers and employees is no longer stable. Thus, employees may actively or passively change their work environment or work content at any time.

Given the trend towards more high-demanding and high-pressure working environment, hotel employees who are successful are those who are able to transfer between different works even different organizations by enhancing their career resilience. They need to be equipped with the ability to adapt and response rapidly to the dramatic changes in the workplace. Under these circumstances, both in practical and theoretical research, career resilience has become increasingly important (Fourie & Van Vuuren, 1998).

Although domestic scholars have conducted preliminary study and analysis of career resilience, most of them are focused on the connotation as well as the measurement of career resilience and in the form of reviewing foreign research achievements. Empirical research on career resilience and its relationship to other concepts remains rare. Alternatively, in hospitality industry, despite the studies on career satisfaction is quite rich, the concept of career resilience has not been taken into consideration. Therefore, inspired by Baruch's (2006) view that both organizations and individuals are respectively obliged to the career management of employees, this study aims to explore the effects of organization and individual factors on career resilience. Thus, perceived organizational career management (OCM) and individual career management (ICM) were developed as the determinants. It is also important to consider the outcome that resulted by developing employees' career resilience.

Conceptual framework

2.1 Organizational Career Management (OCM)

From the organization perspective, perceived OCM was developed to be a determinant. Organizational career management (OCM) is defined as a series of management policies and activities executed by organizations that aim to provide feedback for employees regarding progress towards achieving the career goal, as well as additional information concerning the appropriateness of the strategy and the career goal itself (Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk , 2006). OCM involves various activities introduced and practiced by organizations aiming to improve the career performances, career competencies, and career satisfaction of their employees. The management activities initiated to meet the career needs of employees and improve their employability play an increasingly important role in retaining employees.

According to Kong et al. (2011), OCM can be categorized into three dimensions, namely, career appraisal, career training, and career development. The first includes career discussion, 360 ◦ performance appraisal, and career suggestion; the second is related to Internal and external career-relevant training; and the third concerns job rotation, succession plan, post announcement, and dual ladder system that contribute to both the organization's and the individual's growth. These practices are critical in helping employees develop career resilience. Thus effective organizational career support can facilitate the career satisfaction of employees.

2.2 Individual Career Management (ICM)

From the employee perspective, ICM was developed to be a determinant. Individual career management (ICM) is defined as the personal efforts made by individuals to advance their own career goals (King, 2004). The predominance of organizational restructuring, de-layering and downsizing has contributed to a more flexible or "boundaryless" career environment with expectations that individuals will self-manage their careers, rather than rely on organizational direction (Arthur et al., 2005; Kossek et al., 1998).

According to Hall and Moss (1998), compared with the past few decades, individual career management has become more and more important. It is believed to have a great impact on individuals' quality of life and development opportunities, as well as on maintaining the staff competitiveness for organizations.

Individual career management refers to the process of identifying what one wants from one's career, assessing one's strengths and weaknesses in relation to these goals, and deciding what career tactics need to be taken to realize these goals in the light of one's own conditions. It comprises a series of individual decisions that ought to be made as rationally and systematically as possible if their efforts are to contribute to career success. Individual efforts of this kind are also beneficial for an appropriate career management program on the part of the employer (Orpen, 1994).

2.3 Career Resilience

Taking charge of one's own career requires career resilience. Career resilience is defined as ―the ability to adapt to changing circumstances, even when the circumstances are discouraging or disruptive‖ (Collard, 1996). It refers to two parts: know yourself and know your organization. According to Koonce (1995), workers must know the skills they have, how those skills are marketable to other employers and industries, and how they can be updated to keep them in state-of-the-art condition. They must also know all aspects of the organization they work for as well as the new roles they might assume in the organization's future.

"Individuals who are career resilient contribute skills aligned with business needs, are dedicated to continuous learning and committed to personal excellence, have an attitude that is focused but flexible, and deliver solid performance in support of organizational goals for as long as they are part of the organization"(Collard et al. 1996). For hotel employees, providing services for customers from all over the world requires them to update their knowledge on multi-cultural and multilingual aspects.

2.4 Career Satisfaction

Career satisfaction was proposed as the outcome of career resilience in the conceptual framework. The importance of career satisfaction has been well recognized. Career satisfaction, which is also known as ―subjective career success‖, is depicted as the satisfaction that individuals derive from the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their careers, including pay, guidance, working time, advancement, and developmental opportunities (Greenhaus et al., 1990). It indicates individuals' evaluation of a wider range of outcomes, such as sense of accomplishments and work-life balance，relative to their own goals and aspirations (Heslin, 2005). Fig. 1 shows the proposed framework.

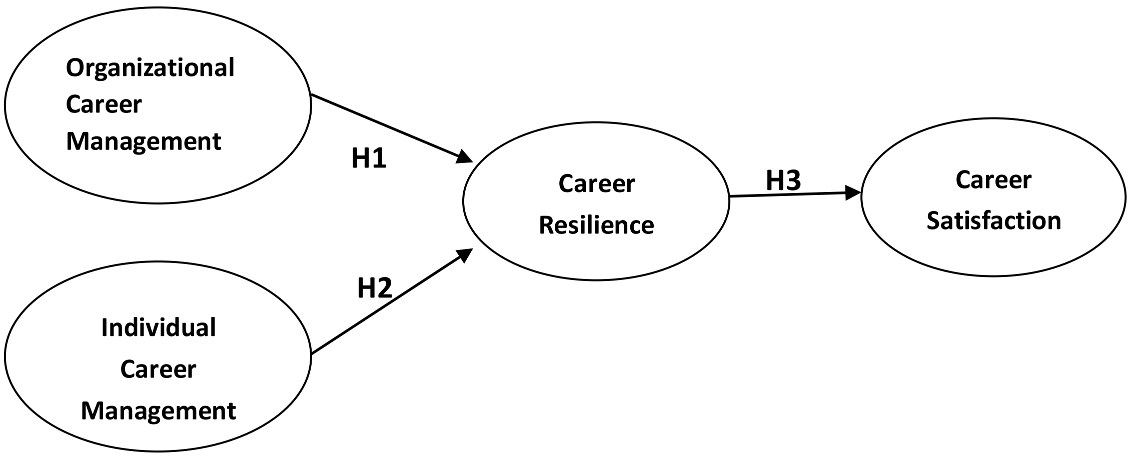

Fig. 1. Conceptual framework.

Literature review and hypotheses

3.1. Effect of OCM on career resilience

Pazy (1988) found that after controlling the age, tenure, gender, and other factors, OCM still has significant influence on employees' attitude or behavior in providing service. Froster (1977) found that OCM has a positive effect on individual adaptability. It is also proved that there are positive correlations between OCM and employee adaptive performance which includes four parts: learning adaptability, interpersonal pressure and emergency treatment, environmental adaptability and innovation of working methods. In addition, Li Xia (2013) also proved that the structure and dimensions of OCM have significant influence on the career resilience.

The study of Kong Haiyan (2011) has shown that OCM activities implemented by organizations do help individuals improve their career competencies. For example, career appraisal can help employees obtain clear understanding of their strengths and weaknesses and develop specific career goals based on accurate assessment, which leads to greater career resilience. Career development can also enhance employee career resilience by developing the potential of employees and providing appropriate opportunities for them. Based on the above discussion, the hypothesis is proposed as follows:

H1：Organizational career management may have a positive effect on career resilience.

3.2. Effect of ICM on career resilience

At present the studies on the relationship between individual career management and career resilience remains unclear, but a series of theory exploration of individual career management generally proves that ICM will exert an influence on career resilience. From the career motivation perspective, Orpen (1994) pointed out that developing ICM is to achieve career goals through their own efforts and find the potential opportunities inside and outside. From the career motivation perspective, Orpen (1994) pointed out that developing individual career management is to achieve career goals through their own efforts and find the internal and external realistic or potential opportunities.

Chinese scholar Long Lirong (2002) defined one of the reference standards of ICM is to expand the present career, or pursue new career. Kossek (1998) believed that ICM reflects employees' willingness for job conversion. That is to say, employees who manage their careers actively have already made corresponding preparation for career transition: they can predict in advance and actively create or seize the opportunity for a new position. In another words, they have a positive attitude towards job or organizational changes, which is a reflection of high career resilience. Claes (2003) pointed out that ICM refers to get the promotion opportunities within the organization, and meanwhile make your performance noticed by superiors.

So we can deduce that employees with career self-management tend to cultivate flexible employability and recognize opportunities in turbulent working environment. Based on this discussion, it is predicted that:

H2：Individual career management may have a positive effect on career resilience.

3.3. Effect of career resilience on career satisfaction

The relationships between various factors and career satisfaction in the hospitality industry have been researched. According to the Collard (1996), employees with high career resilience tend to enhance self-confidence and achieve self-realization, therefore, are more likely to get the career satisfaction. Roman-Oertwig (2004) pointed out that career resilience of school teachers is positively related to career satisfaction. Moreover, a survey conducted by Huang Yinong (2015) indicates that career resilience of the hotel staff have a positive effect on their job satisfaction and a negative effect on their turnover intention. In addition, studies also proved that career resilience of enterprise managers has significant influence on career success, improving their career resilience helps to achieve career success (Li Xia, 2014; Zhang Longxiang, 2014). Together, these theoretical predictions and empirical findings lead to the hypothesis:

H3：Career resilience may have a positive effect on career satisfaction.

Research methodology

4.1. Target respondents

The target population of this study is young employees working in domestic hotels in main tourist cities in China. This is because young employees have become the main workforce of the hospitality industry and their career paths are less explicit. Super (1957) states that there are five career stages in a person's life-circle career, and people aged 22-30 are in the exploration stage. In this stage, individuals are facing a situation where tolerance of uncertainty as well as identify change and adaptability is considered to be the most important. They tend to explore the possibility of growth in their chosen occupation. Thus, they focus more on career resilience, and therefore may provide more information for this study.

4.2. Instrument measurement

In terms of the measurement scale of career competencies, Fourier et al. (1998) identified the relevant variables of career resilience for Western countries. Li Xia (2002) later refined the study of Fourier to fit the context of China. This study adopted the refined items to measure the career resilience of hospitality employees in China. Perceived OCM was measured by 13 items that were developed by Kong et al. (2011). ICM was assessed using Long (2002) eighteen-item measure. Career satisfaction was measured using a five-item measure developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990).

4.3. Data collection

Procedurally, a pilot test would be first conducted and then the main survey. Participants would be asked to answer their perceptions of OCM, ICM, career resilience and career satisfaction. All questions would be measured by a seven-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly).

The main survey would then be conducted by convenience sampling method. The researcher would approach most of the surveyed hotels and contacted a key person in each hotel, such as human resources manager or marketing manager. With the help of the key person, the questionnaires would be distributed and collected on the spot. A total of 500 questionnaires would be distributed to employees working in main tourist cities in China, including Beijing, Shanghai, Shandong.

4.4 Data analysis method

Structural equation modeling (SEM), using AMOS software, was applied in data analysis. This study adopted a two-stage approach to SEM as this approach enjoys comparative advantages over the one-step approach when a theory is only tentative (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). First, the measurement model was examined by conducting exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was done to purify the measurement indicators, and to specify the relationships between the observed indicators and the constructs. Second, the structural model was assessed to specify the relationships among the latent variables. A more reliable measure can be secured in the sense that interaction between the measurement and the structural model may be avoided.

Results

5.1 Reliability and validity

Table 1 presents the socio-demographic information (N=444) of the sample.

Table 1 Socio-demographic information

Variable	Item	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	173	38.9
	Female	271	61.1
Age	20 years old or below	60	13.5
	21-25	180	40.5
	26-30	122	27.5
	31-35	45	10.1
	36-40	22	5.0
	40-50	15	3.4
Education attainment	Middle school or below	20	4.5
	High school	123	27.7
	Vocational school	156	35.1
	University	140	31.5
	Graduate school	5	1.2
Years of service	1 year	114	25.7
	1-3 years	185	41.7
	4-6 years	82	18.4
	7-10 years	50	11.2
	More than 10	13	2.8

5.2. Individual measurement model

Firstly, EFA was conducted between the observed indicators and the constructs. Three dimensions of OCM is identified through EFA with Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.73 to 0.83, exceeding the minimum standard for reliability (0.70) recommended by Nunnally (1978). The items measuring ICM explained 65.92% of the total variance in the structure. The four factors Cronbach's alpha of ICM was ranged from 0.86 to 0.94, and that of career satisfaction was 0.82, all above the minimum standard for reliability (0.70).The items comprising career resilience explained 56.97% of the overall variance. The Cronbach's reliability scores of career resilience factors ranged from 0.76 to 0.82, suggesting satisfactory internal consistency. The KMO of sampling adequacy was 0.90, indicating a satisfactory level for the appropriateness of factor analysis. It can therefore be concluded that the items comprising the OCM, ICM, career resilience and career satisfaction were internally consistent and stable and together formed reliable scales. The CFA results of OCM provide the following overall fit indices: ，χ^2 = 164.53, df = 55, CFI = 0.90, GFI = 0.89, and RMSEA = 0.09, suggesting that the final measurement model fit the data reasonably well. All of the AVE values were greater than 0.50, certifying high convergent validity (shown in Table 2). Thus, both the convergent and the discriminant validity of OCM were satisfactory.

The CFA results of ICM were as follows (χ^2 = 496.25, df =119, CFI = 0.87, GFI = 0.82, RMSEA = 0.08), indicating the model fit the data reasonably well. All of the standardized loading estimates of ICM exceeded 0.50, and their respective absolute t-values were higher than 1.96. All of the AVE values were greater than 0.50, confirming high convergent validity (shown in Table 3). Thus, both the convergent and the discriminant validity of career commitment were satisfactory.

The CFA results of career resilience model were as follows (χ^2 = 515.67, df = 210, CFI = 0.88, GFI = 0.83, RMSEA = 0.09), indicating the model fit the data reasonably well. Finally, the AVE for each construct was higher than the squared correlation coefficients for the corresponding inter constructs, which indicated that each construct was truly distinct from others (shown in Table 4).

The CFA results of career satisfaction measurement model provided the following overall fit indices: χ^2 = 9.75, df = 4, CFI = 0.98, GFI = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.08. All of the standardized loading estimates exceeded 0.50 and their respective absolute t-value was greater than 1.96, indicating a high level of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2009). As shown in Table 5, the AVE value of career satisfaction was 0.62, greater than 0.50 and the square of the correlation estimate between these measures.

Table 2 Correlations (squared correlation), AVE, and mean of OCM.

	Appraisal	Training	Development
Appraisal	1.00		
Training	0.79** (0.62)	1.00	
Development	0.72** (0.52)	0.57** (0.33)	1.00
Mean	5.22	5.34	4.71
Std. Dev.	0.95	0.83	1.05
AVE	0.68	0.73	0.52

Table 3 Correlations (squared correlation), AVE, and mean of ICM.

	Objective	Exploration	Continue learning	Presentation
Objective	1.00			
Exploration	0.37** (0.14)	1.00		
Continue learning	0.48** (0.23)	0.61** (0.37)	1.00	
Presentation	0.49** (0.24)	0.39** (0.15)	0.79** (0.62)	1.00
Mean	5.24	5.39	5.34	4.85
Std. Dev.	0.87	0.99	0.90	1.35
AVE	0.82	0.87	0.86	0.85

Table 4 Correlations (squared correlation), AVE, and mean of Career Resilience.

	Career initiative	Career aspiration	Ability	achievement motivation	Psychological resilience	Flexibility
Career initiative	1.00					
Career aspiration	0.27** (0.07)	1.00				
Ability	0.38** (0.14)	0.70** (0.49)	1.00			
achievement motivation	0.55** (0.30)	0.63** (0.40)	0.39** (0.15)	1.00		
Psychological resilience	0.51** (0.26)	0.43** (0.18)	0.57** (0.32)	0.31** (0.09)	1.00	
Flexibility	0.45** (0.20)	0.52** (0.27)	0.49** (0.24)	0.48** (0.23)	0.71** (0.50)	1.00
Mean	5.12	4.76	5.35	5.06	4.98	5.21
Std. Dev.	0.72	0.76	0.83	1.03	1.12	0.88
AVE	0.50	0.56	0.54	0.55	0.62	0.64

Table 5 Correlations (squared correlation), AVE, and mean of Career Satisfaction

	CS1	CS2	CS3	CS4	CS5
CS1	1.00				
CS2	0.31** (0.10)	1.00			
CS3	0.40** (0.16)	0.43** (0.18)	1.00		
CS4	0.42** (0.18)	0.46** (0.21)	0.52** (0.27)	1.00	
CS5	0.38** (0.14)	0.42** (0.18)	0.48** (0.23)	0.50** (0.25)	1.00
Mean	5.71	5.58	5.72	5.71	5.66
Std. Dev.	1.00	1.06	1.02	1.01	1.01
AVE	0.80				

5.3. Overall measurement model

The overall measurement model was examined after testing the fit and construct validity of each individual measurement model. The EFA of perceived hotel career management suggested the three dimensions of career appraisal, career development, and career training. The overall measurement model was thus tested with these four dimensions using the entire sample. The goodness-of-fit indices(χ^2=347.63, df=119, CFI=0.94, GFI=0.92, RMSEA=0.06) all indicated a fairly good fit between the model and the sample data. As shown in Table 6, the AVE value for each construct exceeded 0.50 and was greater than the squared correlation. Thus, both the convergent and discriminant validity were satisfactory.

Table 6 Correlations (squared correlation), AVE, and mean of overall model.

	OCM	ICM	Career Resilience	Career Satisfaction
OCM	1.00			
ICM	0.88** (0.77)	1.00		
Career Resilience	0.40** (0.16)	0.49** (0.24)	1.00	
Career Satisfaction	0.61** (0.37)	0.62** (0.38)	0.89** (0.79)	1.00
Mean	5.11	5.08	5.85	5.67
Std. Dev.	0.80	0.82	0.64	0.79
AVE	0.87	0.81	0.87	0.79

5.4. Structural model

As the measurement model was found to be acceptable, the hypothesized structural model was evaluated using all the sample data. The model fit indices were as follows: χ^2 = 860.89, df = 245, CFI = 0.82, GFI = 0.84, and RMSEA = 0.08. The values indicated that the model represented an adequate fit to the data. The results indicated that all structural path estimates were statistically significant (as indicated by CR > 1.96) and validated. Fig. 2 shows the structural model associated with standardized parameter estimates.

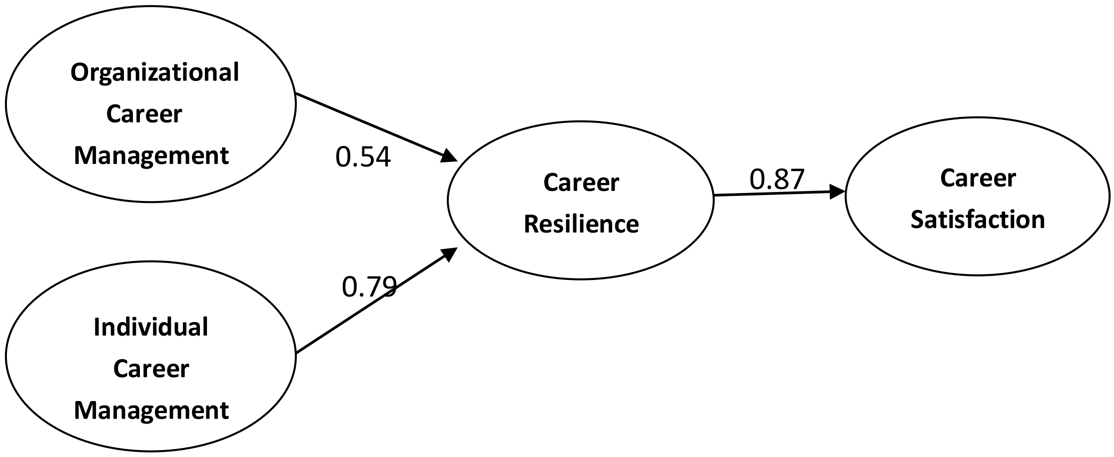

Fig. 2. Final structural model with path results.

Discussion and implications

This study conducted an empirical research to explore the determinants and outcome of career resilience. The findings of this study indicate that two determinants—perceived OCM and ICM, are all positively related to career resilience. This provides empirical support for the notion that enhancing employees' career resilience requires a joint cooperation between hotel managers and hotel employees.

The findings of this study also indicate that employees who pay more attention to individual career management are likely to have higher levels of career resilience, and thus career satisfaction. As career goal is of great importance in guiding the employees' action towards career advancement, hotel employees should also actively engage in the various activities offered by their hotels, so as to develop specific career target, extend career-relevant skills, and widen their career-related networks. However, previous studies haven't did any empirical research on the relationship between ICM and career resilience.

Theoretically, this paper has reviewed past studies and conducted an empirical research on the determinants and outcome of career resilience. It explores the impact that organizational and individual variables have on career resilience, which provides a more comprehensive understanding of their relationships. Particularly, it may enrich the knowledge of careers by revealing the ICM's influence on career resilience. The results provide empirical evidence of a positive relationship between ICM and career resilience. Besides, although studies about career satisfaction have been numerous, empirical research of its antecedent variable career resilience is rare. So based on domestic hotels, this study dedicates to provide new ideas for hotels on improving employee satisfaction and therefore reducing the turnover rate.

Practically, the challenge that human resource management faces today is to recruit and retain qualified talents and keep staffs in high employability in the increasingly competitive environment. The study highlights the importance for hotels to engage in career management activities that are consistent with the hotel's objectives and needs. The fact that the hypothesis was supported shed light on the suggestion that hotels improve employees' career resilience by providing better OCM programs. For example, employees that were vocational students or undergraduates are skilled workers who have not developed independent ideas about careers. Hotels should offer more directions and support to facilitate their understanding of jobs.

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Apf1655 Flood Preparedness and Response Plan of Inns/Hotels in Iligan City: Checklist and Guidelines

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Abstract

The study was undertaken with the aim at finding out the flood preparedness and response plan of inns/hotels in Iligan City. Specifically, it sought to find out the following: 1) the profile of the five hotels under study; 2) the kind of disasters they have experienced in the last five years; 3) the existing preventive and preparedness activities against flooding; 4) the devices and equipment used to prevent, respond, and recover from flood; and 5) the projects and activities related to flood risk reduction and management.

The study found that the selected inns/hotels did not have any preventive, preparedness, and response plan against flood. Further, it revealed that the existing preventive and preparedness activities that lodging accommodations had were seminars, trainings, drills, and strategic planning about fire and earthquake, and none of the lodging accommodations have devices and equipment to prepare and recover from flood.

The overall outcome of the study warrants the hope that all the inns/hotels should always be safe and flood-free all the time. Taking cognizance of the feedbacks from the respondents, as well as the researcher's own observation, the researcher crafted a Flood Preparedness and Response Plan (Checklist and Guidelines), which would help them prepare, response and recover from flood.

Keywords: Checklist, Flood, Guidelines, Hotels, Preparedness, Response

Introduction

One of the most vulnerable industries for disasters is the hospitality industry that has become more frequently hit by disaster (Pforr, 2006). Whether it is man-made or a natural disaster, the importance is high to be well prepared in order to mitigate the impact issues concerning guests. Hospitality experts have argued that experiencing a local disaster would be undesirable. Disaster planning and recovery could be a challenge for any business and constitute acute tasks for hotel stakeholders. Johnston D. et al., (2005) explored the impacts of natural disasters on hospitality/tourism industry and argued that such events disturb destinations having negative impacts on the local community, stakeholders, and the economy. Thus, because of the growing importance of hospitality and tourism worldwide, any disruption to tourism arrivals can seriously undermine hotels' competitiveness and sustainable development, thus affecting a country's image and making it less attractive to foreign investors and visitors (Brigitte L., et al 2015).

Typhoons in the past, specifically Sendong (2011) and Pablo (2012) hitting the Cities of Iligan and Cagayan de Oro and the Provinces of Compostela Valley and Davao Oriental had revealed the vulnerability of these localities to climate-related hazards such as heavy flooding, rain-induced landslides, storm surge and increasingly severe storms. The widespread devastation brought by these typhoons displaced more than a million people, caused damage to housing, infrastructure, agriculture and telecommunications, with a total damage estimated at PhP 1.3 billion. Urgent attention and action are now called for to assess vulnerabilities to climate-related risks and to identify measures that will enhance these localities' adaptive capacity towards a changing climate. Unfortunately, up to this time the city has not developed innovative practices for the community to deal with such disasters.

The Tropical Storm Washi, locally known as Typhoon Sendong, served as an important eye opener for the authorities, tourism/lodging operators and the whole people of Iligan City about the importance of disaster risk reduction and management (DRRM). The city is not known to be prone to disasters, but the recent disaster triggered by Sendong in December 2011 proved that in these times of rapidly changing climate, increasing vulnerability and the challenges brought about by the rapid development, there is no room for complacency and inaction because disasters can happen anytime. The Sendong disaster echoed the internationally-shared fact that disasters erode important development gains which took a city to achieve and realize in years and decades.

Former Iligan City Mayor Lawrence Ll. Cruz had this to say:

> In the past almost 9 years, in my watch as mayor of Iligan City, the city has experienced many disasters, both natural and man-made. The city has experienced minor and major fires, flooding in at most 4 barangays at a time, bombings and in 2008, when MILF lawless elements attacked several towns in Lanao del Norte, thousands of refugees from the hinterland barangays of the city and the neighboring towns of Lanao del Norte, sought refuge in evacuation centers in the city, amid threats of attacks by the lawless elements in the city itself.
>
> But the worst disaster in the history of our city occurred at midnight of December 16 until the wee hours of December 17, 2011, when Typhoon Sendong struck Northern Mindanao, with such massive loss and destruction to lives and properties, with: 53 deaths and 98 missing and presumed dead, or a total of 1,531 lives lost; 657 houses totally damaged and 18,951 partially damaged. Nearly 3,000families or 1,700 persons affected, representing 37% of the city population; 37 barangays or 84% of the city's 4 barangays affected.
>
> A total of P3.5 billion worth of infrastructures and public and private properties destroyed.
>
> When Typhoon Pablo came to Iligan on December 4, 2012, despite its stronger winds, though less rainfall, there was not a single casualty, although there were more than a hundred houses destroyed or damaged.

With this given scenario, this study on *"Flood Preparedness and Response Plan of Inns/Hotels in Iligan City: Checklist and Guidelines"* was undertaken.

Literature Review

This chapter presents the various literatures and studies made by some authors and researchers related to the present investigation.

Related Literature

RA 10121 or the Philippine Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Act of 2010 and Its Salient Features

RA10121 is an act strengthening the Philippine Disaster Risk Reduction and Management System, providing for the national disaster risk reduction and management framework and institutionalizing the national disaster risk reduction and management plan, appropriating funds therefore and for other purposes.

It is coherent with international commitments of the Philippines such as the: Millennium Development Goals (MDG); Hyogo Framework of Action (HFA); and ASEAN Agreement on Disaster management and Emergency Response (AADMER).

Sec. 5 National Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council

The National Council shall be headed by the Secretary of the Department of National Defense (DND) as Chairperson with the Secretary of the Department of the Interior and Local Government (DILG) as Vice Chairperson for Disaster Preparedness, the Secretary of the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) as Vice Chairperson for Disaster Response, the Secretary of the Department of Science and Technology (DOST) as Vice Chairperson for Disaster Prevention and Mitigation, and the Director-General of the National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA) as Vice Chairperson for Disaster Rehabilitation and Recovery.

SEC. 11. Organization at the LGU Level

The existing Provincial, City, and Municipal Disaster Coordinating Councils shall henceforth be known as the provincial, City, and Municipal Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Councils. The Barangay Disaster Coordinating Councils shall cease to exist and its powers and functions shall henceforth be assumed by the existing Barangay Development Councils (BDCs) which shall serve as the LDRRMCs in every barangay.

SEC. 12. Local Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Office (LDRRMO)

(a) There shall be established an LDRRMO in every province, city and municipality, and a Barangay Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Committee (BDRRMC) in every barangay which shall be responsible for setting the direction, development, implementation and coordination of disaster risk management programs within their territorial jurisdiction.

(b) The LDRRMO shall be under the office of the governor, city or municipal mayor, and the *punong barangay* in case of the BDRRMC. The LDRRMOs shall be initially organized and composed of a DRRMO to be assisted by three (3) staff responsible for: (1) administration and training; (2) research and planning; and (3) operations and warning. The LDRRMOs and the BDRRMCs shall organize, train and directly supervise the local emergency response teams and the ACDVs.

SEC. 16. Declaration of State of Calamity

The National Council shall recommend to the President of the Philippines the declaration of a cluster of barangays, municipalities, cities, provinces, and regions under a state of calamity, and the lifting thereof, based on the criteria set by the National Council. The President's declaration may warrant international humanitarian assistance as deemed necessary. The declaration and lifting of the state of calamity may also be issued by the local *Sanggunian*, upon the recommendation of the LDRRMC, based on the results of the damage assessment and needs analysis.

On its part, Iligan City also has some clusters of barangays under which the local chief executive or the city mayor, by the power vested in him, can locally declare a particular under a state of calamity, and endorse the same to the President for him to acknowledge and declared officially the same. In particular, during heavy rains which would eventually result to flooding, there were 19 out of 44 barangays of the city already identified or clustered as flooded areas. Moreover, there were eight barangays which, in times of constant heavy rains, were also identified as highly prone to landslides.

Lessons Learned from Data against Disaster

Whether human-induced or natural hazards-induced, disasters can happen anytime, anywhere especially to vulnerable people and environments. In order to minimize, if not totally avoid losses and injuries to lives and damages to properties caused by hazards and disasters across countries and communities, the United Nations formulated the Hyogo Framework for Action (HFA) to which the Philippines was one of the 168 signatory countries.

In line with the HFA, the formulation and implementation of laws and policies in building up disaster preparedness through actions have been given priority by the Philippine national governments with the enactment of the RA 10121 or the "Philippine Disaster Risk Reduction and Management (DRRM) Act of 2010" that guides and strengthens the disaster risk reduction and management capacity of the country, LGU's, communities, institutions and various other groups.

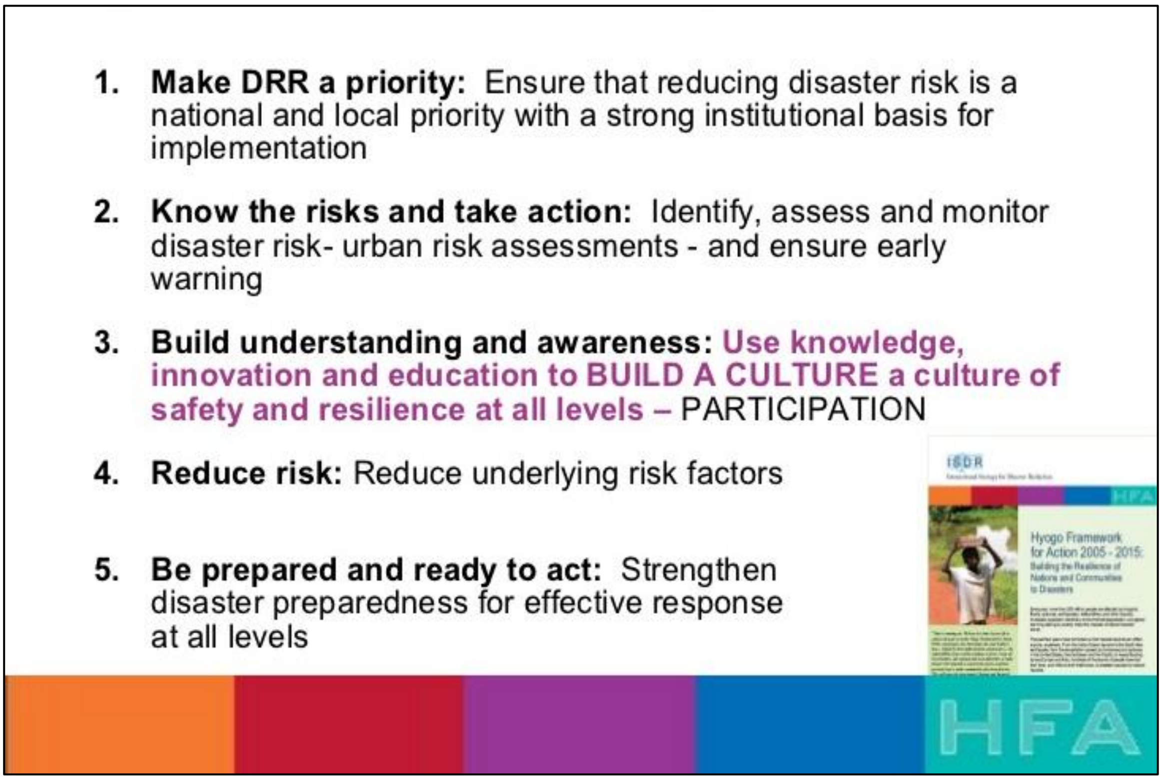

Figure 1. ***Hyogo Framework for Action priorities***

As mandated by the RA 10121, local governments units and communities have integrated disaster risk reduction and management into their plans and activities.

One case is Quezon Province. Due to the damages left by typhoon Winnie in 2004, the province had developed its disaster preparedness plan implementing early warning system, radio communication technology and the use of indigenous knowledge system (IKS), such as in identifying early signs to the weather patterns; behavior of animals and migration of birds. Forming, training and developing of contingency plans strengthen the risk management of the communities in the province. This helps them for future preparation.

In Marikina City, the LGU has improved its drainage system; canals, creeks and other waterways were being unclogged. Factories situated near the riverbanks were also removed unless these factories could build their own waste and wastewater management facilities. Resettlement projects as well are located to higher and safer grounds. The city has installed water level gauge and sirens to warn people. Numerous offices had coordinated with the city's disaster preparedness program towards center's proceedings, communication and information monitoring of water level, available evacuation center, medical assistance, food and relief goods distribution, evacuation transport, logistic requirements, rescue operations, security and public order, accurate information dissemination, conducts maintenance services.

In Bula, Camarines Sur, they have employed different kinds of preparedness mechanism. One of which is reconstruction of people's houses. They also added up tools and equipment to be used during a disaster. The municipality's barangay council purchased boats for the rescue, evacuation and transportation in preparation of flood. The Department of Local Government in the area has trained barangay *tanod* enabling them to gain knowledge on rescue operations. Also there were Disaster Management Committees trained by an NGO operate to in such different phases of disaster management.

In Labo, Camarines Norte, they organized an emergency response team known as BERTs – OCOU (Barangay Emergency Response Teams-Organized Community Operations Units). The organized group helps assist the BDCC in warning and evacuating people in affected communities and in hazard mapping and contingency planning. This supports the municipality to become aware of disaster preparedness and mitigation.

In Paranaque City, the Barangay BF Homes has developed their Disaster Preparedness Plan. They have formed teams who were given responsibilities and tasks based on their capabilities. The Calamity and Disaster Preparedness Plan guidelines of the Barangay is composed of pre, during and post-disaster phases. These would help them avoid panic and unnecessary actions during disasters.

In Barangay Maasin, Quezon, and the island province of Palawan, the communities mobilized their members to solve their problems including their isolation from the town center, lack of health care services and environmental degradation through BDAT (Barangay Disaster Action Team). The members of BDAT use posters and comics as means of public awareness on disaster preparedness. The community provided the labor for the various projects and Red Cross supplied the materials needed. Technical help in engineering design was given by the municipal government. Hanging bridge was used during floods for access to the village center and schooling for children.

Iligan City has strengthened its Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council (DRRMC) and has started awareness on DRR and CCA, operationalizing the NDRRM to all its barangays. The functions of the Iligan City Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council (ICDRRMC) are to establish a physical facility to be known as the Disaster Operations Center or DOC; coordinate from the DOC the disaster operation activities; implement within the city the guidelines set by the Provincial Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Council or PDRRMC; advise the Barangay Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Committee (BDRRMC) regarding disaster risk management; and submit recommendations to the PDRRMC, if necessary. The city's DRRMC has the following task units (pre-disaster phase): warning, communication, evacuation, transportation, security, health, and relief. It also has the following clusters (response phase): coordination, logistics, camp coordination and camp management (CCCM), food and non-food items, health and mass casualty management, mental health, psychosocial, and spiritual (MHPSS), nutrition, water, sanitation, and hygiene (WaSH),protection, livelihood, shelter, early recovery, and education.

In particular, Iligan City has, first of all, made a hazard map and disaster risk assessment in all the city's 44 barangays. Next, the city has developed some relocation sites, such as in Sta. Elena (7 kms from the city), Upper Hinaplanon (5 kms. from the city), Digkilaan (17 kms.), and Dalipuga (12 kms.). It has improved its drainage system and also those of the barangays'. It has also expanded and rehabilitated river bank systems, constructed flood control structures in flood prone areas. To say the least, it has finally established a radio program on DRR and climate change adaptation (CCA). So far, the hotels under study have not exerted any effort to link with the city government on its plans and programs for flood prevention and preparedness. It is high time for them to do so. By then, they could coordinate with the city government in its activities, and the hotels, in turn, could also tap the city in their own flood preparedness activities.

On the other hand, the Philippine government has improved knowledge and capacity in handling disasters through the institutionalization of the *Gawad Kalasag* that stands for *KAlamidad at Sakuna LAbanan SAriling Galing ang Kaligtasan*. The yearly award (national and regional) is given to the municipality, province or city which has developed the best contingency plan and disaster preparedness or disaster risk reduction management program. Iligan City was one of the cities nationwide which received such award Gawad Kalasag award (Viloria L., *et al.*, 2014).

Risk reduction and disaster preparedness require the collection of baseline information on communities, services, and infrastructure, but this information is usually scattered across many public bodies. Needs assessment and damage assessment, too, should reflect commonly accepted standards and definitions and should be made available on various media and digital platforms so that they may be shared across agencies. Finally, search and rescue operations, evacuations, and care for victims of trauma—all these must be planned and coordinated. Large-scale emergencies tend to trigger a mass influx of humanitarian supplies, often of questionable relevance and quality. These relief goods must be sorted through, logged, and distributed. There may be dozens or even hundreds of organizations engaged in relief and reconstruction, and the activities of these organizations must be tracked to identify gaps and redundancies. For in emergencies, improvements in efficiency translate quickly into more saved lives.

Mitigating the Impacts of a Disaster

To mitigate the impact of any disaster, the following are to be taken:

1. There should be vulnerability assessment of the buildings, infrastructure, agriculture, industries, etc. Buildings are the easiest target of an earthquake. For construction of earthquake resistant buildings, its site, materials used (cement mortar, RCC casting, steel), shape (square, rectangle type), structural design, construction technique (bend, curing, foundation), maintenance, etc., are important aspects.

2. There should be pre-planning of all available resources, communication facilities, manpower, etc. Experience has shown that before starting the rescue work, administration has to clean the roads and bridges which are badly damaged therefore, not only an inventory of local resources should be prepared but also bypasses and alternative routes should be identified in the plan itself.

3. There should be an emergency plan for each and every district in which response mechanism should be clearly spelled out. For instance, what is to be done, when to be done, who will do, what and how to get it done through public, NGOs, army or civil administration should be properly clarified, otherwise the natural disaster results in "chaos, anarchy, and destruction" due to confusion confounded.

4. There should be proper information and public relation system during a disaster, i.e., there should be a temporary camp/counter to tell the people about the loss of life and property and it should also brief the mass media like newspapers, radio, TV, regularly; otherwise, the mass media will report inflated figures of losses. The hotels, in particular, should also have their own information and guest relation system so that the guests would not be taken by surprise and would not panic in the event of a disaster like flood.

5. Finally, there should be public education and training before the occurrence of any disaster.

According to Sinha (2006), the greatest potential for minimizing economic losses and reducing disaster vulnerability lies with the preparedness and mitigation phases. As such, given that improved warning systems and dissemination of information on disaster prevention have significantly reduced the number of people seriously affected in developed countries, the availability of such information to the population at risk in disaster-prone developing countries is equally, if not more vital to their disaster prevention and mitigation efforts. Once the population mostly at risk is identified in these countries, specific prevention measures should be taken to protect them, including the enforcement of appropriate building standards. Sinha (2006) further said that effective policies to regulate further growth of human settlements in risky areas should also be formulated and implemented as part of a broader disaster prevention and mitigation strategy. Since the location of human settlements is partly determined by spatial location of economic activity, the reduction of disaster vulnerability requires the implementation of appropriate economic policies, such as fiscal incentives for orientation of economic activities away from disaster-prone areas. Efforts aimed at reorienting economic activities away from risky areas may require cooperation with the private sector, given that recurrent natural disasters can play a role in determining patterns of investment and discouraging new investment in particularly disaster-prone areas.

Mitigating the Impacts of Floods

Floods, especially flash floods, kill more people each year than hurricanes, tornadoes, wind storms or lightning. Flood water can be deceptively strong. Fresh water moving at 4mph (a brisk walking pace) exerts a force of about 66 pounds on each square foot of anything it encounters. Double the water speed to 8 mph and the force suddenly rises to about 264 pounds per square foot. That's enough force to punch a car or light truck off a flooded road if water reaches up to door level.

In particular, the 1998 flood experiences in Bangladesh show that disaster mitigation and response are best managed at the national level. Disaster can be particularly effective when jointly carried out by government agencies, local communities, NGOs, and business and financial institutions, including micro-credit organizations. Bearing in mind the engineering, economic, social and environmental complexities of large-scale embankments, dams and river canalization projects—together with their often prohibitive cost—greater attention should be given to non-structural measures designed to prevent, mitigate or minimize the damage caused by floods in poorer developing countries. The main lesson from the recent flooding disaster in Bangladesh, therefore, is that, in the absence of expensive structural measures, many non-structural one can go a long way towards reducing vulnerability to natural disasters and mitigating their impacts.

Moreover, on October 20, 1999, tropical storm Eve hit the central provinces of Vietnam. In just six days (from November 1 to 6), the skies dumped the equivalent of two years of rain. The Huong (or Perfume) River rose a meter an hour. A month later, just when the rainy season should have dried up, a second tropical storm unleashed fresh torrential rains. In the worst affected areas, ten years of development were wiped out. The two floods resulted in 793 people dead or missing and made 55,000 homeless. All in all, 1.7 million people were directly affected out of the 8 million or so inhabitants in the central provinces. The whole of Vietnam lives with the threat of water.

As an initial solution, reconstruction projects promoting mitigation need to send the message during the first months after disaster that safer housing is within everybody's reach. By building such a large number of houses, the message of the need for stronger housing is getting through by simple presence in so many places. Aside from this, the Vietnamese government did issue building directives taking account of natural disasters in the mid-1990s.

On the other hand, it was found out, however, that village people lack any saving structures. It is estimated that 50-70 per cent of credit needs are met by 'informal' sources—neighbors, family members or village moneylenders who apply high rate of interest (3-10 per cent per month), leading to widespread indebtedness. Researchers have shown that very few farmers invest the money they borrow in ways which create new economic activity. Most use their loans to enlarge their home, to repay their debts, or simply to survive between two harvests. So loans must go hand in hand with major inputs of technical and economic expertise to provide rural inhabitants with the skills they need to diversify into, for example, food processing or other 'multiplier' activities. Finally, Viet Nam has no system of insurance against natural disasters. In the absence of such insurance, the country should have a separate budget line for disasters (Sinha, 2006).

Disaster Preparedness in the Hotel Industry

In his *Plan Ahead for* Disaster, Roland Leiser (2011) had this to say: Plan for the unexpected, develop emergency preparations for known threats, join seminars to stimulate responses to disasters and surf the Internet for hotel associations' tips and advice. These are among the views of lodging executives for coping with floods, hurricanes, tornadoes and droughts.

Based on his experiences after the flood at Gaylord Opryland Resort, Peter Weien (2010) offers advice to hoteliers on how to stay prepared in case of a natural disaster.

Figure 2. ***Flooded Gaylord Opryland Resort, Nashville***

- Draft a comprehensive plan to address a particular type of emergency and be sure that it is practical and updated periodically. Staff should participate in simulated emergency events programmed into desktop computers.
- Assure that all staff understand their roles and responsibilities.
- Establish a stand-alone command central room with computers and phones and stock plenty of flashlights and batteries if electricity goes out. Similarly, a generator should always be available for temporary power.
- Involve the hotel's public relations staff on site to communicate with the media.
- Consider working with a consultant.

On the other hand, Glenn Tuckman, SVP, operations and asset management, HEI Hotels & Resorts, echoed some of the same advice but added his own spin on a more practical level. His advice:

- Have a preparedness plan and review it annually.
- Keep inventory data current for batteries and radios.
- Where full-force winds are prevalent, do advance planning to purchase plywood for covering glasses.
- As for PBX manual, make sure there's a bomb threat form to assure that the staff asks the right questions. "To avoid panic of not getting the right information, they need to know what they say, where the bomb was put and what the reason was."
- Overall, develop an emergency and disaster preparation manual. Training is key, so perform fire drills and rehearse emergency transportation requirements.

- For housekeepers, HEI helps them learn basic words to advise guests in the event of a fire alarm.
- Fire and water mitigation should be contracted well in advance before a disaster strikes. If the hotel is flooded, property managers want a fast response to extract the water in carpets. If other hotels in the area suffered from similar damage, it may be difficult to find a company at the last minute.
- Back up-generators are indispensable but managers must stock enough diesel fuel for emergencies and test them occasionally.
- A yearly review of insurance coverage is recommended (Retrieved on August 28, 2014 (*http://www.hotelmanagement.net/plan-ahead-for-natural-disasters-12522*).

In line with this, the present study would seek to find out whether the hotels under study do have a flood preparedness plan or not. In the absence of it, a checklist and guidelines of flood preparedness and response would be recommended. Thus, some of the points given or outlined by Wein are also adopted in the checklist and guidelines of flood preparedness and response (FPRP) drafted for the hotels under study to make one.

Devastating Disaster affecting Hospitality Industry

Disasters experienced by hospitality industry have steadily increased over the past few decades. Disaster management has become an important issue as hospitality key players seek ways to cope with these unexpected events, which confound threats to the viability of hospitality organizations (I.I. Mitroff, 2004), and create multiple challenges for the private and public sectors (B. Prideaux, 2004).

Flooding and violent coastal storms in areas such as Cornwall, Somerset, Devon in England and along the river Thames have caused some hotels to offer modified services or temporarily close. To help affected properties better manage their cash flow, the government stepped in to offer rate and tax relief to affected areas, prime minister David Cameron announced, among other measures, “100% relief on business rates for three months for companies affected by the flooding”. A government news release also said “businesses will also be able to apply for a three-month deferral of VAT (value-added tax; currently 20% in the United Kingdom), PAYE (pay as you earn payments) and council tax (local government rates)” (*http://www.hotelnewsnow.com/Article/13168/Flood-ravaged-hotels-seek-relief-in-UK).*

Tim House, hotel director of the Idle Rocks Hotel in St. Mawes, Cornwall, said, “I think the government is taking the right steps. Much has been done already, and we will look at getting some relief from rates when the time comes, but at the moment we’re concentrating on rebuilding the hotel.”

Hospitality and tourism businesses in UK, struggled to cope with disaster brought by floods. Hotels, restaurants, pubs and tourist attractions have been battered by heavy rain and gale-force winds and the Government is acting now to set a path to recovery. The British Hospitality Association asks the Government urgently to help the industry in two ways: by setting up a marketing budget to attract tourists back and by giving affected businesses a lifeline by offering a moratorium on VAT, PAYE and corporation tax payments.” (Nicholls L., 2014)

On November 08, 2013 Friday night in the Philippines, Super typhoon Yolanda (international name Haiyan) hit Coron which caused a huge damage to the said area. An estimated 90 percent of houses and hotels in the area, 990 tourism pump boats, and two villages were destroyed by Yolanda. According to Mayor Clara Reyes, with all the hotels damaged by Yolanda, Coron, Palawan recovery may take up to a year.

Related Studies

In their study, *Emergency Preparedness for Disasters and Crises in the Hotel Industry*, Al Battat and Mat Som (2013) said that hospitality practitioners noticed a rising number of natural and man-made crises that harm the hospitality industry, with regards to their vulnerability to crisis and internal and external hazards. Practitioners mentioned safety measures like closed circuit TV (CCTV), passport photo ID checks, guards, emergency generators, fire protection, emergency plan, and emergency lights (Bach & Pizam, 1996; Bullen, 1988; Enz, 2009; Kwortnik, 2005). The hospitality industry is one of the most vulnerable to crisis and can be affected by internal and external hazards (Henderson & Ng, 2004; Santana, 2004). Some practitioners study the impact of the crisis on different sectors within the hospitality industry, such as restaurants (Green, Bartholomew, & Murrmann, 2004; Tse, So, & Sin, 2006), airlines (Gillen & Lall, 2003; Henderson, 2003), travel agents (Lovelock, 2003), and hotels (Chien & Law, 2003; Hassanain, 2009; Israeli & Reichel, 2003; S. Kim *et al*., 2005). The effects of disasters cannot be stopped, but they can be mitigated, and lives and property can be saved (Ritchie, 2004).

They also cited that safety and security are essential for hotels in preventing death and injury of guests and employees, with multiple forms of hazards such as falls, cuts, slips, burns, and related accidents (Enz & Taylor, 2002). To improve safety and security, hotels installed CCTV, fire sprinklers, smoke detectors, and electronic doors (Pizam, 2010). Security personnel have the responsibility to insure the safety of the hotel, guests, employees, and assets. In this regard, human resources should attract and recruit professional security officers with good experience for this mission. Employees in general and security officers specifically, should attend training workshops on governmental regulations and first-aid. Moreover, they should receive fire and emergency evacuation training to deal effectively with hazards (Henderson, Shufen, Huifen, & Xiang, 2010). Since September 11, security budgets have been increased by the hotels to invest more in the front area, installing heavy-duty equipment (Howie, 2005). To tackle blackout situations, hotels enhance power systems and emergency lighting (Kwortnik, 2005).

In the Philippine setting, the study of Asim (2006) on *Disaster Risk Reduction Planning and Management Models for Institutional Linkages* assessed the functional efficiency and effectivity of Disaster Coordinating Councils (DCCs) and he suggested models for better coordination among DCCs, line agencies, NGOs, Private Organizations, and Civic Organizations at three phases of disaster management, that is, Pre-disaster, Syn-disaster, and Post-disaster. Asim found that of the 20 districts, 9 are highly susceptible to landslides and others are moderate and low susceptible to landslides. Two districts are prone to flooding and karst development. Considering its high national hazard vulnerability, there is an immediate need to have an effective disaster management system.

Asim's findings were: weak coordination among DCCs, line agencies, NGOs, POs and Cos. In assessing the institutional linkages among the agencies involved, it was concluded that City Disaster Coordinating Councils' (CDCCs) functional efficiency level was 39% at Pre-disaster phase, 21% at Syn-disaster phase and 25% at Post-disaster phase. He concluded that the level of the national hazards could be significantly used to strengthen the linkages among the concerned agencies, i.e. CDCCs, NGOs, POs and COs based on the type of the hazards and the density of the population for potential hazardous areas.

Orpilla's (2004) study on *Urban Planning and Disaster Prevention: The Case of Flooding in Baguio City* found that flooding in the city was not solely caused by improper garbage proposal but by unregulated land practices of the population. A considerable amount of solid waste remained uncollected. There was no substantial proof that such indeed was the main cause of flooding. However, his study accepted that improper disposal of solid waste aggravated the stagnation of surface runoff in an area, i.e. by clogging drainage inlets and disallowing surface runoff to be properly discharged. He further found some underlying causes of this problem: weak institutional capacity of the city government, non-enforcement of ordinances to address the problem of drainage, lack of environmental concern, and public awareness on environmental degradation.

Another study by Redentor Bien Luz, Jr. (2014) was on *Disaster Preparedness Plan for the Manila City Library*. His paper aimed to find out how prepared the Manila City Library (MCL) for disaster and what could be done to improve its disaster preparedness. His findings show that the MCL is not prepared for a disaster. The library is in a disaster-prone area located at a place where flooding is a common occurrence. The MCL is deemed unsafe due to lack of exits and the stairway having insufficient width. The library does not have a disaster plan or a disaster team. The library only employs basic preventive measures and it has limited resources to use in an event of a disaster. There are no clear response and recovery procedures during and after a disaster. He recommended that the library should have its own disaster preparedness team and he proposed a disaster preparedness plan which the library might use.

On the other hand, two studies on hotels in Mindanao were made by Belisario (1984) and Balares (2010). The former was *A 1986 Survey on the Security Measures Instituted by Some Hotels and Restaurants in Cagayan de Oro City*; the latter was *Safety and Security Practices of the Selected Hotels in Cagayan de Oro City*. In her 1984 study, Belisario revealed that there were some hotels that did not have fire exits and fire alarms, and did not inspect the things brought by guests upon entering and leaving the hotel premises. Twenty-six years after, Balares' study now reveal that the security of the guests against possible threats and losses was rated excellent.

Locally, the studies of Enriquez, Gallardo and Villa in Hinaplanon (2012) and of Colance, Landong and Manda in Rogongon (2012) respondents from Hinaplanon and Rogongon revealed that respondents were unprepared when typhoon Sendong came. The actions taken by their barangay officials were limited to the coordination of different organizations. It somehow shows that their studies were taken mainly from the perspective of the residents in a single barangay. Hence, the government's role and perspective were less attended. Iligan being a Gawad Kalasag awardee before the occurrence of Typhoon Sendong was expected to have armed itself for disaster. Ironically, however, it appeared that it was caught flat-footed when Sendong struck, leaving a large number of casualties and damages to properties. This disaster had raised a serious question regarding the city's disaster preparedness.

Finally, all the related literatures and studies cited, in one way or another, have some bearing to this present study: Flood Preparedness and Response plan of Inns/Hotels in Iligan City: Checklist and Guidelines

Methodology

This chapter presents the research design and instruments, the respondents, the data gathering procedure, and the statistical treatment.

Research Design and Instruments

This study is qualitative-quantitative in nature. To gather the needed data, a questionnaire was administered to the five hotels—one for the manager, one for the hotel staff, another questionnaire for the guest and the LGU. On top of the questionnaires, an interview was done to supplement data.

The Respondents

The five hotel-respondents under study were: Caprice Inn, Celadon Pension House, Crystal Inn, Elena Tower Inn, and Ma. Cristina Hotel.

Caprice Inn, which opened for business in 1986, is a 30-bed hotel composed of 12 single, 15 double, and 3 king beds. With a wide spacious lobby, it is a two-storey hotel located at Cor. Badelles and Lluch Streets, Barangay Poblacion, Iligan City. Celadon Pension House, which opened for business in 2007, is a 62-bed hotel composed of 7 single, 27 double, 1 deluxe, 1 executive, 11 standard, and 5 each for suite, economy, and twin beds. It is a 3-storey hotel located at Rotunda cor. Ubaldo Laya Ave., near Iligan Medical Center College, at Barangay Palao. Likewise, Crystal Inn, which opened for business in 1971, is also a 62-bed hotel. It is also a 3-storey hotel located at Ma. Cristina Subdivision, Jeffrey Road, Barangay Palao. Elena Tower Inn, on its part, which opened for business in 1994, is a 47-bed hotel composed of 19 standard, 12 twin, and 8 each for suite and matrimonial beds. It is a 7-storey hotel located at Andres Bonifacio Ave., National Highway, Barangay Tibanga. Finally, Ma. Cristina Hotel, which opened for business in 1969, is a 53-bed hotel. It is also a 7-storey hotel located at the heart of the city particularly on Gen. Aguinaldo Street, Barangay Poblacion.

From these five hotels, the respondents of the study were the following: one (1) hotel owner/manager; three (3) rank-and-file employees, which may include, the security and maintenance staff, front desk staff, room attendant, housekeeping staff, and food & beverage attendant; twenty (20) guests in each inn/hotel. From the LGU which was represented by the Department of Tourism and Disaster Risk Reduction and Management, there were four (4) DOT personnel and twenty (20) DRRM staff. In other words, there were 5 hotel managers, 15 hotel staff, 100 guests, 4 DOT personnel, and 20 DRRM staff. All in all, there were 120 hotel respondents and 24 LGU personnel.

The five hotel respondents, all located in Iligan city and all are DOT accredited hotels, were the following.

Name of Inns/Hotels	DOT Classification	Number of Rooms	Owner/Manager	Staff	Guests
Caprice Inn	Inn	30	1	3	20
Celadon Pension House	Inn	62	1	3	20
Crystal Inn	Inn	62	1	3	20
Elena Tower Inn	Hotel	47	1	3	20
Maria Christina Hotel	Hotel	53	1	3	20

Data Gathering Procedure

A questionnaire was shown to the thesis adviser for approval. Once it was approved, the researcher made a survey to identify the inns/hotels in Iligan City that were accredited by DOT. After this phase, a letter was sent addressed to each hotel owner/manager requesting permission to gather the data as the basis of this study. Once the permit was granted, the conduct of the study began.

Statistical Treatment

This study used the following statistical tools: frequency distribution (FD), mean (M), ranking, standard deviation (SD), chi-square, and Cochran Q. Chi-square was used to test independence between categorical variables. Cochran's Q Test was used to statistically analyze success rate data, particularly when only a small number of users were tested (http://webword.com/moving/cochransq.html).

The gathered data were then endorsed to a statistician for the statistical analysis. The following were the statistical tools were used to compute for the results of this study:

1. Standard Deviation (SD)

$$\boldsymbol{SD = \sqrt{s^2}}$$

Where:

$s^2 = \dfrac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(x_i - \bar{x}\right)^2}{n-1}$ is the *sample variance*

$\bar{x}$ is the *sample mean*

x_i is the i^{th} object

n is the *sample size*

2. Mean

$\bar{x} = \dfrac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i}{n}$,

Where:

x_i is the *i*th observation

n is the *sample size*

3. Frequency (Percentage)

$$RF = \frac{frequency}{total} \times 100\%$$

4. Chi-square Test

-used to test independence between categorical variables.

Where:

o_{ij} is the observed frequency in the (i, j-th cell)

e_{ij} is the expected frequency in the (i, j-th cell)

$$e_{ij} = \frac{(row\ i\ total) \times (column\ j\ total)}{grand\ total}$$

n is the no. of observations

r is the no. of rows

c is the no. of columns

$v = (c-1)(r-1)$ is the degrees of freedom

5. Cochran Q Test

$$Q = \frac{(J-1)J\sum_{j=1}^{j} C_j^2 - \left(\sum_{j=1}^{j} C_j\right)^2}{J\sum_{i=1}^{N} P_i - \sum_{i=1}^{N} P_i^2}$$

Where P_i is the row and C_j the column, J is the number of variables.

Results

Hotel room category or type

Table 1

Hotel	**Room Types**											**Total**
	S	D	Dx	Ex	T	Sd	St	M	Eco	TB	Kb	
A	12	15									3	30
B	7	27	1	1		11	5		5	5		62
C	20	10	2	3	8	8			5	6		62
D						19	8	8		12		47
E	12	1		3	9					28		53

Legend:

S – Single   D – Double   T – Triple   Ex – Executive
Sd – Standard   Eco – Economy   St – Suite   Dx – Deluxe
Tb– Twin Bed   M – Matrimonial   Kb– King Bed

Hotel's startup capital and year of operation

Table 2

Hotel	Start-up Capital	Year of Operation	Age of Hotel in Years
A	Below Php500, 000	1986	29
B	Php750, 000 above	2007	8
C	Php750, 000 above	1971	44
D	Php750, 000 above	1994	21
E	Php750, 000 above	1969	46

Disasters experienced by hotels in the last five years
Table 3

Disasters experienced by inns/hotels in Iligan City	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Flood	5	4	0.80	0.45	1.0
power outage/brownout	5	3	0.60	0.55	2.0
Vandalism	5	2	0.40	0.55	4.0
Earthquake	5	2	0.40	0.55	4.0
civil disturbance (terrorism, bombing)	5	2	0.40	0.55	4.0
theft or robbery	5	1	0.20	0.45	6.5
hotel building collapse	5	0	0.00	0.00	7.5
Landslide	5	0	0.00	0.00	7.5

Frequency of giving preventive and preparedness activities and procedures of hotels
Table 4

Hotel	***Frequency***		
	Every year	*every 6 months*	*every 3 months*
A	1	0	0
B	1	0	0
C	0	0	1
D	0	1	0
E	1	0	0

Existing preventive and preparedness activities of inns/hotels against fire and earthquake
Table 5

Existing preventive and preparedness activities of hotels against fire/earthquake	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Seminar	5	1	0.2	0.44721
Training	5	2	0.4	0.54772
Drills	5	2	0.4	0.54772
Strategic Planning	5	2	0.4	0.54772

Mode of transport used to deliver guests to safety
Table 6

Hotels	**Mode of Transport**			
	van	dump truck	bus	rubber boat
A	0	0	0	0
B	1	1	0	0
C	1	0	0	0
D	0	0	0	0
E	0	0	0	0

Place of safety where guests could be delivered in case of flood
Table 7

Hote*l*	Place of Safety				
	School	Gym	Brgy. Hall	Church	City Hall
A	0	0	0	0	0
B	1	0	0	0	1
C	0	0	1	0	0
D	1	1	0	1	0
E	0	0	0	0	0

Preventive and preparedness activities among hotels as evaluated by managers and staff
Table 8
Cochran Test

Frequencies

	Value	
	0	1
Seminar	15	5
Training	9	11
Drills	10	10
Strategic_Planning	15	5

Test Statistics

N	20
Cochran's Q	6.254[a]
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.100

a. 0 is treated as a success.

Legend: 0 = Not existing/Not available; 1 = Existing/Available

$\chi^2 = 6.254$, p-value = 0.100

Devices and equipment of hotels used against fire and earthquake
Table 9

Devices and Equipment	N	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fire Exit	5	5	1.0	0.0
Fire alarm	5	5	1.0	0.0
CCTV	5	5	1.0	0.0
Generators	5	5	1.0	0.0
emergency lights	5	5	1.0	0.0
Fire extinguisher	5	4	0.8	0.4
emergency plan	5	4	0.8	0.4

Table 10
Cochran Test

Frequencies

	Value	
	0	1
Fire_Exit	5	95
Fire_alarm	3	97
CCTV	3	97
fire_extinguisher	2	98
generatrors	3	97
emergency lights	3	97
emergency plan	8	92

Test Statistics

N	100
Cochran's Q	13.385[a]
df	6
Asymp. Sig.	.037

a. 1 is treated as a success.

Legend: 0 = Not existing/Not available; 1 = Existing/Available

$\chi^2 = 13.385$, p-value = .037

Discussion

Profile of the Inns/Hotels in Iligan City

As shown in Table 3, the type of rooms of the hotels varied. That is, they did not have the same room category. Hotel A, for instance, had 12 single, 15 double, and 3 king bed, with a total of 30 beds. Hotel B had 7 single, 27 double, 1 each for deluxe and executive, 11 standard, and 5 each for suite, economy, and twin bed. All in all, Hotel B had 62 rooms. Hotel C had 20 single, 10 double, 2 deluxe, 3 executive, 8 each for triple and standard, 5 economy, and 6 twin bed. Like Hotel B, Hotel C also had 62 rooms. Hotel D, on the other hand, did not have any single, double, deluxe, executive, twin bed, economy, and king bed rooms. It had, however, 19 standard rooms, 8 each for suite and matrimonial rooms, and 12 twin bed rooms. All in all, Hotel D had 47 rooms. Finally, Hotel E had 12 single, 1 double, 3 executive, 9 triple, and 28 twin bed rooms. Hotel E had 53 rooms.

The data shows that the hotels did not have the same types and numbers of rooms. . Hotels B and C had the most number of rooms (62) while Hotel A had the least (30). The findings imply that because of the variety of rooms the hotels have, their customers or guests can really choose which type of room they would want to avail of. Hotels have made it a point to have varied types of rooms available since hotel industry is a kind of business that caters to different types of customers. In short, hotel guests come from all walks of life.

Aside from the many number of rooms, the hotels also have several floors or storeys in order to accommodate as many guests as they can.

Hotel A, a 30-bed 2-storey hotel has wide spacious lobbies on each floor. It is located at Cor. Badelles and Lluch Streets, Barangay Poblacion. A semi-concrete building, it can withstand an intensity 4 earthquake. It can also withstand storm signal No. 2, that is, with a wind velocity of 61-100 kph in 24 hours that can uproot few big trees.

Hotel B, a 62-bed hotel, has three floors or storeys. It is located at Rotunda cor. Ubaldo Laya Avenue. It is a concrete structure; hence, it can withstand an intensity 6 earthquake, and a storm signal No. 3, i.e., with a wind velocity of 101-185 kph in 18 hours that can destroy many coco trees.

Hotel C, another 62-bed 3-storey hotel, is located at Ma. Cristina Subdivision, Jeffrey Road, Barangay San Miguel. It is a semi-concrete building which can withstand an intensity 4 earthquake, and can also withstand storm signal No. 2, with a wind velocity of 61-100 kph in 24 hours that can uproot few big trees.

Hotel D, a 47-bed 7-storey hotel, is located at Andres Bonifacio Ave., National Highway, Barangay Tibanga. A high rise-concrete, it can withstand an intensity 6 earthquake, and a storm signal No. 3, i.e., with a wind velocity of 101-185 kph in 18 hours that can destroy many coco trees. Being located in the national highway, it always experiences some 1-2 meter high flood water. On its right, just beside the hotel, is MSU-Iligan Institute of Technology.

Hotel E, a 53-bed 7 storey hotel, is located at the heart of the city particularly at Gen. Aguinaldo Street, Barangay Poblacion. A concrete structure which can withstand an intensity 6 earthquake, Hotel E can also withstand a storm signal No. 3, with a wind velocity of 101-185 kph in 18 hours that can destroy many coco trees. Of the five hotels, this is the only hotel located near a river, the Tubod River, some 40-50 meters away.

Hotel's Startup Capital and Year of Operation

Every business venture always needs a put-up capital. For one, the inns/hotels in Iligan City also have their own start - up capital.

Table 4 presents the start-up capital of the five hotels understudy and their year of operation. As shown in Table 4, only Hotel A had the smallest start-up capital, i.e., below Php500, 000, and it started operation in 1986. It is 29 years old. The rest, Hotels B, C, D, and E had a startup capital of Php750, 000 above. Hotel B started its operation just eight years ago, 2007. Hotel C, second oldest hotel next to Hotel E, started its operation in 1971, a year before the declaration of Martial Law. Hotel D started operating in 1994. Finally, Hotel E, the oldest of the five hotels, started operating in 1969.

The data show that there are two hotels, Hotels C and E in particular, which are already very old—44 and 46 years in existence. The hotels' vulnerability has to be assessed as to whether there are already signs of decay, weakened columns, falling concrete plaster, and collapsing ground floor frame. When these are found to be evident, these hotels and even all the other old hotels in the city, should undergo some repairs or retrofitting. The threat to guests' safety, especially during natural disasters (floods or earthquakes), should be the immediate reason for retrofitting, as much as possible, using the modern technology.

It then implies that to engage in hotel industry needs a huge capital and to be able to sustain this venture also calls for another big sum. During the hotel visit and interview, it was found that three hotels—Hotels A, C, and E already had some retrofitting and, to some extent, some renovation and improvement in order for them to withstand to a given natural disaster like flood and to adapt to the present environment. Although retrofitting and renovating are another big expense, Hotels A, C, and E succeeded on this. It is hoped that in their new ventures, they would already purchase or procure the devices and equipment that would equip and make their hotels ready and prepared for any incoming flood.

Disasters Experienced by Inn/Hotels in Iligan City in the Last 5 Years

As shown in the table, there were six disasters the hotels had experienced in the last five years. Ranked first was flood, power outage second, vandalism third, earthquake fourth, civil disturbance fifth, and theft or robbery sixth. It further shows that the hotels have never collapsed, have never experienced landslide, and even experienced fire, which is a worst disaster. This finding implies then that flood is the number one worry of each hotel under this study. In fact, in an internet article, *11 Facts about Flood*, it states that: No region is safe from flooding. Flash floods can bring walls of water from 10 to 20 feet high. A car can be taken away in as little as 2 feet of water. Flooding is caused by spring thawing, heavy rains, flash floods, and mudflows. (www.dosomething.org/facts/11-facts-about-floods). So, since the Philippines is a flood country, and knowing that Iligan City was already badly hit by Typhoon Sendong, the hotels naturally ranked flood as their number one disaster instead of fire or any other disaster.

The hotels were fortunate enough not to experience any of these. However, in a disaster like flood (number 1 in the table), they had not initiated any prevention activities on this--the pre-event phase of Robert's (1994) lifestyle model, like drainage cleaning and maintenance. They had no devices and materials to prevent flood like sandbags. They have no flood preparedness and response team (emergency phase) who will be responsible to instruct the guests what to do, what not to do, and to direct them to a safe place without being panicked. On the other hand, cleaning the hotel after the flood, taking pictures on the damage of the hotel, contacting the insurance agencies, and telling or informing the media that the hotel is back for business after a flood, are jobs that entail or require a lot of people or staff to perform (intermediate phase). Still, these are not enough. How about the repairs (electrical, plumbing, etc.). The hotels, therefore, should hire some help outside. In fact, they can hire a consultant—an electrical engineer, a plumbing engineer, a civil engineer or architect—when they would undertake some repairs or, if not, some retrofitting so that the threat to guests safety especially during natural disasters (floods or earthquakes) would be addressed to immediately. These consultants then could suggest to hotel owners what materials, structural design, and construction or retrofitting technique would be best for the hotels to mitigate or reduce the impact of flood, and the hotels to last long secured and safe from flooding.

Existing Preventive and Preparedness Activities of Inns/Hotels against Flood

All the five hotel managers/owners disclosed that they gave preventive and preparedness activities only on fire and earthquake to their staff either every year, every six months, or every 3 months. It was found that there were no activities on flood given to their staff.

As shown in table 4, one of the five hotels, Hotels C and D had done a preventive and preparedness activity on fire and earthquake every 3 months and every 6 months, respectively. Majority or 3 out of 5 the hotels had done their part yearly.

This finding implies that doing this preventive and preparedness activity on fire and earthquake alone entails a lot of preparation. More so, since it especially involves some expenses, the hotel management prefers to have it once a year only than not having it at all. It may also imply that financial expenditures like this are given less consideration. This could be one of the reasons why these hotels up to this time do not have any flood preparedness and response plan.

On the other hand, seminars, trainings, and drills are very good activities especially when these pertain to prevention and preparedness against a given disaster like flood. Table 5 presents the existing preventive and preparedness activities and procedures the inns/hotels have against fire and earthquake only.

It can be said that in terms of prevention and preparedness against fire and earthquake, the five hotels are obviously ready. They disclosed that these activities were seminars, trainings and drills on the prevention and preparation against fire and earthquake. Specifically, they had seminars on fire safety and prevention, fire escape and safety plan, and on earthquake's dos and don'ts. They also revealed that they had some training on building on fire and basic response of fire: rescue, alarm, confine, and extinguish (RACE). They also performed some drills on fire ground orientation, how to use a fire extinguisher, and how to handle fire emergency situations. Finally, their strategic planning includes home style ambience and accommodation, loyal, committed and hardworking employees, positioning the hotel in a competitive landscape, and quality service.

It is sad to note, however, that they are not prepared and ready for any incoming flood. The city DRRM office, one of the agencies which is tasked to organize seminars and training on disaster, has attested to this fact. As of the moment, their first priority is on fire and earthquake. Consequently, the hotels which appear to be dependent on the city's DRRM do not have any flood preparedness seminars and trainings. They do not have a flood preparedness and response plan (FPRP). How much more for an FPRP team?

The hotels could have initiated their own flood preparedness seminars, trainings, and drills. They should not be dependent on DRRM. They should not wait for DRRM to take the first move. It is obvious that it could not do it this time because the incumbent city mayor was just suspended from office. Flood will come anytime whether the hotels are prepared or not.

On the other hand, in the event of flood, the mode of transport the hotels used to fetch or deliver their guests to safety were vans and dump trucks. They had no buses nor dinghy boats or rubber boats. Rubber boats and dinghy boats are very important devices or equipment during flood evacuation. Dinghy boats, however, are less expensive than rubber boats, so the hotels can easily procure them.

As can be seen from the table 6, Hotel B had a van and a dump truck; Hotel C had only a van. The rest did not have any vehicle to fetch or carry their guests to safety. When an ocular inspection was done with the hotels, it was found that Hotels A and E are located at the heart of the city while Hotel D is located along the national highway. In other words, these particular hotels have a ready access to any vehicle to deliver their guests to safety once there is flood.

On the other hand, as to where the hotels deliver their guests to safety, they had a school, a gym, a barangay hall, a city hall, and even a church to choose from.

As shown in the table 7, Hotels A and E would not deliver their guests to another place in case there is flood. Instead, Hotel A manager disclosed that they would right away send their guests to the second floor of the hotel which has a wide spacious lobby and could accommodate 50 guests and the lobby could also serve 20 guests. For Hotel E, since it is a high-rise hotel, they would readily send their guests to the top floors (5^{th}, 6^{th}, and 7^{th}) of the building, which could serve 200-250 guests. Hotel B would deliver their guests to a school not prone to flooding and to the city hall, which is situated on top of the Buhanginan Hills and is just less than a kilometer away from the hotel itself. A school classroom can accommodate 20 persons. Hence, a 4-classroom building could house 80 persons. A city hall can house 200 persons. Hotel C, on its part, would quickly send their guests to a nearby barangay hall, safe and away from a creek. A barangay hall can serve 50-60 persons. Finally, Hotel D, a 7-storey building, aside from sending their guests atop the hotel, they would also deliver some to a school, gym, and church. A gym can serve more or less 80-100 people; a church can also serve 100 persons.

This finding implies that the hotels are all prepared where to send or deliver their guests to a safe place in case there is flood. The hotels should designate some staff (since they do not have yet a flood preparedness and response team) to send and direct their guests to higher floors of the hotels. Another staff also would fetch or hail a vehicle to escort and send their guests to a school, gym, barangay hall, church or city hall.

Hotels' Preventive and Preparedness Activities as Evaluated by Managers and Staff
Seminars, trainings, and drills are some of the preventive and preparedness activities a hotel industry to have and to undertake in preparation for any incoming disaster—be it fire, earthquake, or flood. In case of flood, for example, the seminars that they should initiate would be to draft a comprehensive plan to address to flood prevention and preparedness. This plan must be practical and updated periodically. All staff, particularly the flood preparedness and response team (FPR) understand their roles and responsibilities. Their trainings and drills would include simulation of flood events programmed into desktop computers, ropemanship, rappelling, gathering of available materials, devices, and equipment for flood prevention and preparedness like sandbags, first aid, and CPR/AED.

In this particular study, which concerns about flood preparedness of hotels, it was found that the hotels had preventive and preparedness activities only on fire and earthquake, and not on flood. Still, making use of the data gathered, the preventive and preparedness activities among the five hotels under study were evaluated as to whether there is a significant difference.

Of the 20 respondents (5 managers and 15 staff), five of them said that they held seminars, trainings and drill to prevent and prepare against fire and earthquake. They had seminars on fire safety and prevention, fire escape and safety plan, an on earthquake's dos and don'ts. Eleven of them disclosed that they had some training on building on fire and basic response of fire: rescue, alarm, confine, and extinguish (RACE). On the one hand, ten of them revealed that they performed some drills on fire ground orientation, how to use a fire extinguisher, and how to handle fire emergency situations. On the other hand, five of them said that they also had some strategic planning on home style ambience and accommodation, on loyal, committed and hardworking employees, on positioning the hotel in a competitive landscape, and on quality service.

Treating the data statistically using the Cochran's Q test, it indicated some differences among the seven proportions. Thus, the result was $\chi^2 = 6.254$, p-value $= 0.100$. Since the four preventive and preparedness activities (i.e., seminar, training, drill, strategic planning) were equally the same in the population, there's still a 10.0% chance of finding the differences observed in the sample. Because this chance was greater than 5%, the hypothesis that there is a significant difference among inns/hotels in terms of preventive and preparedness activities is rejected. In short, it means rather that there was no significant difference among the inns/hotels in terms of their preventive and preparedness as evaluated by the managers and staff. In other words, a certain preventive and preparedness activity on fire and earthquake of one hotel was also present or done by other hotels. In other words, if Hotel A, for instance, had fire and safety seminar, Hotels B, C, D, and E also had one. If Hotel E had seminar and training on the dos and don’ts of earthquake, Hotels A,B, C, and D also had the same.

What is very revealing here is the fact that all the five hotels under study, and perhaps all the other hotels in Iligan City, do not have preventive and preparedness activities on flood. All are on fire and earthquake only. Apparently, they do not have any flood preparedness and response plan (FPRP) and an FPR team. This is then the aim of this study to offer a checklist and guidelines on FPRP for the hotels to make one of their own.

Devices and Equipment to Prevent, Respond, Recover from Fire and Earthquake

Part of a start-up capital, the hotel’s management has procured and installed several devices and equipment to prevent and be prepared for any disaster to happen. Although the number one worry of the hotels is flood, the devices and equipment they have procured and installed are not strictly or exclusively for flood.

Table 9 presents the devices and equipment to prevent and respond either to fire and earthquake. According to the five hotel managers, they had fire exit, fire alarm, CCTV, generators, emergency lights, fire extinguisher, and emergency plan. Moreover, they also have a van and a dump truck which they could use to deliver their guests to safety in the event of these disasters (Please see Table 6).

Upon scrutiny, it was observed that these devices like fire exits, fire alarm, fire extinguishers, as their names suggest were not for flood. Generators could be used for flood; CCTV could be considered flood-related equipment. Emergency lights also are a flood-related device. However, all the five hotels under study did not have any device nor equipment for them to be prepared from an incoming flood. There were no devices like life jackets, life buoy, rubber boats, sandbags, movable flood walls and water gate control. If they had these, they could easily recover from flood. Moreover, there was one device or equipment the hotels can use after the flood. This was the flood pumper.

Although this is quite expensive, a flood pumper is a portable flood extractor that can pump out up to 30 gallons per minute of liquid, sludge, and solids up to a 1/2” diameter. There is a metal basket inside the tanks that will collect all the sludge and debris for removal later. The extractor comes with a 50’ recovery hose, and a 50’ dump hose to cover very large areas, including basements.

When interviewed what to do to recover from flood, they said that they would clean their hotels. They would take pictures of what were damaged and report these to insurance companies and to the concerned agency. Then they would undertake some repairs, but only if there is some budget for it. In short, it implies that after the flood they would only do those simple things—clean, take pictures, report.

It is sad to note that the hotels have not learned some lessons from the December 2004 tsunami in Phuket, Thailand, which they could also emulate to achieve fast recovery of their hotels in case there is flood. One lesson learned from the tsunami is that the people working in the resorts in Phuket did not waste any day—that is, everybody worked. In particular, they "converted the resort convention facility into a rescue and operations center. The resort also served as a meeting place for rescue workers and media to assist in or report on recovery effort. Tourists came to support the recovery by making return visits as soon as possible" (Fein, 2014).

Hotels' Devices, Equipment Used to Prevent, Respond, Recover from Fire and Earthquake as Evaluated by Guests and LGU personnel

Operating a hotel business is not easy. Preparation is done not only for the guests' comfort but also for the hotel to prevent, to respond, and to recover from a given disaster.

Table 10 presents the devices and equipment of the hotels against fire and earthquake as evaluated by the hotels' guests.

Combined altogether, of the 100 guests from the five hotels, 92 said that the hotels had emergency plan. Ninety-five said that the hotels had fire exits. Ninety-seven disclosed that there were fire alarms, CCTVs, generators, and emergency lights. Ninety-eight guests revealed that the hotels had fire extinguishers. Treating the data statistically using the Cochran's Q test, they indicated that the seven devices and equipment are equally the same in the population. Thus, there was still a 3.7% chance of finding the differences observed in the sample. Because this chance was lesser than 5%, *the hypothesis that there is a significant difference among inns/hotels in terms of preventive and preparedness devices* is accepted.

It means that the results are not the same in the entire hotel population. Although it is true that they have some common devices and equipment like fire alarms, CCTVs, fire extinguishers, generators, and emergency lights, they still differ in fire exits and emergency plans. In short, it implies that the hotels should fix their fire exits, make these wider. They should also review or evaluate their emergency plans. Their fire exits should be functional and secured too. Emergency plans should be available and strategically posted so that these can be followed through easily. There have been fire accidents that have claimed many lives because the fire exits of a certain establishment are not securely fixed and narrow. The emergency plans are also not available.

As a whole, the hotels should have a thorough flood preparedness and response plan (FPRP). To realize this, first of all, the hotel management should conduct a strategic planning calling all the staff and personnel to attend and participate. Some outputs that they could have at the end of the day are to outline flood prevention, preparedness, and response activities which will include trainings and seminars, to list down FPR devices and equipment to be procured or purchased, and to assign or designate an FPR team. The hotels are very inadequate on these areas. Hence, this study recommends a checklist and guidelines of FPRP for the hotels to make one of their own.

Projects, Activities of Inns/Hotels, DRRM and DOT on Flood Risk Reduction and Management

To triangulate the data gathered through the questionnaires, the hotel managers were interviewed. Probably aware about the aim or purpose of the interview, they openly admitted that they have future plans to conduct seminars on water search and rescue. In line with this, they said that they were willing to conduct workshops on first aid and basic life support, as well as trainings on basic ropemanship and rappelling. They also recognized that need to do some strategic planning in which they would tackle about the need to design a basic emergency/disaster planning module, and when to procure or purchase safety equipment, such as rubber boat, life jackets, and even ropes. Finally, they accepted the importance of undertaking regular maintenance of the building and the drainage. It was only after the interview that the hotel managers seemed to realize the need for flood preparedness and disaster risk response plan.

For the DRRM, which is under the city mayor's office the researcher learned that part of their activities on flood risk reduction and management was the maintenance of their alarm system, dissemination of warnings from PAGASA, and personnel and equipment availability for immediate response. However, at present they do not have programs and projects, since these are held in abeyance due to the fact that the incumbent mayor has been suspended. At present, the city has an OIC-mayor, who feels he could not push through with the necessary programs/projects since as an officer-in-charge, he feels that his position is only temporary. Besides, the 2016 election is already in the offing, so he deems it impractical to push through with the activities and projects started by the suspended mayor.

On the part of the DOT, they disclosed that activities and projects on flood risk reduction and management were under the jurisdiction of the DRRM. They were only concerned, however, on DANA—disaster assessment and needs analysis.

Checklist and Guidelines of Hotels' Flood Preparedness and Response Plan

Developing a flood preparedness plan is one of the most important strategic decisions hotel owners must make and consider. As owners, they have to consider how flood could affect their hotels, employees, and guests. An FPRP – Checklist and Guidelines – can help them prepare their hotels to stay in business – safe and secured from flood.

In the light of the data gathered and the findings of the study, the following checklist and guidelines of hotels' FPRP are hereby offered. This checklist with its accompanying guidelines is approved by the head of the city tourism office and the head of DRRM office of Iligan City.

CHECKLIST AND GUIDELINES OF FLOOD PREPAREDNESS AND RESPONSE PLAN FOR HOTELS OF ILIGAN CITY

The Checklist

How vulnerable is your hotel if a flood would occur?

___________Know your location, such as making it sure the urban and local governance in place are accountable and competent to identify risks, and apply risk reduction and preparedness. Link with the city's DRRM and with your barangay DRRM.

- Find out what emergencies, like floods and earthquakes; have occurred in the past and what impact these have on other hotels in the area. One best way to do this is to review a Hazard Vulnerability Assessment (HVA) obtained from your local agency. Your city engineer's office can assist on this.
- Consider your hotel's physical capacity to resist damage and proximity to flood plans and other hazards. If your hotel is quite old, say 30 years old and up already, some retrofitting may be done.

- Consult with your insurance agent and learn what coverage is available and what precautions to take for disasters that may impact your hotel. Make sure that your insurance policies cover flood damage.

___________Identify external emergency response resources and their corresponding contact numbers.

- Local police
- Fire department and medical services organizations
- Local government officials, emergency management office
- Local public health agency
- Red Cross chapter
- National and local weather Service
- Telephone and electric companies
- Neighboring businesses (malls, department stores, etc.)
- Neighboring cities or provinces (cities of Cagayan de Oro, Gingoog, Ozamiz, and the provinces of Lanao Sur, Misamis Or., and Mis. Occ.)

What is your plan to protect the hotel, employees, and the customers before, during and after the flood?

___________Identify a planning committee or team that is responsible for developing and implementing a flood preparedness and response plan (FPRP).Make or designate one team or committee for your own FPRP

___________Obtain necessary safety equipment.

- List and purchase some or all safety devices and equipment (e.g., dinghy and rubber boats, water gate, movable flood walls), first-aid kits, life jacket, life buoy, flood-detection device and shelter-in-place supplies that you need for your hotel. Make sure all employees know how to access these supplies and use these devices.

___________Write or draft a plan describing how your hotel will respond to flood. Your FPRP team or staff can do this. Your plan should include a clearly designated leadership structure that indicates who is in charge during a flood.

- A system for warning employees and customers about an incoming flood and communicating with employees, guests, and local emergency management officials during flood.
- Procedures for communicating with employees, guests, families, flood preparedness and response personnel and media representatives prior to, during and after flood.
- Procedures for employees and guests to follow for evacuation, sheltering-in-place and for other area-specific hazards.
- Procedures for responding to internal medical flood emergencies.

___________Develop a Continuity or Operation Plan (COOP). This plan will help keep your hotel as it responds and recovers from the effects of flood.

- Establish procedures for COOP activation.
- Identify essential hotel functions and staff to carry out these functions.
- Establish procedures with suppliers and other hotels and businesses critical to daily operations.
- Identify records and documents that must be readily accessible to perform essential functions and store them safely where they can be retrieved quickly in case of flood.

What can you do to integrate flood preparedness procedures into your hotel?

___________Train employees. Their trainings would include simulation of flood events programmed into desktop computers, ropemanship, rappelling, gathering of available materials, devices, and equipment for flood prevention and preparedness like sandbags, first aid, and CPR/AED.

___________Consider partnering with community organizations, such as your own Barangay Disaster Risk Reduction and Management, to help create comprehensive preparedness training. All employees should know:

- Their role during a flood and the roles and responsibilities of key personnel at your facility.
- Warning and communication procedures.
- Evacuation and shelter-in-place procedures.

___________Obtain needed equipment, devices and supplies. Designated employees should know how and where to access safety equipment, devices and flood preparedness supplies as needed:

- First-aid kits
- Life jackets and life buoy
- Dinghy boats and Rubber boats
- Ropes and whistles
- Functional generators
- Waterproof clothing (including rubber gloves and rubber boots)
- Battery operated torch, flashlights, and spare batteries
- Sandbags, movable flood walls and water gate control
- Shelter-in-place supplies (including canned foods, drinking water, blankets and spare clothes)

__________ Practice your FPRP. Conduct and assess regular drills and exercises for evacuation, COOP activation, shelter-in-place, and medical emergency response. Do this every three months or earlier as the need arises.

- Use the drills to assess the readiness of your employees and your facility.
- Involve personnel in the evaluation process to improve procedures and increase training as needed.

__________ Encourage personal preparedness among employees and customers.

- Have at least 10% of your employees trained in first-aid to handle flood emergencies at work.
- Offer first-aid, CPR/AED and flood preparedness training.
- Encourage your employees to: get a kit, make a plan, be informed.
- Encourage your employees to identify alternate routes for going to and from your facility.
- Remind employees to always keep their emergency contact information current and active.
- Encourage employees to have an out-of-town contact they can text or call during a flood or an emergency.
- Encourage employees to have emergency preparedness kits at work and at home.

__________ Help your community get prepared. Work with local community groups and government officials to ensure that your community is prepared for flood and other emergencies. Here are a few ideas.

- Host blood drives.
- Work with your local Red Cross chapter to train employees to serve on a disaster assignments or conduct presentations on flood preparedness.
- Contribute supplies and/or services to flood emergency efforts.
- Adopt a local school or school district and support their flood preparedness programs.
- Participate and get involved in tree-planting activities.
- Disseminate information regarding flood prevention and preparedness through flyers and leaflets.

The Guidelines

Before Flooding Occurs

- Be aware how often your location is likely to be flooded and to what extent.
- Know the flood warning system in your community where your hotel is located and be sure everyone is informed.
- Keep informed of daily weather condition.
- Prepare or ready the evacuation area (higher floors and rooftops of the hotel). Direct the flood preparedness and response personnel to perform their task.
- Keep stock of food which requires little cooking and refrigeration as electric power might be interrupted.
- Keep a transistorized radio and flashlight with spare batteries, emergency cooking equipment, candles, matches and first aid kit handy in case of emergency.

During the Flood

Be alert to the possibility of flood, if it has been raining for several days. Flood happens as the ground becomes saturated.

- Listen to your radio emergency instructions.
- When evacuating, remind your guests not to panic while they proceed to the evacuation area (higher floors, rooftops, or if there is no room for other guests, they can go to designated schools, gyms or halls which are far from rivers, safe from landslides.
- Store drinking water in containers, water service may be interrupted.
- Turn off electricity at the main switch in the building when evacuating.
- Have a few filled sandbags ready to prepare to block doorways like entrances and exits.
- Flood preparedness and response personnel should remain on site.
- Implement the flood preparedness plan.
- Coordinate to external emergency response resources like DRRMO, local and state police, Communication Center, etc.
- Secure the guest safety and on time (pre-emptive or mandatory evacuation). For vulnerable guests (i.e. PWD's senior citizen, children, etc.) they must be given more attention and concern.
- Reserve or make available the highest floor or rooftop of the hotel as a communication center with computers and phones and stock plenty of flashlights and batteries, if electricity goes out. Similarly, a generator should always be available for source of temporary power.
- Involve the hotel's public relations staff on site to communicate with the media.

After the Flood

After emergency officials have given permission to re-enter the hotel:

- Secure the site and survey the damage.
- Evaluate and address all safety hazards (i.e. live wires, leaking gas, flammable liquids, etc.).
- Remove standing flood water.
- Activate fire protection system after inspecting components and contacting the fire department for instructions.
- Inspect bus bars, conductors, and insulators before starting system. Re-energize system after it has been inspected by an electrician. It should be assumed that any intrusion of water to electrical equipment may have caused serious damage.
- After site is deemed "safe", call in key personnel, contractors, and consultants to begin repairs.
- Contact utility companies for information relative to your access to gas and electrical services.
- Take steps to perform temporary repairs (i.e. roofs, clean drains, windows, separate damaged goods from undamaged goods, etc.) to mitigate your damage.
- Start salvage and cleaning operations immediately.
- Re-start operation if possible.
- Document your damages with photos, etc.
- Contact your risk manager, broker and/or insurance company if you have sustained damage.

Briefing/Training/Exercising

- All employees (and guests) should be aware of this FPRP. The flood preparedness and response should be briefed and trained accordingly. Exercising of this plan is essential.

Document Control

- The FPRP should be owned, maintained, and updated. All users should be reminded periodically (ideally, every three months) to provide details of any changes that may materially affect the plan in any way.
- Details of changes should be recorded; documentation should be updated. This should be completed either through a re-issue of the plan or via an amendments record.
- The FPRP should be reviewed at least every three years or earlier than this if required and necessary, such as, following major changes of personnel or policy, or following any change to the flood risk or warning process.
- Documentation control procedures should be in place to ensure that only the current version of the plan is in circulation.

Flood Warning Codes

What do the flood warning codes mean? What possible action can be taken?

As shown in the table below, there are three codes that are used for flood warnings and they can be issued in any order.

Warning	Message	Timing	Action
 FLOOD ALERT	Flooding is possible. Be prepared.	2 hours to 2 days in advance of flooding.	• Be prepared to act on your flood plan. • Prepare a flood kit of essential items. • Monitor local water levels and the flood forecast on your area.
	Flooding is expected. Immediate action required.	Half an hour to 1 day in advance of flooding.	• Move guests and valuables to a safe place. • Turn off gas, electricity and water supplies if safe to do so. • Put flood protection equipment in place.
	Severe flooding. Danger to life.	When flooding poses a significant threat to life and different actions are required.	• Stay in a safe place with a means of escape. • Be ready should you need to evacuate from the hotel. • Cooperate with the emergency services. • Call DRRMO if you are in immediate danger.
Warnings no longer in force	No further flooding is currently expected for your area.	Issued when a flood warning is no longer in force.	• Be careful. Flood water may still be around for several days. • If the hotel been flooded, ring your insurance company as soon as possible.

Findings

1. The five hotels understudy had 11 varied room category or room type. That is, from single to double rooms, down to twin bed and king bed rooms.

2. The hotel's start-up capital was below Php500, 000 specifically for Hotel A, but Php750, 000 above for Hotels B, C, D, and E. The oldest hotel to start its operation in 1969 was Hotel E; the most recent hotel to start its operation in 2007 was Hotel B.

3. In the last five years, there were six disasters experienced by the hotels. Ranked first was flood, next was power outage, and ranked third were vandalism, earthquake, and bombing. The last was theft/robbery.

4. The existing preventive and preparedness activities the hotels had, specifically on fire and earthquake but not on flood, were seminars, trainings, drills, and strategic planning. These activities were given to their staff either every three months, every six months, or every year as the case may be.

5. In case of flood, however, the hotels would deliver their guest using either a van or a dump truck to a school, a gym, a barangay hall, a church, or even in the city hall. One hotel, Hotel A, would simply send their guest at the second floor of the hotel building which had a wide and spacious lobby. High-rise hotels, like Hotels D and E, send their guests to higher floors or to the rooftop.

6. As to the devices and equipment used by the hotels to prevent, respond, and recover from fire, earthquake, or flood they had fire exits, fire alarms, CCTVs, generators, emergency lights, fire extinguisher, and emergency plan. They, however, did not have devices and equipment to be used to recover from flood. They disclosed that after the flood, they would simply clean their hotels, take picture of what were damaged and report this to insurance companies and some concerned agency.

7. It was found that there is no significant difference among inns/hotels in terms of the preventive and preparedness activities as evaluated by the managers and the hotel's staff.

8. On the other hand, it was found that there was a significant difference among the inns/hotels in terms of devices and equipment used to prevent, respond, and recover from fire, earthquake, or flood when these were evaluated by the guests.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Hotels had varied types or categories of rooms to cater to different types of customers from all walks of life.

2. The hotels under study did not only experience flood which they considered as their number one worry or problem. They also experienced power outage, earthquake, bombing. They never had experienced fire. They had no prevention, preparedness, and response devices and equipment exclusively for flood.

3. Hotels had different frequency (every three months, six months, yearly) when to have preventive and preparedness activities like seminars, trainings, and drills because these activities entail a lot of preparations and involve a big sum of money. These seminars and

trainings, however, were only on fire and earthquake. They never had one for flood specifically.

4. In case of flood, they would right away send their guests to the higher floors and rooftops of the hotel buildings. Apart from this, they used a van or dump truck to deliver their guests to a school, gym, barangay hall, church, city hall.

5. All the hotels did not have any device or equipment to be used to prepare themselves from flood, like life jackets, life buoy, rubber boats, sandbags. They, however, had basic devices to respond to flood like emergency lights, CCTVs, fire alarms and exits.

6. Although the hotels under study already had seminars and trainings, but these were more on fire and earthquake. Thus, they wanedt to have the same that would tackle specifically on water search and rescue, first aid and basic life support, basic ropemanship and rappelling.

7. Finally, with regards to responding to flood, the hotels did not have any rubber boats and life jackets, which are very important gadgets for flood.

Recommendations

With the hope to secure always the safety of the hotel guests, since they are the most important stakeholders of a hotel industry, the hotels should be safe and flood-free all the time. Thus, in the light of the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are offered:

1. Hotel owners should add some floors to their hotels to send their guest to a higher portion safe from flood.

2. Aside from the higher floors and rooftops of their buildings, hotel owners should have their own exclusive place where to deliver their guests in case of flood. They should not only depend on public or government's facilities like schools, gyms, barangay and city halls, or even church because there are other flood victims (the local evacuees) who would be using these. Those residents who are displaced because of flood would be sent to these public establishments.

3. High-rise hotels should provide functional generators so that in case of power outage, they can still continue with their business and, in case of flood, they can direct their guests to safety.

4. They should have regular maintenance of the building and the drainage. As it has been observed poor drainage is one of the main causes of flood.

5. Preventive and preparedness activities on flood prevention and preparedness like seminars, trainings, and drills should be done more often, not semi-annually or annually.

6. The hotels should have devices and equipment for flood recovery so that they could go back to business as soon as possible and would not suffer a great loss.

7. The hotels could work hand in hand with DRMM and the city government with regards to preventive, responsive, and recovery activities and projects on flood.

8. Old hotels in Iligan should initiate some retrofitting to make the buildings safe, and their guests secured.

9. Iligan hotel owners should procure devices and equipment against flood such as, dinghy boats/rubber boats, flood detection device, flood pumper, movable flood walls so that they are always prepared and can respond to an incoming flood.

10. A prepared checklist and guidelines for flood preparedness and response (FPRP) are recommended for the hotels to have one of their own.

11. Aside from flood preparedness, other issues regarding hotel industry are recommended for further studies. These could be on terrorism, fire and earthquake preparedness, and hotel insurances.

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Apf1656 Medical Tourism in the Philippines: Status and Prospects

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Abstract

This study was conducted to determine the current status and prospects of medical tourism in the Philippines amidst the competitive environment in the Asian region. The results of the study will be the basis for determining areas for improvement, if any, in promoting the country as a leading medical tourism destination.

Statistical findings show that the differences between and among the groups of participants on the potential of medical tourism in the Philippines in terms of medical institutions' facilities and amenities is not significant. However, statistics show that it is highly significant in terms of airports' and seaports' facilities and amenities, competencies of medical practitioners, accommodation and security services. Issues and concerns associated with medical tourism in the Philippines were identified and an action plan was formulated to address these issues and concerns.

Keywords: Competency, Healthcare, Medical tourism, Medical tourist, Tourism, Wellness tourism

Introduction

The Tourism Industry is considered as the world's fastest growing industry. According to the World Travel and Tourism Council, travel and tourism is expected to generate rising to approximately US$15 trillion supporting 297 million jobs over the next ten years.

One of the distinct areas in global tourism is the rise of medical tourism. The Greeks were credited for the birth of medical tourism since they were the first group of people to implement a health care system very much similar with the one being used today. The future of the medical tourism industry looks promising which is still considered as a young industry. With ensured quality care and the massive amounts of information available through the World Wide Web, healthcare consumers around the world have several to choose from in their quest for the best quality healthcare at the most reasonable price.

Connell (2006), define medical tourism as a popular mass culture "where people travel often-long distances to overseas destinations such as India, Thailand and/or Malaysia to obtain medical, dental and surgical care while simultaneously being holidaymakers, in a more conventional sense.

In the report "Medical Tourism: A Global Analysis" (2006) medical tourism is described as any form of travel from one's normal place of residence to a destination at which medical or surgical treatments is provided or performed. The travel undertaken must involve more than one night away from the country of residence.

The objective therefore of medical tourism is integrated into specially designed tour packages for patients. Medical tourism can be described as first world treatment at third world prices since common market of this form of tourism do come from the first world countries like

Europe, Japan, United States, and Canada while the procedure or treatment is being conducted or done in third world countries, majority coming from that of Asia such as India, Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, and the Philippines.

The medical tourism industry is being dominated by countries in Asia in terms of global revenues. Leading is India with an estimated growth of 30% each year. Connel (2006) stated that "India is capitalizing on its low costs and highly trained doctors to appeal to these medical tourists". As proof of this, India in 2004 had a total of 1.8 million inbound tourists accounted for $333 million in revenue. Aside from India, other medical tourism destinations in Asia include Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, South Korea, and the Philippines.

Most of the dominant medical tourism destinations in terms of global revenues reside in the Asian region. Other well-established medical tourism markets contributing to regional Asia's dominance are Thailand and South Korea, whose contributions are predicated to set the medical tourism industry past the US$4 billion mark by 2012 (Asia's Growth Industry, 2006). Being a market niche there are no problems as this is a relatively new area to be explored. While there are researches on other health related markets such as health and wellness tourism, spa and resort tourism and the likes, there is little academic research that has been done on this particular segment to actually explore its growth potential. Although, there were available literature about medical tourism in print and in the much sought world wide web discussing the growth of this form of tourism, the lack of comprehensive and widespread understanding of its status and prospects both necessitates and validates this study within the medical tourism market segment.

Literature Review

According to an article by the University of Delaware publication, UDaily:

> *"*The cost of surgery in India, Thailand or South Africa can be one-tenth of what it is in the United States or Western Europe, and sometimes even less. A heart-valve replacement that would cost $200,000 or more in the US, for example, goes for $10,000 in India--and that includes round-trip airfare and a brief vacation package. Similarly, a metal-free dental bridge worth $5,500 in the US costs $500 in India, a knee replacement in Thailand with six days of physical therapy costs about one-fifth of what it would in the States, and Lasik eye surgery worth $3,700 in the US is available in many other countries for only $730. Cosmetic surgery savings are even greater: A full facelift that would cost $20,000 in the US runs about $1,250 in South Africa."

Health Tourism

The World Health Organization (WHO) in 1948 gave the widely accepted definition of health which states that health is a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity. However, since the definition was very limited, WHO in 1984 amended the definition of health tourism as: *"*the extent to which an individual or a group is able to realize aspirations and satisfy needs, and to change or cope with the environment. Health is a resource for everyday life, not the objective of living; it is a positive concept, emphasizing social and personal resources as well as physical capabilities.*"*

Goodrich (1987) defined it as: *"*an attempt on the part of a tourist facility or destination to attract tourists by deliberately promoting its health-care services and facilities, in addition to its regular amenities.*"*

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) defined health tourism as: *"Tourism associated with travel to health spas or resort destinations where the primary purpose is to improve the traveler's physical well being through a regimen of physical exercise and therapy, dietary control, and medical services relevant to health maintenance."*

Considering the various definitions cited by different authors, we can now clearly state that health tourism is commonly associated with travel with the goal of seeking remedies from an illness or self-rejuvenation. Health tourism can further be classified into two (2): medical and wellness.

The Medical Tourism Industry

Medical tourism is a rapidly growing industry in the world. Although the term is sometimes use to refer to all travel for medical care, this phenomenon is very different from the traditional pattern of international medical travel where patients travel from less developed nations to major medical centers in highly developed countries for advance medical treatment. The evolution of medical tourism has transformed the unidirectional pipelines of patients travelling towards industrialized nations for healthcare into a complex network of two-way highways. The critical similarities and differences between the traditional international medical-care model and the medical tourism model occur in four basic spheres: the parties involved (patients, providers, and agents), the places (origin and destination), the reasons for travelling for healthcare, and the patient's access to resources. Three key similarities have been observed between the traditional form of international medical care and medical tourism namely: both models patients have illnesses, injuries or other circumstances for which they need or want medical evaluation and treatment; patients are willing and able to travel to get the care they need or desire; and patients are unable or unwilling to receive their care within their own country.

Many factors converge to determine a country's competitive position in the medical-tourism marketplace. These include the availability of certain clinical services, the quality of care delivered, the availability of physicians and ancillary staffs to communicate accurately in the language of their foreign clients, proximity to target patients, ease of travel between the two locations (the quality of airport and the local transportation), a developed physical infrastructure (including telecommunication system), political and legal institutions, the availability of suitable accommodations, and perhaps even easy access to desirable vacation resorts and tourist attractions.

Medical Tourism around the World

Growth in medical travel is in the hands of large multinational third-party insurers. These insurers, mainly from North America and Europe, are now looking at Asia, South America, and India as reasonable destinations for advanced medical care.

Mugomba (2007) cited as cited by Ramesh (2006) that in India the growth of Global Healthcare, according to officials, spurred by factors such as the emergence of medical tourism has led to the establishment of national hospital accreditations institutions in a move to speed up the process of accreditation and as a signal to the international community of the Indian drive to raise the service standards of over 20,000 hospitals.

According to Mugomba (2007) as cited by Datta (2005) the NHS – Apollo Group partnership provides an opportunity to leverage the brand of India as a medical tourism hub thus attracting more UK patients to India for more intensive medical procedures and the medical tourism product.

The main reasons for Thailand's success as cited by Nagarajan (2004) include inter-sectoral coordination as the Thai government realized early the need for coordination across various sectors to realize the industry's potential. Hence, it developed a common vision, strategic direction, and joint-strategy and shared objectives for various sectors in order to facilitate better coordination between the concerned players – the Ministries of health, tourism, foreign affairs and other bodies like Thai Airways Tourism Authority of Thailand. Nagarajan (2004) also cited effective marketing by the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) as another reason for the success of Thailand's medical tourism since TAT has played a stellar role in providing integrated marketing strategy for Thailand on an international scale.

Over the past few years, Korea has gained a reputable standing in medical care, offering abundant health products and services, particularly in the fields of cosmetic and plastic surgery. Because of the country's ability to offer beauty surgery techniques, it was dubbed as "Plastic Surgery Capital of Asia". It boasts excellence in cosmetic and plastic surgery, apart from a wealth of medical expertise ranging from stem cell research for treating cancer to organ transplant. Remarkable healthcare services include health screening, cosmetic and plastic surgery, dental care, ophthalmology, infertility treatment, otorhinolaryngology, and Korean traditional medicine. Associated with its effort in promoting Korea as a medical tourism destination are developing medical tour packages, promoting travel marketing to Korean residents abroad and offering foreign-language classes and interpretation related to medical services.

With 7,107 islands, hospitable and warm people, the Philippines can be regarded as a haven for both domestic and international tourism. Villegas (2001:214) stated that the benefits a booming tourism brings to the country's overall economic growth are obvious, since it encompasses other economic activities which include hotels, restaurants, transport, wholesale and retail trade, recreational and cultural services, financial services, and even private services. The Philippines is home to some of the world's best hospitals and it is being considered as one of the fastest growing medical tourism destination in the world. In the year 2000, the World Health Organization (WHO) ranks the country number 60 among the world's health systems. The US Medical Tourism Association magazine reported that this services sub-sector grew 8.0% in 2007. The Philippine Medical Tourism niches as cited by Pugao (2008) are medical, surgical, and other care, traditional and alternative healthcare, health and wellness, and retirement and long stay tourism.

Methodology

The participants of this study were composed of two groups of participants which were purposively chosen since they were in the best position to assess the medical tourism trend in the Philippines based on specific criteria. In this study, the researcher used purposive sampling in gathering participants. Purposive sampling targets a particular group of people. When the desired population for the study is rare or very difficult to locate and recruit for a study, purposive sampling may be the only option.

This study used the descriptive method of research and at the same time utilized exploratory research design that focuses in collecting secondary or primary data using informal procedures to interpret them.

Primary data consisted of a pointer driven questionnaire administered to a total of 50 participants and retrieved the entire distributed questionnaire with 100% retrieval rate. The researcher also conducted personal interview among the participants who participated in the conduct of the study.

As stated by Romero (2000) a descriptive research is also known as statistical research, describes data and characteristics about a population or phenomenon being studied. Moreover Ed (2004) added that descriptive research involves collecting numerical data to test hypothesis or answer questions concerning current status.

Another research methodology used for the purpose of this study was essentially an exploratory research, wherein the hospitals, the medical tourist, and patients were contacted for interviews and to answer researcher prepared instrument. Exploratory research design as a tool in research used the secondary data sources from the subject development stage to develop the research framework. Secondary data consisted of books and other sources of information. It must be understood that the industry is still in its infancy and hence no reliable data is available. Therefore the objective of the market description of medical tourism within this study are to analyze the status quo of medical tourism as a niche market, identify trends and anticipated changes, and to provide an understanding of the positioning of medical tourism to both the healthcare industry and wellness tourism. This method was used to develop academic credence to justify this research. The nature of this study is exploratory, thus the focus is to provide a description of what constitutes medical tourism.

Results

Mean Score Ratings of Participants in terms of Facilities and Amenities offered by Medical Institutions

INDICATORS	Tourist		Medical		Overall	
	WM	VI	WM	VI	WM	VI
1. Medical institutions should have:	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree	4.88	Strongly Agree
b. Laboratory	4.80	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.90	Strongly Agree
c. Pulmonary Section	4.73	Strongly Agree	4.35	Agree	4.54	Strongly Agree
d. Waiting Lounge	4.60	Strongly Agree	4.35	Agree	4.48	Agree
e. Rehabilitation Medicine Section	4.27	Agree	4.60	Strongly Agree	4.43	Agree
f. Electro Cardio Graph (ECG) machine	4.13	Agree	4.50	Strongly Agree	4.32	Agree
g. Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI)	4.47	Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree	4.61	Strongly Agree
h. Patient Rooms	4.77	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.88	Strongly Agree
i. X-ray machines	4.77	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.88	Strongly Agree
j. Operating Rooms	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.50	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree
k. Cafeteria	3.83	Agree	4.55	Strongly Agree	4.19	Agree
l. Dietary Section	4.90	Strongly Agree	4.35	Agree	4.63	Strongly Agree
m. Ultrasound	4.63	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree	4.69	Strongly Agree
n. Computed Tomography (CT Scan)	4.73	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree	4.74	Strongly Agree
Mean	4.62	Strongly Agree	4.66	Strongly Agree	4.64	Strongly Agree
2. Medical institutions must be accredited by international organizations	4.97	Strongly Agree	4.35	Agree	4.66	Strongly Agree
3. Medical institutions should offer a wide variety of	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
4. Medical institutions should offer medical procedure	4.67	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.83	Strongly Agree
5. Medical institutions should offer affordable packages to	4.50	Strongly Agree	4.55	Strongly Agree	4.53	Strongly Agree
6. Medical institutions should partner with travel companies in promoting the country as a medical	4.67	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree	4.71	Strongly Agree
Composite Mean	4.74	Strongly Agree	4.72	Strongly Agree	4.73	Strongly Agree

Mean Score Ratings of Participants in terms of Facilities and Amenities offered by Airports and Seaports

INDICATORS	Tourist/residents		Medical Practitioners		Overall	
	WM	VI	WM	VI	WM	VI
1. Airports/seaports should have:						
a. Appropriate Signage	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.55	Strongly Agree	4.78	Strongly Agree
b. Foreign Currency Exchange Center	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
c. Information Desk	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
d. Duty Free Shops and Retail Outlets	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.50	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree
e. Business Facilities	4.80	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.90	Strongly Agree
f. ATM machines	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
g. Disabled Facilities	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
h. Restaurants and Dining Outlets	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.55	Strongly Agree	4.78	Strongly Agree
i. Waiting Lounge	4.53	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree	4.64	Strongly Agree
Mean	4.93	Strongly Agree	4.82	Strongly Agree	4.87	Strongly Agree
2. The airports and seaports are accessible	4.80	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.90	Strongly Agree
3. Enough parking spaces are available	4.07	Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.53	Strongly Agree
Composite Mean	4.60	Strongly Agree	4.94	Strongly Agree	4.77	Strongly Agree

Mean Score Ratings of Participants in terms of Competencies of Medical Practitioners

INDICATORS	Tourist/residents		Medical Practitioners		Overall	
	WM	VI	WM	VI	WM	VI
1. Medical practitioners should be: a. Licensed	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
b. Received international trainings and seminars	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.60	Strongly Agree	4.80	Strongly Agree
c. Has testimonial from previous patients	4.53	Strongly Agree	4.00	Agree	4.27	Agree
d. Affiliated by international and national medical organizations	4.87	Strongly Agree	4.85	Strongly Agree	4.86	Strongly Agree
Composite Mean	4.85	Strongly Agree	4.61	Strongly Agree	4.73	Strongly Agree

Mean Score Ratings of Participants in terms of Types of Accommodation

INDICATORS	Tourist/residents		Medical Practitioners		Overall	
	WM	VI	WM	VI	WM	VI
1. There is a form or type of accommodation available: a. Hotel	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
b. Motels	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree
c. Country Inns	4.47	Agree	4.10	Agree	4.28	Agree
d. Apartels	4.73	Strongly Agree	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.87	Strongly Agree
e. Bed and Breakfast	2.47	Disagree	4.25	Agree	3.36	Moderatel y Agree
f. Hostels	4.47	Agree	4.55	Strongly Agree	4.51	Strongly Agree
Composite Mean	4.36	Agree	4.65	Strongly Agree	4.50	Strongly Agree

Mean Score Ratings of Participants in terms of Security Services

INDICATORS	Tourist/residents WM	Tourist/residents VI	Medical Practitioners WM	Medical Practitioners VI	Overall WM	Overall VI
1. The following services and amenities should be provided to guarantee the safety of tourists:						
a. Police outpost	4.47	Agree	4.40	Agree	4.43	Agree
b. Security guards	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.20	Agree	4.60	Strongly Agree
c. Emergency vehicle	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.70	Strongly Agree	4.85	Strongly Agree
d. CCTV	4.23	Agree	4.20	Agree	4.22	Agree
Composite Mean	4.68	Strongly Agree	4.38	Agree	4.53	Strongly Agree

Mean Score Ratings of Participants in terms of Medical Tourism Program

INDICATORS	Tourist/residents WM	Tourist/residents VI	Medical Practitioners WM	Medical Practitioners VI	Overall WM	Overall VI
Medical tourism program should focus on:						
a. Affordable health care	4.80	Strongly Agree	4.70	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree
b. Health and leisure	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.50	Strongly Agree	4.75	Strongly Agree
c. Safe and reliable medical procedure	5.00	Strongly Agree	4.90	Strongly Agree	4.95	Strongly Agree
d. Healthy vacation in the tropics	4.10	Agree	4.35	Agree	4.23	Agree
e. An island to rest the weary mind, body and soul	4.13	Agree	4.25	Agree	4.19	Agree
Composite Mean	4.61	Strongly Agree	4.54	Strongly Agree	4.57	Strongly Agree

Result of T-test on Medical Institutions' Facilities and Amenities

	Weighted Mean						
	Group 1	Group 2	t-value	t-tabular	Probability Value	Significance	Decision
Medical institutions	4.74	4.72	0.26	2.01	0.80	Not Significant	Accept

Result of T-test on Airports and Seaports' Facilities and Amenities

	Weighted Mean						
	Group 1	Group 2	t-value	t-tabular	Probability Value	Significance	Decision
Airports and seaports	4.60	4.94	-4.59	2.01	0.00	Highly Significant	Reject

Result of T-test on Competencies of Medical Practitioners

	Weighted Mean						
	Group 1	Group 2	t-value	t-tabular	Probability Value	Significance	Decision
Competencies of Medical Practitioners	4.85	4.61	3.10	2.01	0.00	Highly Significant	Reject

Result of T-test on Types of Accommodation

	Weighted Mean						
	Group 1	Group 2	t-value	t-tabular	Probability Value	Significance	Decision
Accommodation	4.36	4.65	-3.47	2.01	0.00	Highly Significant	Reject

Result of T-test on Security Services

	Weighted Mean						
	Group 1	Group 2	t-value	t-tabular	Probability Value	Significance	Decision
Security Services	4.68	4.38	2.55	2.01	0.01	Highly Significant	Reject

Discussion

The study revealed that in terms of facilities and amenities, the respondents strongly agree with a composite mean of 4.74 and 4.73 respectively that enhancement and upgrade should be a priority of medical institutions for it to have a competitive advantage over other countries offering the same procedure. Currently, there is a law that exempts paying taxes for the acquisition of medical related facilities which will make it a lot easier for medical institutions to purchase such. This is one way that the Philippine government is doing to encourage private health sectors to purchase the much needed facilities.

The airports and seaports play critical roles in a thriving global economy, hence, location is an important consideration. However, it cannot be denied that value-added services play an important role too. Wireless solutions help improve operational efficiency while delivering better information, leading to better decisions and better outcomes. Situational awareness ensures perimeter security and proper access control, providing a safe, secure environment
In terms of accommodation, the respondents strongly agree with a composite mean of 4.50 that the country offers different types of accommodation making it a lot easier for tourists to choose depending on their budget.

For security services, the respondents strongly agree with a composite mean of 4.53 that the country should strengthen its police visibility as well as provide ready to dispatch emergency vehicles.

As per competencies of medical practitioners, the respondents strongly agree with a composite mean of 4.73 that medical practitioners most specially doctors and nurses must be licensed and if possible should have their training and affiliation in an international organization. Testimonials can be an added factor.

Identified issues and concerns associated with medical tourism in the Philippines were as follows: corruption and current regulations impede foreign direct investment; the disparity between public and private health service that threatens the credibility of the medical tourism industry; the improvement in the business environment is largely anchored on the quality of the overall physical infrastructure; the high cost of travel to the Philippines; the reliance on Filipino diaspora market which may reduce attention in building competitiveness to other markets; the brain drain of Filipino medical practitioners and the restrictions on foreign doctors practicing in the Philippines that constrain the quality of healthcare services; the lack of established framework for dissatisfied customers who would like to seek recourse; and the peace and order situation of the country. For medical tourism to be fully promoted not just in the country but around the world, an action program that will concentrate in addressing issues and concerns in the country must be formulated. Embedded in the said action program should be answers that will guarantee the safety of medical tourists and at the same time providing reliable medical procedure. This can be achieved only if providers of services related with medical tourism are fully equipped with the necessary knowledge and trainings. The government should also do its part by supporting and strictly monitoring the implementation of the said action program.

In terms of exploring medical institutions in the Philippines, the researcher limited to the following medical institutions: The Makati Medical Center and St. Luke’s Medical Center, tertiary hospitals concentrating in the promotion of medical tourism in the Philippines.

There were also noted limitations on this study in terms of the quantity of non-academic and academic studies, literature and articles related to the subject area of medical tourism. Another noted limitation was the procedure used in determining the participants of the study which comprises of medical doctors, medical tourists both domestic and international.

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Apf1657 The Establishment of Green Service Delivery System for Travel Agencies

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Abstract

The tourism industry should provide services for the cognition of environmental impact and the environmental sustainable development of corporate responsibility based on tourism service industry for the importance of environment development, related issues has great research value. In this study, depth interviews, target six travel agency managers, professors and six former the travel agency has practical experience in Colleges and universities for interviews. The study expected results are as follows: (1) the existing service travel service delivery system, according to the connotation of planning services. (2) summarizes the latest green service travel service delivery system, to assist the travel industry can more clearly grasp the service flow through the interview process. (3) establish green travel agency service delivery service blueprint system, in order to provide managers grasp green service delivery system of the current reference tool.

Keywords: Travel agency, Service delivery system, Green management, Service blueprint

Apf1658 To Explore the Value of Consumers' Green Consumption in Green Tourism: A Means-End Chain Approach

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Abstract

The importance of tourism industry has always been known as the industry without a chimney, but tourism process need energy consumption is huge, inadvertently causing all kinds of pollution, a considerable impact on the environment. In the rise of consumer and environmental protection and green consumption consciousness, encourage enterprises to engage in the behavior of ecological and environmental protection, business failure to comply with the relevant provisions of the environmental protection and ecological, is bound to influence enterprise itself competitive in the industry. Therefore, the travel industry should recognize the products or services regarding the environmental impact and environmental sustainable development should be dedicated to promoting green tourism, is helpful to the development of green tourism industry.

Therefore, the goal of green tourism sustainable tourism practice must first understand consumer demand and value why. The study on the "means end chain theory based on the rolling snowball sampling method select 60 participants were interviewed, in-depth understanding of the consumption process in the green tourism, green tourism consumption value and cognition toward and content analysis to classify, and then draw hierarchical value map (HVM).

This study is expected to study results for (1) understand the essence and connotation of green tourism. (2) of consumers of green tourism products attribute selection, results of consumption and consumption value of the link relationship and induction consumers pay more attention to the green value elements. (3) using means end chain to deeply understand the consumers of green consumption value relevance and hierarchy in the link importance. Expect to find out what consumers regarding the hearts of green tourism ideas and value demand and provide to the travel industry as a reference, to meet consumer demand for green products or services.

Keywords: means-end chain, green tourism, green consumption, consumption value

Apf1659 The Relationships among Destination Image, Place Attachment and Satisfaction in Taiwan's Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area: Chinese Tourists Perception

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to reexamine the conceptual model of destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction of the Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area in Taiwan by sampling Chinese tourists. This study intended to echo the same conceptual model Wu and Wu (2009) did with Taiwanese samples. A total 353 valid questionnaires were collected through face-to-face survey after Chinese tourists visiting Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area. Structural Equation Modeling was used to determine the relationships among the variables and the mediating effects. Results showed that Chinese tourists' destination image positively and significantly affected place attachment; their destination image and place attachment positively and significantly affected satisfaction as well. In the mean time, place attachment was found to exert a significant effect in mediating the relationship between destination image and satisfaction. This research further indicated that the path analysis of Chinese tourists' model showed the direct effect of destination image on satisfaction was higher than the Taiwanese one. On the other hand, Taiwanese tourists' model showed that the direct effect of place attachment to satisfaction was higher than Chinese tourists' one. Based on the above findings, some practical implications are provided to the management agency, and the directions for future researches are also discussed.

Keywords: Destination Image, Place Attachment, Satisfaction, Sun Moon Lake, Mediating Effect, Taiwan, Chinese Tourist

Introduction

Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area is a famous tourists' destination in Taiwan and attracts over seven million visitors annually. According to "2014 Annual Survey Report on Visitors Expenditure and Trends in Taiwan," released by Tourism Bureau, Republic of China (Taiwan), the favorite scenic spot for the inbound visitors was "Sun Moon Lake" (26.28%), followed by "Jioufen", "Kenting National Park", "Taroko, Tienhsiang" and "Alishan" (all over 22%). After 2008, allowing mainland tourists to visit Taiwan, Sun Moon Lake has became one of the ten destinations where every Chinese tourists must visit in Taiwan, attracting over four million visitors from mainland China in 2015.

In terms of tourism attractions, Visitors' willingness to revisit plays an important role in sustainable tourism development. Tourist satisfaction and place attachment are the critcial factors which determine visitors' return (Hwang, Lee, & Chen, 2005; Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F., & Bilim, 2010). Furthermore, visitors' positive image of a particular destination will enhance their place attachment (Chiang, 2016; Lee, 2001; Veasna, Wu, & Huang, 2013). Destination image is also the key element of decision making which influence visitors' satisfaction and willingness to revisit (Lucio, Maria, Miguel, & Javier, 2006; Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001).

Wu and Wu (2009) took 352 Taiwanese visitors as samples to explore the relationships among destination image, place attachment and satisfaction of the Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area. The results revealed that destination image and place attachment were the antecedents, which positively and significantly affected tourist satisfaction. A higher level of tourists' destination image in regard to Sun Moon Lake is associated with stronger place attachment; place attachment was found to exert a significant effect in mediating the relationship between destination image and satisfaction.

The purpose of this research was to reexamine the conceptual model of destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction of the Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area in Taiwan by sampling Chinese tourists. This study intended to echo the same conceptual model Wu and Wu (2009) did for Taiwanese samples with a minor modification. The specific objectives were as follows: 1. to understand the current status of destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction perceived by Chinese tourists; 2. to validate the structural relationships among destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction; 3. to compare the differences with the conceptual model between Chinese tourists and Taiwanese tourists.

Background Literature

(I) Destination image

Image is a portrayal of the visitor's attitude towards a number of cues related to the destination attributes (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). Authors define the image as the sum of all beliefs, ideas and impressions which people associate with a destination (Crompton, 1979; Hunt, 1975; Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993). The overall image of destination is a combination of affective image and cognitive image, and its consumption would be influenced by location difference and environment properties (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004). In addition, authors divided the tourist destination image into three types, which are organic image, induced image and complex image (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Gunn, 1972).

(II) Place attachment

"Sense of place" is a concept of the person–place relationship that can provide information regarding visitors and their connection to particular public lands (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000). Place attachment has been described as "the emotional link formed by an individual to a physical site that has been given meaning through interaction" (Milligan 1998:2). It is generally measured by the two dimensions: place identity and place dependence. Place dependence is conceptualized as the opportunities a setting provides for goal and activity needs (Stokols & Schumaker, 1981), and place identity refers to the symbolic meaning a particular place has to an individual (Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2003; Kyle et al., 2004; Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams & Vaske, 2003).

(III) Satisfaction

The most comprehensive definition of satisfaction has been defined as "person's feeling of pleasure or disappointment which resulted from comparing a product's perceived performance or outcome against his/ her expectations" (Kotler & Keller, 2006). Satisfaction is purely experiential, which is a psychological state that can only be derived from interaction with the destination (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Satisfaction normally divides into two categories, which are overall satisfaction and sub-satisfaction (Fornell, 1992), butbased upon the previous studies (Burns, Graefe, & Absher, 2003; Wu & Wu, 2009), this research divides satisfaction into four dimensions: facilities, service, information, and recreation experience, including overall satisfaction as well.

(IV) The relationships among destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction
The existing studies have indicated that image affects visitors' place attachment to a destination (Lee, 2001; Veasna, Wu, & Huang, 2013). Chiang (2016) pointed out that destination image has a significant direct effect on place dependence andplace identity.

A review of the consumer behavioral literature reveals that there are relationships among image, perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty. Much research has suggested that image has both direct and indirect effects (through value) on customer satisfaction (Bigne, Sanchez, & Sanchez, 2001; Chi & Qu, 2008; Lai, Griffin, & Babin, 2009). Furthermore, Lin, Chen, and Liu (2003) investigated the relationship between destination image and tourists' behavioral intention on Taiwan's Coastal Scenic Area, indicating images of natural sceneries and social cultural are the direct antecedent of holistic image and tourists' satisfaction.

Pan, Wu, and Chou (2008) found that the volunteers' activity involvement and place attachment positively and significantly influenced their satisfaction.

In the field of tourism research, destination image shows to have a positive influence on place attachment and satisfaction. Place attachment has a positive association on satisfaction. Similarly, place attachment has been shown to mediate the relationships between destination image and satisfaction (Wu & Wu, 2009). Based on the arguments above, the following paths will be tested in the present study.

There are four hypotheses below (Figure 1):
H_1: Destination image positively and significantly affected place attachment.
H_2: Destination image positively and significantly affected satisfaction.
H_3: Place attachment positively and significantly affected satisfaction.
H_4: Place attachment mediates the relationship between destination image and satisfaction.

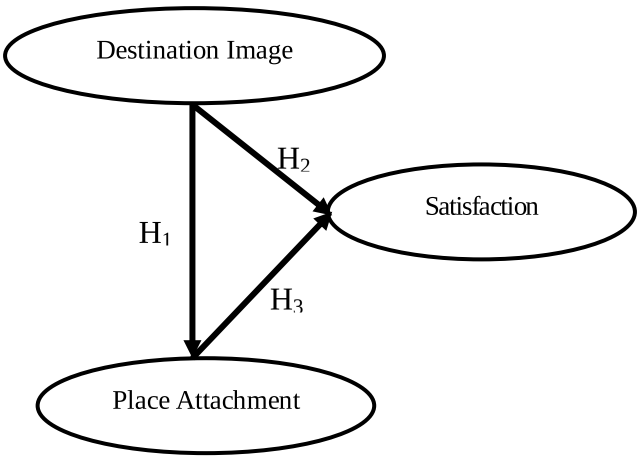

Figure 1. Conceptual framework

Methodology

(I) Measurement and operationalization of variables

This study surveys Chinese tourists and investigates the relationships among destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction; as well as compares the conceptual model with the one (Taiwanese tourists) conducted by Wu and Wu (2009). After modified the scale developed by Wu and Wu (2009), destination image was measured with three constructs, natural and cultural attributes, tourism resource, and infrastructure and environment. A two-dimensional scale, place dependence and place identity, is used to capture place attachment (Wu & Wu, 2009). Satisfaction scale involves four dimensions: facilities, service, information, and recreation experience (Wu & Wu, 2009). All items are measured on 5-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Finally, data reflected the respondents' socio-demographic and traveling characteristics.

(II) Questionnaire administration and sample

Convenience sampling was conducted to collect samples by the tour guides who accompanied Chinese tourist groups. The 500 questionnaires were delivered from July to December, 2015, and a total 353 valid questionnaires were collected through face-to-face survey after Chinese tourists visiting Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area. The rate of returned questionnaires was 70.6%.

(III) Data analysis

The collected data was analyzed by employing Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) 22.0, including descriptive analysis, reliability analysis, test of the significance of difference, and path analysis. Resulted from the reliability analysis, the Cronbach α value of destination image, place attachment and satisfaction reach to 0.952, 0.933, and 0.960, respectively, which show these scales were well reliable (Devellis, 2003).

In order to verify the structural relationships among destination image, place attachment and satisfaction, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were conducted to validate the research hypotheses.

Results and Discussion

(I) Respondents' socio-demographic

Among the collected questionnaire, the female accounts for 56.66% while the male accounts for 38.24%. When it comes to marital status, most of the respondents are married and have children. Aspect of age, most of them is 21-30 years (22.66%), 31-40 years (21.25%) and 41-50 years (20.68%). Most of the respondents are college (41.64%) in education background. Most of them work in the service industry (12.18%). Meanwhile, most of them have an income of RMB￥2001-3000 (20.11%).

The respondents were mostly female (56.66%), 21 to 40 years old (43.91%), and employees of the service industry (12.18%). Most were married with children and were university or college graduates (41.64%). Many respondents had monthly income: RMB￥2001-3000 (20.11%).

After executing t-test and one-way ANOVA, there were significant differences among Chinese tourists' socio-demographic characters in destination image, and satisfaction. Chinese tourists who first time visited Sun Moon Lake had better image and satisfaction than those visited the second time. In addition, tourists traveled with families and group had better destination image than those who traveled alone.

(II) Descriptive statistics of variables

This study used descriptive statistics to understand the current status of destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction perceived by Chinese tourists. In general, the Mean of dimensions are between 3.61 to 4.25, which means respondents' perception of destination image, place attachment and satisfaction are above medium level. In terms of destination image, tourism resources is highest (Mean=4.25) while infrastructure and environment is the lowest (Mean=3.87). On place attachment dimensions, place dependence (Mean=3.474) is higher than place identity (3.469). On satisfaction dimensions, service (Mean=3.91) is the highest dimension while recreation experience (Mean=3.65) is the lowest. Details in Table 1.

(III) Test hypotheses in the structural model

A confirmatory factor analysis procedure was performed to examine the validity and reliability of measurement indicators. Reliability was assessed by composite reliability (CR) and squared multiple correlations (SMC) of items within each construct (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998), and all the CR values and SMC values were acceptable. The items of each construct were in accordance with convergent validity and discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of variables

Variables	Dimensions	Mean	S D	Overall Mean
Destination Image	Natural and cultural	3.98	0.684	4.22
	Tourism resources	4.25	0.667	
	Infrastructure and environment	3.87	0.692	
Place Attachment	Place dependence	3.474	0.767	3.47
	Place identity	3.469	0.862	
Satisfaction	Facilities	3.90	0.717	4.05
	Service	3.91	0.727	
	Information	3.83	0.740	
	Recreation experience	3.65	0.789	

The overall fitness indices are adequate, indicating the final measurement model fits the data reasonably well. Destination image can be reflected by the three dimensions of destination image: "natural and cultural", "tourism resources", and "infrastructure and environment". There were two constructs to reflect place attachment: "place dependence" and "place identity". Satisfaction can be reflected by the four dimensions: "facilities", "service", "information", and "recreation experience" (figure 2).

After conducting the structural equation modeling, the overall fit of the modified model is good (GFI=0.93, AGFI=0.86, SRMR=0.048, NNFI= 0.96, CFI=0.98, PNFI=0.65, PGFI=0.49) (Hair et al., 1998). The structural equation model showed that Chinese tourists' destination image positively and significantly affected place attachment (γ_{11}=0.64; t=8.15), their destination image and place attachment positively and significantly affected satisfaction as well (γ_{21}=0.60, t=9.56). In the mean time, place attachment positively and significantly affected satisfaction (β_{21}=0.27, t=4.55).

(IV) Place attachment as a mediator

Destination image is an independent variable while satisfaction is a dependent variable in this study. Place attachment was found to exert a significant effect in mediating the relationship between destination image and satisfaction. Baron and Kenny (1986) indicated that mediating effect has to fulfill all the conditions as follows: 1. independent variable has to influence mediating variable; 2. independent variables has to influence dependent variable; 3. mediating variable has to influence dependent variable; 4. the regression coefficient of independent variable to dependent variable must lower than the regression coefficient of independent variable to predict dependent variable, or it's even not significant.

After conducting regression analysis, the first three conditions above were satisfied, and reached level of significance (Table 2). Moreover, if put destination image and place attachment in the same regression equation to test the influence to satisfaction, the regression coefficient of destination image to satisfaction reduced from 0.745 to 0.286, and the power of explanatory power increased from 0.555 to 0.611. That represented partial influence effect was replaced by place attachment, and the fourth condition satisfied. Therefore, place attachment was ensured playing a partial mediator between destination image and satisfaction.

Table 2. Mediating effect verification

Dependent variable	Independent variable	F (significance)	βeta	t-value (significance)	R^2
Place attachment	Destination Image	164.989*** (p= 0.000)	0.565	12.845*** (p= 0.000)	0.320
Satisfaction	Destination Image	438.265*** (p= 0.000)	0.745	20.935*** (p= 0.000)	0.555
Satisfaction	Place attachment	214.684*** (p= 0.000)	0.616	14.652*** (p= 0.000)	0.380
Satisfaction	Destination Image	274.866*** (p= 0.000)	0.583	14.432*** (p= 0.000)	0.611
	Place Attachment		0.286	7.080*** (p= 0.000)	

註：***p<0.001

(V) Comparing the conceptual model between Chinese tourists and Taiwanese tourists

This research also compared the same conceptual model conducted by Wu and Wu (2009) which investigated Taiwanese tourists (Figure 3). The current Chinese tourists model (Figure 2) revealed that the direct effect of destination image on satisfaction was significant at 0.60 ($p < 0.001$) while the Taiwanese model was 0.57 ($p < 0.001$). It seems that the direct effect of destination image on satisfaction in Chinese tourists' model was higher than the Taiwanese's.

On the other hand, Taiwanese model showed that the direct effect of place attachment on satisfaction was significant at 0.32 ($p < 0.001$) while the current Chinese model was 0.27 ($p < 0.001$). The result indicated that the direct effect of place attachment on satisfaction in Taiwanese tourists' model was higher than the Chinese one.

Discussion

This research examined the relationships among destination image, place attachment and satisfaction in one of the Taiwan's most popular destination, Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area. Results show that the higher the tourists' perception of destination image, the higher was place attachment. Thus, destinations that possess the natural and cultural attributes can elicit tourists' place attachment. Results correspond to those of Veasna, Wu, & Huang (2013) and Chiang (2016), and support destination image's role as an antecedent variable in predicting place attachment. Therefore, destination image can be considered a strong and effective predictor of place attachment.

Chi and Qu (2008) and Lai, Griffin, and Babin (2009) indicate that a positive relationship exists between destination image and satisfaction. These observations are supported by our study, confirming that the higher the tourists' perceptions of destination image, the greater the likelihood that tourists' satisfaction will prevail. The administrators of Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area could enhance destination image through careful marketing strategies based on this finding.

The results of this study mirror those of Pan, Wu, and Chou (2008), who offered evidence that place attachment would lead to satisfaction, as did the previous study (e.g. Wu & Wu, 2009). In other words, tourists with higher attachment to Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area would tend to exhibit tourists' satisfaction.

In the current study, "the natural and cultural attributes" of destination image is the major source of influence, while the Taiwanese one was "tourism resource" indicating Chinese tourists came to Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area due to its natural and cultural attributes, but for Tainese tourists, tourism resource is what matters most; place attachment is particularly reflected in place identity for both Chinese and Taiwanese tourists, however, the Chinese model (0.74) has a stronger reflection than the Taiwanese one (0.57), indicating Chinese tourists have strong identity emotions toward Sun Moon Lake than the Taiwanese; and finally, service is the major source of influence for satisfaction in these two population.

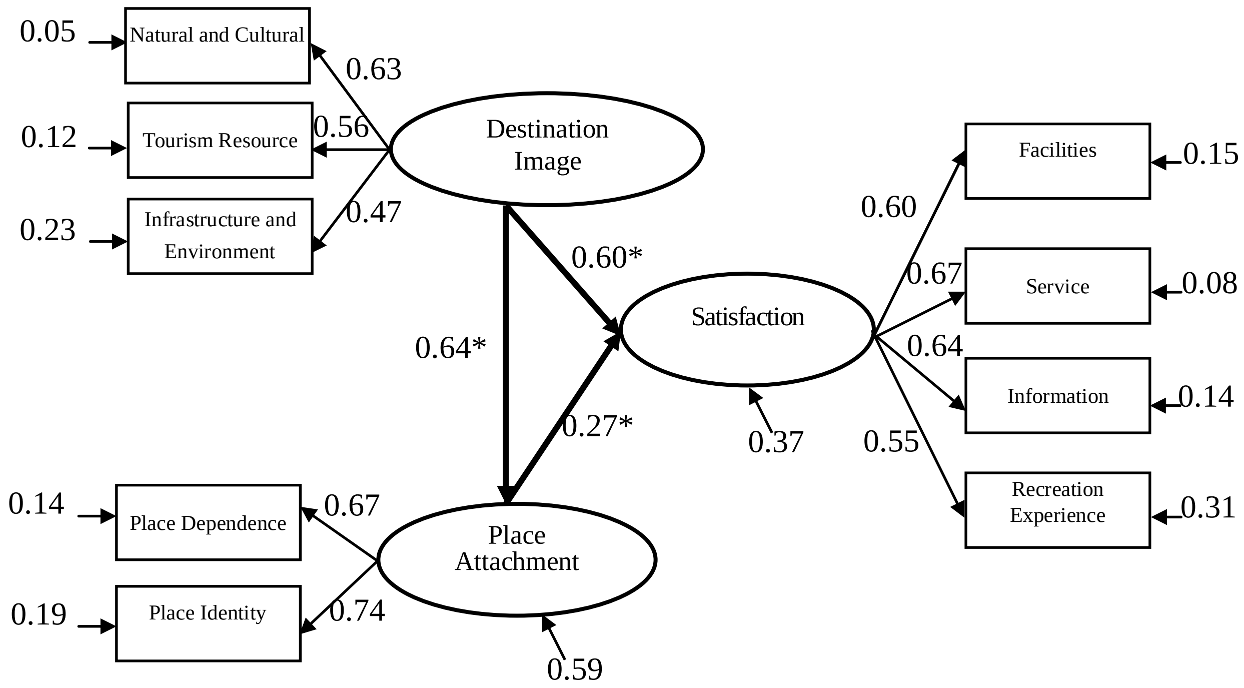

Figure 2. The path diagram of Chinese tourists' destination image, place attachment and satisfaction model (this study)

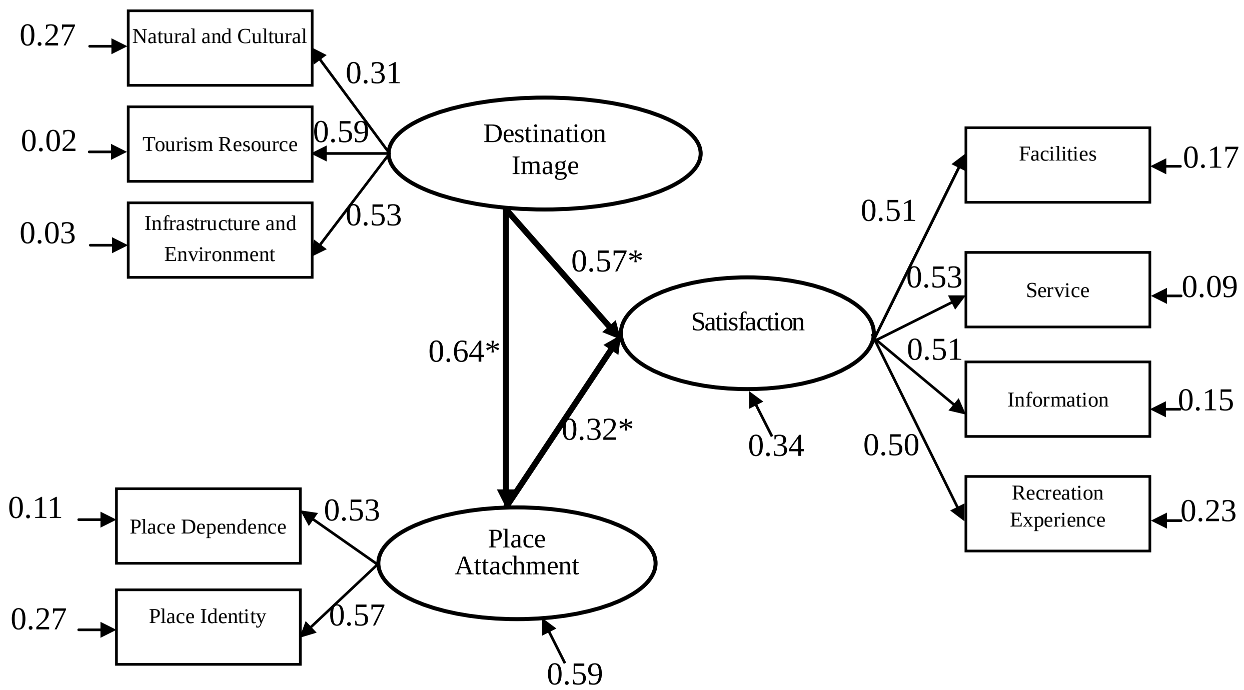

Figure 3. The path diagram of Taiwanese tourists' destination image, place attachment and satisfaction model (Wu & Wu, 2009)

Conclusion

(I) Theoretical implications and contributions

Chinese tourists' overall destination image of Sun Moon Lake was very good. They thought Sun Moon Lake as the destination with beautiful landscape, climatic comfort and quality lakeside. The place attachment perceived by Chinese tourists was medium; place identity was higher than place dependence. Overall, Chinese tourists' satisfaction in Sun Moon Lake was pretty good. They were satisfied with the service personnel and safety measures.

Results correspond to previous researches (Bigne, et al., 2001; Chi & Qu, 2008; Chiang, 2016, Lai, et al., 2009; Lee, 2001;Lin, et al., 2003; Pan, et al., 2008; Veasna et al., 2013; Wu & Wu, 2009), and support destination image's role as an antecedent variable in predicting place attachment and satisfaction. Therefore, destination image can be considered a strong and effective predictor of place attachment and satisfaction. In other words, the higher the tourists' destination image, the higher their place attachment and satisfaction will be. In the mean time, place attachment was found to exert a significant effect in mediating the relationship between destination image and satisfaction. The findings are consistent with the results Wu and Wu (2009) did.

Mainland China and Taiwan has been separated for decades, all the Chinese tourists known Taiwan's Sun Moon Lake since their childhoods, but they cannot come for a visit due to political dispute. Nowadays, the tension between China and Taiwan is decreased and improved, this study demonstrated that many Chinese tourists were highly attached to Taiwan's Sun Moon Lake, perceived it with high level destination image, and satisfied with their trips over there.

(II) Managerial implications and contributions

Comparing the Chinese tourists' model with the Taiwanese one, results sowed the construct of natural and cultural attributes most reflects destination image. To enhance Chinese tourists' image and willing to revisit, the management agency of Sun Moon Lake National Scenic Area needs to plan more deep cultural activities. For instance, to provide interpretation of lake landscape, eco-environment and aboriginal culture through half-day or one-day itinerary. On the other hand, execute a policy of separately quantitative management not only Chinese visitors but also Taiwanese visitors to reduce the tourism impacts and the resources can be conserved sustainably.

The results show that place identity reflects place attachment more than place dependence. From political point of view, Chinese tourists' identity of Sun Moon Lake is very high, which explains that mainland residents think Taiwan as part of China. Sun Moon Lake was described as "the biggest lake in Taiwan of our province, located on the mountains near Taichung, and it is surrounded by mountains, filled with trees and scenic." in mainland China's elementary textbook. China and Taiwan has been separated over six decades, tourists cannot come to Taiwan due to political dispute. After 2008, allowing mainland tourists to visit Taiwan, and permit independent travel on June, 2011, they can finally experience the beauty of Sun Moon Lake.

(III)Limitations and future study suggestions

One research limitation should be addressed. The predominant samples of Chinese tourists to Taiwan are in Group Package Tours. To address this limitation, future studies could examine Chinese independent tourists to Taiwan to determine whether there are differences given the different travel modes.

From political and cultural perspectives, tourists from cross-straits might perceive destination image, place attachment, and satisfaction differently. Methods of data collection in qualitative research, such as in-depth interviews and focus groups can be conducted in the future to verify and validate the quantitative results.

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Apf1661 The Evaluation Model for the Market Development of Wellness Tourism in Taiwan: Application of Analytic Hierarchy Process Method

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Abstract

With the transformation of life style and health awareness, people start to care about their health. They are eager to maintain their healthy habits when they travel, which contributes to the development of wellness tourism. Related researches show that wellness tourism can bring profits and stimulate the growth of economy in the world. The purposes of this study are mainly to find out the critical indicators influencing the development of wellness tourism in Taiwan, and to map the direction toward the future development of Taiwan's wellness tourism market. This study takes advantage of the analytical hierarchy process (AHP) as a method to analyze the related factors. Besides, a total of 20 surveys are being conducted, and all the data are collected from hotel managers all around Taiwan.

Keywords: Wellness Tourism, Market Development, Evaluation Model, Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP)

Introduction

Tourism industry has become the most representative social and economic indicators in many countries and provides at least one hundred million job opportunities all over the world (SRI International, 2013). With the transformation of life style and health awareness, people start to care about their health. They are eager to maintain their healthy habits when they travel, which contributes to the development of wellness tourism. As a link to all kinds of specialized tourism, wellness tourism is a niche segment, which is not only involving different types of tourism activities, but stimulating economic growth. According to the report of Global Wellness Institute (2014), the global wellness economy is mainly composed of the following three parts: wellness tourism, spa tourism, and thermal/mineral springs. In 2013, the economy of wellness tourism had reached $494 billion, far higher than that of spa tourism ($94 billion) and thermal/mineral springs ($50 billion). Relevant research indicated that the spending on travel activities of wellness tourists is higher than that of normal tourists, regardless of international or domestic tourists. Moreover, the analysis of wellness tourism market shows that Taiwan has much room for growth, with the evidence of being in tenth place in the Asia Pacific region (Global Wellness Institute, 2014). This also indicates that the development of wellness tourism in Taiwan is on the stage of exploration, which may offer new opportunities and enhance the competitive advantages of Taiwan's tourism industry.

Objectives

The purposes of this study are to: (1) determine the critical indicators influencing the development of wellness tourism in Taiwan, (2) analyze the sequence and priority of the indicators, (3) establish an evaluation model for the market development from the industry experts, and (4) map the direction toward the future development of Taiwan's wellness tourism market.

Methodology

This study presents the analytical hierarchy process (AHP) as a potential decision making method. The AHP can be very useful in involving several decision-makers with different conflicting objectives to arrive at a consensus decision, and scores are given by experience of experts to represent judgmental objects. From viewpoints of many experts, the membership functions of judgment criteria for all sub-items will be built, and then the grade value by data of missile performance can be calculated. The details are as follows: firstly, in order to build up the hierarchical structure of evaluation criteria, the appropriateness of each competence indicator was developed through the review of the literature. Also, modified Delphi method was adopted to extract opinions of experts, scholars and government officers for ensuring the validity of each evaluation criteria. Secondly, the AHP questionnaire was completed based on the hierarchical structure, and it is mainly divided into four dimensions, including "The attractive power of resources," "The capabilities of management," "The capabilities of promotion," and "The potential of market development." Besides, each dimension is made up of 4 indicators, with a number of 16 dimensions in total. Thirdly, a total of 20 surveys are being conducted, and all the data are collected from hotel managers all around Taiwan. Finally, the AHP method will be employed to calculate the relative weight, and to determine the sequence of importance between all the indicators. The AHP implementation steps will be simplified by using the 'Expert Choice' professional software that is available and designed for implementing AHP.

Discussion & Significance

The study explores the key indicators for market development and giving the future direction of Taiwan's wellness tourism market from the viewpoints of domestic hotel managers, in order to make up for the limited research on wellness tourism in Taiwan. From a supply perspective, this study will not only exemplify the critical indicators of developing wellness tourism, but find out the effective product and service model. It may bring considerable revenue for the industry in addition to meeting the needs of customers. It is also anticipated that the model/the key indicators could be as the considerable and referent framework for the stakeholders such as hotel authorities, management and academics, and be served as a guide of market development for wellness tourism in Taiwan. The use of the AHP method is appropriate and plays a significant role in reducing the time taken to solve problems and improving the group decision making in digging out the key factors influencing the development of wellness tourism in Taiwan.

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Apf1663 Frequency of Use and Effectiveness of Teaching Methods in Tourism Education

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Extended Abstract

Tourism education plays a crucial role in improving knowledge and skills of students. This requires the use of diversified teaching methods (Deale, Nichols, & Jacques, 2009). Teaching and learning methods have been found by many researchers as important factors for the quality of students' learning (Nield, 2004), because proper methods can create a positive teaching and learning environment (Han, Ng, & Guo, 2015), stimulate students' motivation to learn (Bethell & Morgan, 2011), and improve students' final learning outcomes (Cho, Schmelzer, & McMahon, 2002). To date, much research focuses on the feasibility and applicability of some teaching methods in tourism and hospitality courses (Okumus & Wong, 2004). However, little research systematically summarized the teaching methods in this area, especially in a China context. Because of the influence of culture on teaching methods (Baron, 2004; Su, 2012), their application in China tourism education is worthy of investigation. Meanwhile, previous research tends to assess the effectiveness of teaching methods in a general way (Gilmore, 1992), little research specifically measures teaching effectiveness in tourism education. Thus, this study attempts to develop a scale of teaching effectiveness. Furthermore, not many researchers have paid attention to the relationships between teaching methods and learning effectiveness. This gap is also to be addressed in the current paper.

This research attempts to investigate the usage of teaching methods in tourism education, develop a measurement scale for teaching effectiveness, and examine the relationship between usage and effectiveness of teaching methods. Two studies were conducted. Study I was carried out in a hospitality management school in Hong Kong. A total of 189 students were asked to evaluate the frequency of use and effectiveness of 28 teaching methods, which were derived from a comprehensive review of the tourism and hospitality literature. A 5-point Likert Scale was used from "strongly agree" (=5) to "strongly disagree" (=1). Frequency-effectiveness matrix was drawn based on the data analysis and suggestions on the usage of teaching methods were given. Meanwhile, the means of teaching effectiveness of teaching methods across different groups (e.g., gender) were compared using t-tests or ANOVAs. Implications were derived accordingly.

Study II was conducted in a tourism school in Mainland China. Nine teaching methods that are commonly used in tourism education were drawn from previous research. The usage of these methods were also confirmed by 6 experienced lecturers in the tourism school. Of course, these 9 methods were included in the set of 28 methods in Study I. To measure students' perceived learning effectiveness, 12 items were adopted from previous studies. The 12 statements were then confirmed in in-depth interviews with 10 students and 4 lecturers. Based on this, a survey was conducted and students were asked to evaluate the frequency of use of the methods, from "always" (=5) to "never" (=1), and give their agreement to the learning effectiveness (from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"). Finally, 197

questionnaires were collected. Exploratory factor analysis was then performed with the data and two factors of learning effectiveness were identified, namely, “learning attitude and knowledge acquirement”, and “subject assessment”. In addition, group comparison was conducted and the results indicate that significant differences in means of learning effectiveness exist among the 4 “year of study” groups. Also, two multiple regression analyses were performed, with the two factors of learning effectiveness as the dependent variables and teaching methods as independent variables. The results show that 4 methods (e.g., quizzes) significantly influence “learning attitude and knowledge acquirement” and 3 methods (e.g., material reading) significantly affect the level of “subject assessment”.

As 9 teaching methods in Study I and Study II are the same for measuring frequency of use, t-test was used to compare the usage of these methods between Hong Kong lecturers and those in Mainland China. The usage frequency of 6 methods (e.g., case study) were found significantly different between the two groups. Of course, whether this is caused by cultural differences needs further investigation. The learning effectiveness cannot be compared statistically between the two studies, but findings of the two studies were reviewed. Tourism educators need to understand students’ perceptions of learning effectiveness and adopt effective methods accordingly. Implications were discussed for tourism education based on findings of the present research and future directions were also given.

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Apf1664 Finding the "Perfect" Training for Generation Y in Hospitality Industry: A Hong Kong Students' Perspective

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify some potential attributes of training and possibly the effective training methods for Generation Y (Gen Y)—the rising stars in the hospitality workforce and changes in human resource management paradigm that will be required to revise the training design to suit their special work-related characteristics, attitudes and behavior in order to motivate them to achieve the goals of the hospitality organization. Fiftyone students currently studying two-year higher diploma hospitality program in Hong Kong were invited to participate in the study. A qualitative methodology was employed and six individual focus groups pertaining to the participants' internship and part-time experience were arranged in order to determine their similar work-related characteristics and preferable training attributes and methods. We found that those participants share some similar characteristics at work and preferences in training (1) desire for freedom and fairness, (2) look for change and have a low tolerance for boredom, (3) prefer hands-on coaching and mentoring than technology-based training, (4) share a common poor time management characteristic, (5) not only focus on academic qualification but also work performance. The findings will significantly help hospitality employers especially the human resource practitioners preliminarily recognize the importance and benefits of training Gen Y employees in an easier and more effective way by understanding their characteristics at work.

Keywords: Generation Y, Human Resource, Training, Training Attributes, Training Methods, Workrelated Characteristics.

Introduction

Hong Kong has been ranked as one of the top traveling destinations in the World Tourism Organization's list since 2000 (Song, Wong, & Chon, 2003). The hospitality and tourism industry became one of greatest growing economic sectors in Hong Kong (Song et al., 2003). Due to the people business in nature, the hospitality industry is chronically lacking in quality labor and suffering from labor shortage (Bonn & Forbringer, 1992; Solnet & Hood, 2008). Therefore, it lies at the heart of training in order to overcome these problems. At the same time, training workforce has progressively become more diverse in gender, race, culture and generation—the entry of Generation Y (Gen Y) into the latest employment, accounting for over ten per cent of the global employment and over five per cent of the city total population in Hong Kong (Cheng, 2008). With an exponential increasing demand, the training of Gen Y hospitality employees has posed a great challenge for human resource management practitioners because these newcomers are very much different from the previous generations (Baby Boomers or Generation X) in terms of their work-related characteristics, attitude and behavior (Baum, 2002; WTO, 2000).

Gen Y has been portrayed as a problematic group of employees in the workplace (Martin, 2005; Solnet & Hood, 2008). First, the hospitality industry is characterized by a high turnover rate since employees can easily find a similar job at another establishment. Gen Y employees are particularly fitting in this nature according to their common work-related characteristics—low responsibility, low toleration of boredom and a strong need for freedom. Moreover, they prefer to compare employers and employment conditions and constantly seek for a better job opportunity (Streeter, 2007). Secondly, Gen Y is poorly described as a group of demanding employees because they desire to be shown respect and given responsibility from the early stage during their employment but they are not willing to contribute for years to receive any significant rewards from their employers(Martin, 2005). In other words, they are impatient but they want their effort to be recognized immediately(Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008). Thirdly, Gen Y is also widely perceived to be the “rebellious" group at work because they don’t like to be told what to do(Solnet & Hood, 2008). Most of the Gen Y employees like to ask many questions and take challenges but they are less obedient to the management hierarchy(Martin, 2005).

Regardless of these misunderstandings, Gen Y employees can be changed from high maintenance employees to high productive employees. Once understanding their workrelated characteristics, human resource managers can do more in training design and customization to increase their productivity, morale and retention by giving them what they need to thrive and grow. For example, Gen Y employees are more comfortable in an informal setting than formal meetings. One-on-one mentoring would be beneficial by providing them with more efficient resources, tools and feedbacks they need to progress. Furthermore, giving Gen Y employees with immediate compliments and recognitions to their great performance, training can be tied with rewards and incentives in order to improve their personal accountability and ownership of the company. Some latest reports show that employers who value human capital and adopt effective training in pursuit of employee retention would outperform those who invest heavily in new product and services(Moncarz, Zhao, & Kay, 2009). Ideally, tenured workforce not only reduces recruiting and hiring costs associated with high turnover but also improves productivity with sustainable competitiveness and profitability in a long run (Moncarz et al., 2009). Therefore, the benefits of developing an effective and efficient training program for Gen Y employees are evident.

What is the "perfect" training for Gen Y in the hospitality industry? Generally speaking, training provided today by most of the hospitality organizations often come across some standardized hospitality training courses available for people who are waiting for jobs to become available in other labor markets, or are studying for a career in another industry (Finegold, Wagner & Mason, 2000). It is believed that there is relatively limited training customized to the preferences and needs of the Gen Y employees. Usually, in order to lower the training cost traditionally caused by the high turnover rate in the hospitality industry, the effectiveness of training fails to attract, motivate and retain Gen Y employees (Solnet & Hood, 2008). Honestly, developing an effective and efficient training program for Gen Y employees requires a thorough study about their needs and wants. Since early 20th century, scholarly research investigations have been focusing largely defining Gen Y as well as their attributes in the workplace. Interestingly, special training or attention needed to prepare Gen Y to work in the hospitality industry was barely mentioned. There are few related practical studies done to investigate the challenges and strategies of training Gen Y medical employees, business students, working nurses and accountants(Eckleberry-Hunt & Tucciarone, 2011; Kehrli & Sopp, 2006; Lower, 2008; Polimeni, Burke, & Benyaminy, 2009; Yeaton, 2008). However, there is yet any research given serious consideration to the specific human resource strategies and guidance needed to train Gen Y employees in the hospitality industry while the industry is constantly facing changing employee demographics, a shortage of skilful labor as well as a downgrade in service quality.

To address this gap in academic knowledge, it is a need in this paper to rigorously study and investigate the relationship between "the truth and the reality"—the existing proposed workrelated attributes of Gen Y and training methods recommended by a series of related studies and the opinion retrieved from the current Gen Y students, who participated in our focus groups and shared about their satisfaction and preference of training according to their previous hospitality work experience. The details of the measuring instruments and the data analysis pertaining to the focus group are given later in the paper. With the final findings, this paper could potentially shed new light on human resource management in hope to facilitate and foster the development of more suitable and better-designed training programs for Gen Y employees in the hospitality industry in the near future.

Literature Review

Definition of Generation Y

There are many definitions of Gen Y in the previous studies. According to Connor, Shaw, Shaw, and Fairhurst (2008), they described Gen Y are people who were born in a wide range of dates from 1977 to 2003. Other defined them who were born between 1980 and 1999(Madera, Kapoor, Kapoor, & Solomon, 2011). There are always many definitions over the actual age ranges of Gen Y, it is generally agreed to refer Gen Y to people who were born between 1979 and 1994 with a separation into two waves, while the first wave born between 1979 and 1985 and the second wave born after 1986 (Martin, 2005; Solnet & Hood, 2008). Sometimes, Generation Y has also been mixed-used or so-called the "Millennials", "The Net Generation", the "Echo-Boomers", the "iGeneration", the "Me Generation", the "Generation-D(digital)", the "Generation www", the "Generation E and so on (Feiertag & Berge, 2008, p. 457; Martin, 2005, p.40). Sometimes, Gen Y was proud to present themselves the "Wannabees", the "Feel-Good Generation", the "CyberKids", the "Do-or-Die Generation", and the "Searching-for-an-Identity Generation." (Martin, 2005, p.40). No matter what they were called or perceived, Gen Y people are believed to have grown up in a relatively affluent and prosperous economic environment with a low unemployment rate but a high information technology exchange(Solnet & Hood, 2008).

Characteristics of Generation Y at work

Compared with the previous generations—Generation X (Gen X) at work, Gen Y employees share a remarkable similarity—they embrace the use of technology in a seamless and effortless way (Connor et al., 2008). Gen Y is regarded as "the most technically literate, educated and ethnically diverse generation in history" (Eisner, 2005, p.6). One study shows that they react positively with e-learning (Allerton, 2001). Other studies describe them socially active, collaborative, team oriented, confident, independent and individualistic, selfreliant, entrepreneurial and they seem to value friends and family more over work (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007; Martin, 2005). Despite the fact that being independent is what they perceive themselves are but they are persistently seeking social support, approval and praise (Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007). At work, they would like feeling included and having their opinion listened to (Szamosi, 2006). Technically, they prefer to work with freedom and flexibility so that they like to accomplish their job tasks individually at their own pace (Martin, 2005). They are exceptionally good at multitasking and willing to take challenges by working under pressure (Freifield, 2007; Shih & Allen, 2007). However, they are weak at time management and micromanagement (Martin, 2005). Treuren and Anderson (2010) emphasized that Gen Y employees are constantly looking for professional growth with a desire to reconcile their various life interests through work-life balance. Sayers (2007) and Sheahan (2005) both suggested that Gen Y inclined to show a strong need for relevant, interactive, personalized and entertaining training which may imply a shift from higher level conceptual training courses towards an effective, practical, vocational and work based hands-on-training.

Moreover, Gen Y is usually perceived to be a group of demanding employees. Treuren and Anderson (2010) in their study particularly describe them: “they are ambitious, hardworking, transitional, savvy and reward driven. Basically, these workers want more and they want it faster. Gen Y expects perks like higher salaries, constant challenges and a changing and diverse workplace environment” (p.50). Martin (2005) confirmed with the above statement that Gen Y demand changes and they would seek out opportunities where they can learn new skills and gather helpful experience. Meanwhile, they have been wrongly labelled as "high maintenance employees” because they are not afraid of expressing their opinions and dare to challenge their bosses (Earle, 2003; Knight, 2000; Martin, 2005). The greatest problem Gen Y employees are having in the workplace is that they believe that they are not respected or appreciated due to their young age (Chen & Choi, 2008). In light of contribution, they are likely to put effort into something worthwhile, thus to wish to have their contribution recognized at the beginning (Solnet & Hood, 2008). Hence, they are always looking for instant rewards (Martin, 2005; Paul, 2001). They tend to question what kind of the value or reward they can obtain or learn today rather than tomorrow. Martin (2005) pointed out that organizations that do not offer personalized training, career paths and effective training measurement should pay more close attention to the needs of these Gen Y employees.

Development and Proposition of Training Attributes and Methods for Generation Y

There are few preliminary studies trying to identify some general work-related characteristics of Gen Y employees and offer their respective training solutions and strategies in different settings and scenarios. Most of them are not conducted in the hospitality sectors but Connor et al. (2008) took advantage on a McDonald’s case study done by Furnham (2006). The authors not only captured the work-related characteristics from the 100 Gen Y employees working in the company but also analyzed the findings according to the conversations with their parents, managers, co-workers, friends and teachers. The study suggested that a tailored training combined with the use of multimedia and technologies would be more effective than other training methods (Connor et al., 2008). Meanwhile, an early assignment of mentoring and coaching will be particularly helpful to create a sense of secure and social support for Gen Y employees (Connor et al., 2008). In addition, development of the Communities of Practice (COP): “groups of Millennials from across the organization meeting to share information with colleagues who have similar issues and challenges” would be suggested to handle and reinforce knowledge transfer and mentoring relationship (Connor et al., 2008, p.376). With an emphasis on Gen Y’s need for entertainment, use of technology, high flexibility as well as instant feedback, the customized training needs to take these characteristics into account in order to guarantee a positive training result and satisfactions (Connor et al., 2008).

Lower (2008) explores several work-related characteristics, core values, attitudes, strengths and weaknesses regarding Gen Y working nurses. The study reveals that the Gen Y nurses are confident, team-oriented and technology efficacy but they report obstacles in training with the healthcare facilities. The underlying training attributes of Gen Y nurses encourage human resource manager to provide orientations in advance to address the working issues to help cushion the shock and acclimatize them into the work culture (Lower, 2008). COP and mentorship are also mentioned in this study to enable Gen Y nurses to bond, share, and learn from each other (Lower, 2008). Furthermore, Gen Y sees themselves as idealists but they respond well to feedback and suggestion, supervisors should constantly review and discuss work performance with them on an ongoing basis (Lower, 2008). The study also points out that

Gen Y nurses are not attentive readers and thus constant sitting and reading are not recommended during the training (Lower, 2008). It also suggests that training should provide with some mini-breaks in every 15 minutes and have trainees doing something unexpected. (Lower, 2008).

Kehrli and Sopp (2006) made recommendations to the current strategies towards the training of Gen Y employees in business. Overall, the advices are respectively “No Formal Mentoring”, “Accept Technology" and "Give Them the Remote Control"(Kehrli & Sopp, 2006). First, the authors believed that a lot of mentors and managers didn't show a genuine and sincere attitude to help Gen Y employees to grow by refusing to answer questions and fulfilling their curiosity during the mentorship. If mentors or managers turned them down by saying" That's just how we do things around here" or "Are you challenging my authority?", they would quickly lose Gen Y’s respect and loyalty (Kehrli & Sopp, 2006, p114). It is suggested that mentoring should be a sincere and personal touch between the mentors and the employees with no suspicion or play the power game. Secondly, employers should embrace the advantages of technology to help Gen Y employees to understand job instruction or stay in communication at work to increase their accountability, for instance, sending emails to confirm their progress or double check their "to do" list in their smartphones. (Kehrli & Sopp, 2006). Finally, giving Gen Y the remote control on decisions such as training or developing options in a parameter would provide them with autonomy and empowerment (Kehrli & Sopp, 2006).

Yeaton (2008) has done a study towards recruiting and managing Gen Y accountant. The author suggested that this group of professionals owns a strong sense of morality and civicmindedness and they tend to be more ethnically diverse than the previous generations (Yeaton, 2008). However, some interesting findings such as viewing the computer as a part of life and internet presence for potential recruits as well as increase emphasis on website development and maintenance may be the reason to influence the Gen Y work-related characteristics (Yeaton, 2008). It is confirmed significantly that Connor et al. (2008) Kehrli and Sopp (2006) and Yeaton (2008) have numerously emphasize the importance of applying technology in the training for Gen Y. Also, Yeaton (2008) study claims that Gen Y needs explicit instructions to focus on only one task but they can actually handle simultaneous multiple tasks very well (Yeaton, 2008).

Different from the above authors, J. Eckleberry-Hunt and J. Tucciarone (2011) investigated in some relevant literature and they concluded that educating and training Gen Y medical students should concentrate on 4 major areas: “Interactive teaching with technology”, “professionalism”, “mentoring (or parenting)”, and “communication and feedback” (p.458461). This study verifies most of the findings above and reflects the core work-related characteristics of Gen Y. Their study suggested that teachers should not rely on lectures as a primary teaching method but incorporate multimedia with audience participation and case discussions (Jodie Eckleberry-Hunt & Jennifer Tucciarone, 2011). External rewards, immediate feedback, praise and forming mentoring relationship would be highly encouraged and trainer or managers should function as parents figure to help Gen Y grow in a secure and friendly environment (Jodie Eckleberry-Hunt & Jennifer Tucciarone, 2011).

Polimeni et al. (2009) study has brought the state-of-art to light in Gen Y training and recruiting. They have done a study similar to Yeaton's (2008) by looking for the Gen Y accountant's potential work-related attributes and they saw that Gen Y was somehow spoiled by their parents and they were focused on building their self-esteem rather than the importance of hard work and success(Polimeni et al., 2009). To suit the needs and wants of Gen Y, some accounting firms have started to incorporate simulations into their recruiting and training measurement (Polimeni et al., 2009). Using social networking site like Facebook would help trainers to spread their message to the Gen Y individuals (Polimeni et al., 2009). Moreover, the usage of computer simulations provides Gen Y accountant the opportunity to practice real-life tasks and skills in a safe, fully engaged learning environment compared with traditional instructor-led training (Polimeni et al., 2009). For example, KPMG, one of the largest accounting firm combined high technologies with hands-on experience fostered excitement in Gen Y professionals and keep them highly engaged in the training process (Polimeni et al., 2009). The ability of simulation to provide additional feedback after a user has attended training sessions, enhanced its effectiveness as a learning tool (Polimeni et al., 2009).

Having summarized the findings from the above studies, the potential work-related characteristics, training attributes and recommended training methods for Gen Y are refined and listed respectively below:

Gen Y Characteristics at work:

- *A strong sense of morality*
- *A strong need for freedom*
- *Being flexible*
- *Being autonomy & independent*
- *Being creative*
- *Being immediate*
- *Valuing intelligence and innovation*
- *Being social conscious*
- *Being multitasking*
- *A good team player and enjoying collaboration*
- *A low tolerance for boredom*
- *Looking for frequent feedback and suggestions*
- *A desire for reward or recognition at the*
- *Daring to express themselves*
- *Being not fixate on status and hierarchy*
- *Willingness to take challenges*
- *Taking opportunity to learn new skills*
- *Being goal and achievement oriented*
- *Conducting professional behavior at work*
- *Being curious and asking questions (Why am I doing this?)*
- *Being digital native & technology literate*
- *Using degree skill (skills that can be learned at school or through higher education)*
- *A need for variety in work*
- *Valuing Education*
- *A need for guidance and direction start*
- *A strong sense to be shown respect and praise*
- *A need for social interaction within the organization*
- *Preferring informal setting and communication*
- *Being less responsible for personal growth*
- *Being skeptical about corporate loyalty*
- *Looking for changes*
- *Poor micromanagement*
- *Poor time management*
- *Being impatient with a short attention span*

Gen Y Preferred Training Characteristics:

- *Provide immediate and summative feedback frequently*
- *Use praise and positive comments*
- *Give consistent message based on behavior result*
- *Allow them to practice on their own*
- *Welcome discussion and questions*
- *Give early assignment of mentoring and coaching*
- *Show steps by steps with face-to-face training to reinforce the result*
- *Encourage collaboration and innovative approaches*
- *Provide a sincere but informal mentorship*
- *Demonstrate Open Door Policy (Listen to their comment and suggestion)*
- *Show the company care for their personal value and development*
- *Schedule monthly mentoring with detailed guidance*

Recommended Training Methods for Gen Y:

- *Orientation: A training is usually organized at the start of a job (a group of people gathering for a specific purpose and it can be any forms).*
- *Mentoring: It can be Communities of Practices (COP), group discussions, workshops, Speeches or Seminars (one to one or one to many).*
- *E-Learning: It can be computer simulation or web-based online courses.*
- *Blended Training: It is a customization of training combined with the use of technologies and multimedia.*
- *Hands-on Coaching/On-the-Job training/Hands-on-the-job training (one to one or one to many)*
- *Training courses (traditional classroom-based lecture)*

Methodology

In order to identify the Gen Y's similar working characteristics and preferred training attributes and methods. The literature review was used as a basis to employ a qualitative methodology in six individual focus group interviews. The population under investigation consisted fifty-one interviewees who born in the early 1990s and currently studying in a twoyear higher diploma hospitality programme in Hong Kong. They participated in the focus groupspertaining to their internship and part-time experience. Data was collected on the students' perceptions on what they considered to be ideal trainings in hospitality. The interviews were conducted using informal discussion method with two structured open-ended questions: 1. what are the major characteristics of Gen Y at work? 2. what are the major characteristics of training method or content that Gen Y would seem to prefer, or trainer would anticipate a more effective result from Gen Y after the training? In order to improve the quality of the interviews, the interviewees were encouraged in good communication and provided a freedom in discussing to all respondents. All interviews were conducted refer to funnel questioning techniques (Chisnal, 1986): Step one –motivate interviewees that why we are asking the questions. Step two – open a neutral question to get non-specific and unbiased information. Step three – open a leading question to get specific and biased information. Step four – summary and gain commitment with closed questions. The discussion was started on the broadest possible level and then gradually narrowed down through progressively more restricted channels. All interviews were recorded for coding purpose.

Results

The production of quantitative frequencies from the original qualitative data was achieved by using Microsoft Excel after coding. The results were found and revolved around the following themes.

Figure 1. Gen Y Personality at Work

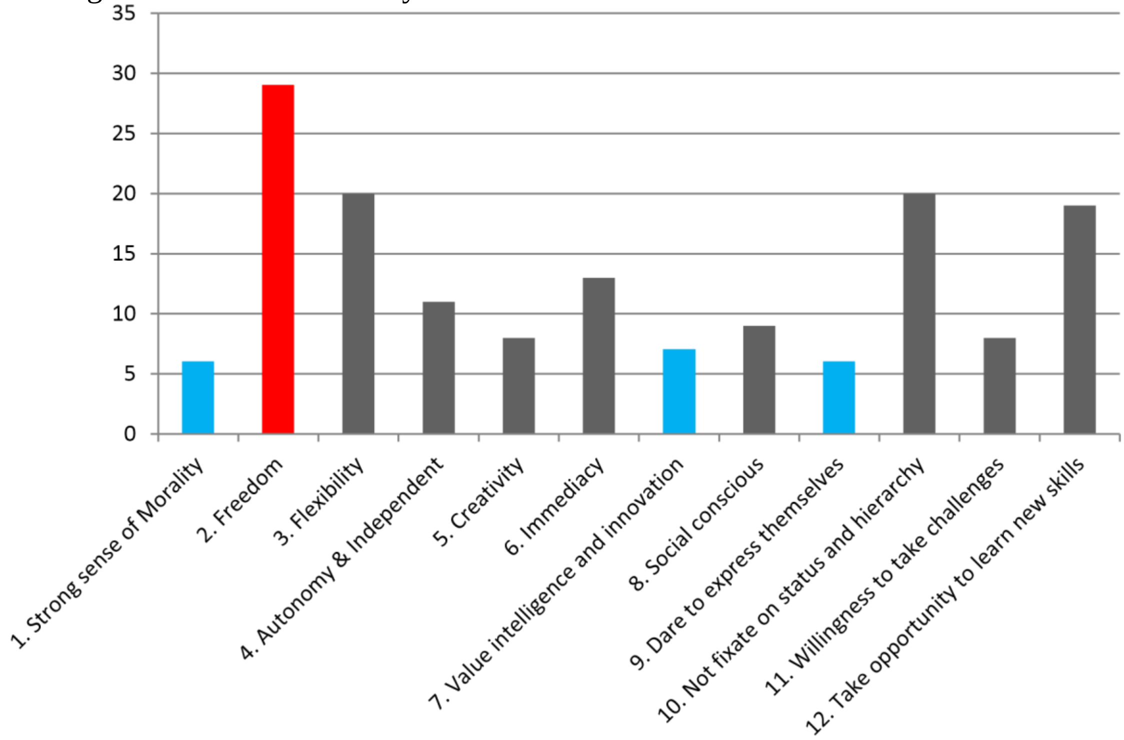


Figure 2. Gen Y Preferred Working Environment

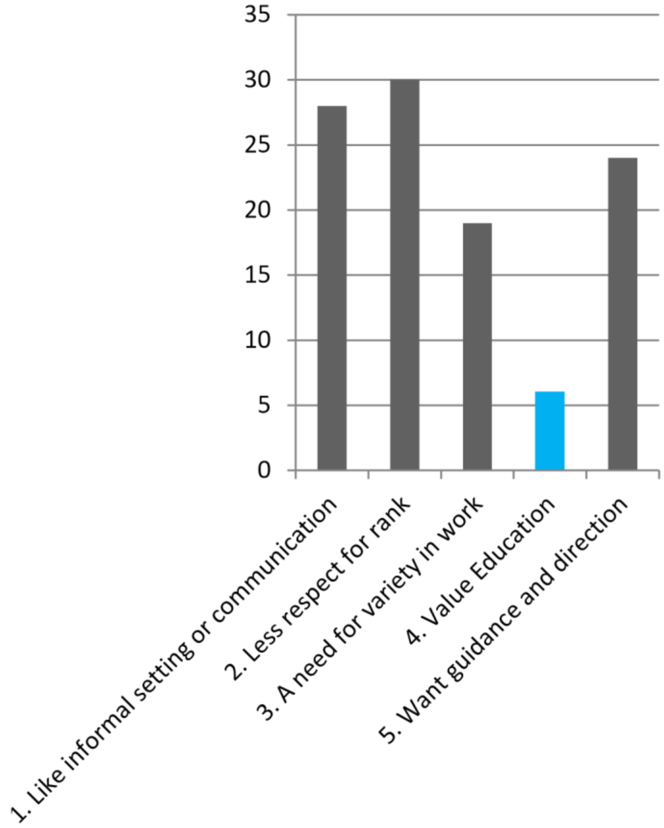


Figure 3. Negative Comment about Gen Y at Work

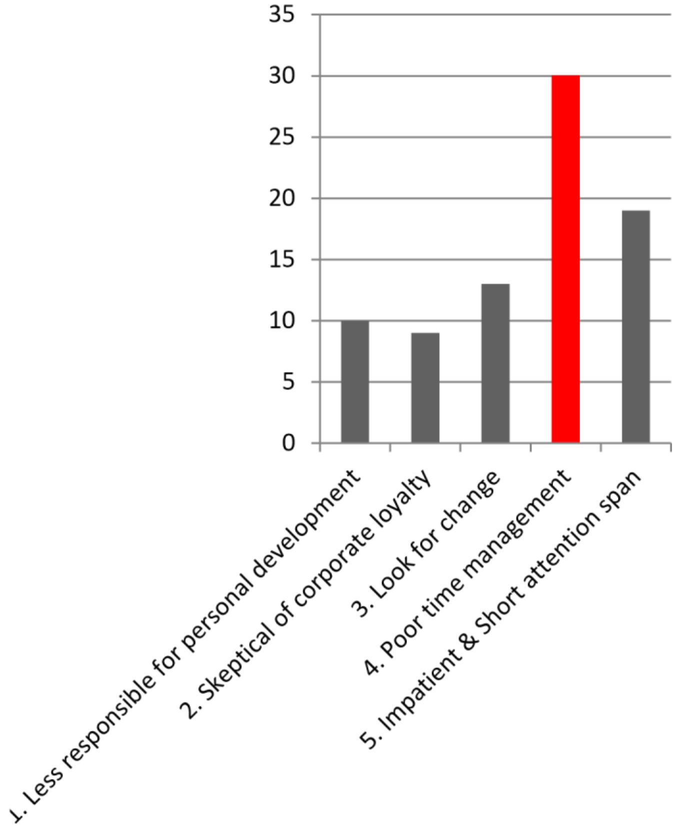
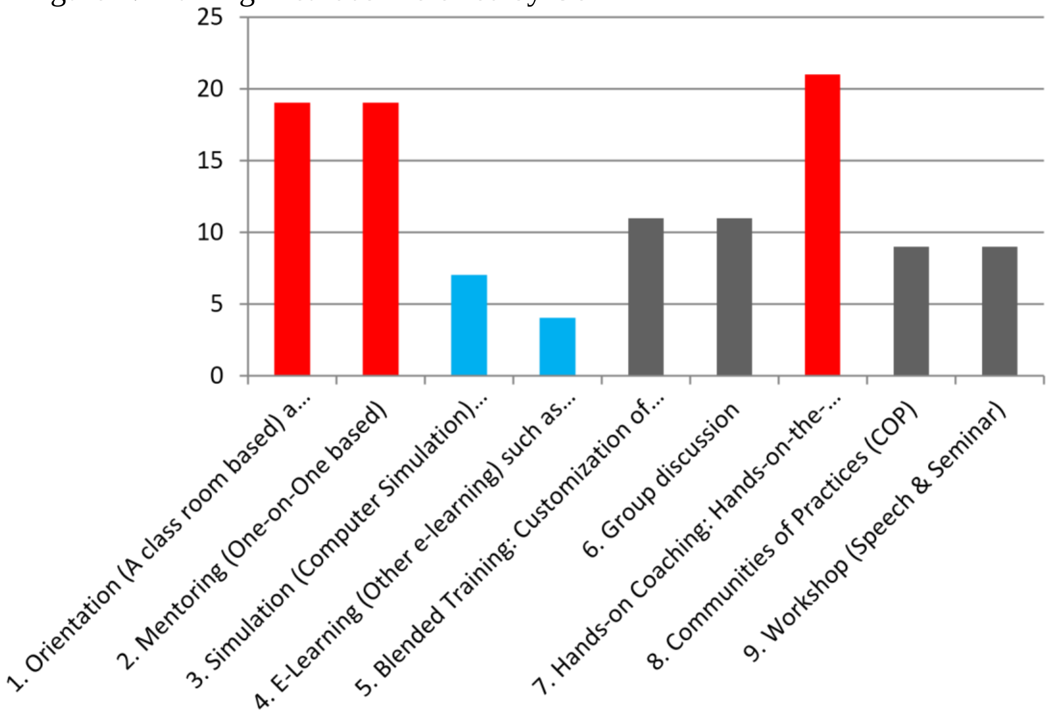


Figure 4. Training Methods Preferred by Gen Y



Finding 1: The study prominently shows the desire for freedom, flexibility and fairness of Gen Y's personality at work.
Finding 2: Gen Y looks for change, are willing to learn new skills and have low tolerance for boredom. Furthermore, the students do not agree that strong sense of morality, value intelligence and dare to express themselves are representative characteristics of them.
Finding 3: The students prefer hands-on coaching and mentoring (one-on-one based) than technology-based training. The finding also implies a strong sense to be shown respect and praise in social interaction within organization is desired by Gen Y hospitality employees.
Finding 4: Poor time management is a common negative characteristic about Gen Y at work. Flexible environment is desirable.
Finding 5: Working environment is not only focusing on academic qualification but also work performance is preferable.

Discussion

Gen Y hospitality students prefer hands-on coaching and one-on-one mentoring. Moreover, they are willing to take a flexible time arrangement. Preferably, the mentor provides suitable teaching measures for each individual with a learning environment that provides social interaction between learners and facilitators. It will be ideal for the students if the employer provides the freedom for them to choose and/or change their curriculums of learning, also recognizes the work performance than academic qualification. On-the-job training is the most preferable training method but it needs more recognition. The study result shows a significant difference in nowadays teaching and learning practice in hospitality education.

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Apf1665 A Study of Chinese College Students' International Volunteer Experience

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate Chinese college students' experience in the volunteer travel using qualitative research method. 11 college students who had participated in volunteer programs were interviewed and content analysis was used to analyze the recorded data. Based on a model of hierarchy of volunteer tourism experience, this study found that: 1) the involvement level of the college-student volunteers are from low to high; 2) There are four hierarchies of volunteer tourism experience: Utilitarian experience, Social and cultural experience, Impact on values, and Self- identity. 3) Volunteer tourists with comparatively low involvement gain utilitarian and social& cultural experience, and volunteer tourists with comparatively high involvement gain impact on values and self-identity experience. Research and application recommendations are also discussed.

Keywords: Volunteer Tourism, Volunteer Experience, Tourist involvement, Chinese College Students

Introduction

Voluntourism is a hybrid of "volunteer" and "tourism". According to www.voluntourism.org, voluntourism refers to voluntary service experiences which needs travelling to a destination to perform one's service. And this service would be integrated with traditional elements of travel and tourism, like arts, culture, geography, history, and recreation (Voluntourism.org).Wearing regards voluntourists as volunteers who undertake holidays in anorganized way which might involve "aiding oralleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, therestoration of certain environments, or research into aspects of society or environment" (Wearing, 2001). Currently, volunteer tourism is well programed in developed countries, and it's popular among citizens who are ever involved in it or interested in it. In western countries, the study of volunteer tourism has grown significantly over the past 20 years, mainly focusing on the motivation of volunteer tourism(Wearing, 2001; Sin, 2009; Tomazos& Butler, 2012), the experience of volunteer tourism(Wearing, 2012; McIntosh& Zahra, 2007), and the macroscopic influence of volunteer tourism(McIntosh& Zahra,2007; McGhee, 2007; Guttentag, 2009; Sin,2009; Palacious, 2010). There are also studies on the volunteer tourism organizations (Coghlan, 2007; Wearing& Lyons, 2008; Palacios, 2010).

In China, volunteer tourism is still in its early stage. Yuanyuan Zong regards volunteer tourism as a kind of new tourism in China. As she found that responding to the call of volunteer NGOs, backpackers get acquainted with tour pals via social network to travel to remote areas in China to help the vulnerable people (Zong, 2012). Since in China less people participate in volunteer tourism, present studiesmainly focus on macroscopic field, for instance, the status of volunteer tourism in China, the impact of volunteer tourism and the behavior pattern of volunteer tourists (Tang, 2004;Dai, 2009; Zong, 2012). There are relatively few studies of volunteer tourists' own perspectives on their travel experience. Based on the development of volunteer tourism and researches about it in China, this paper focus on the volunteer tourists' own perspectives on their travel experience. We choose the main part of this group—college students as our research object.

Literature Review

2.1 Volunteer tourism

Wearing (2013) reviews different aspects of volunteer tourism, including pre-trip motivations, the role of volunteer tourism organizations, and volunteer tourism experience. Zong (2012) inductively explains the situation of volunteer tourism in China, focusing on the volunteer tourism motives, experiences, host community response, volunteer tourism organization, and macroscopic impacts. Dai (2009) found that upgrade motivation is the primary motivation of the volunteer travel among Chinese college students, and that external factors—for instance, a lack of public attention paid and publicity to volunteer tourism in China—impact significantly on a volunteer tourist's behavior pattern. These papers introduces the current studies of volunteer tourism in the western countries and China.

2.2 Volunteer tourism experience

Volunteer tourism experiences are very diverse, and volunteer tourist's experience can be influenced by many factors, such as the personal situation of the tourists, program design of volunteer tourism organizations, and the social condition of the host communities. Wearing (2013) summarizes three aspects of volunteer tourist's experience. He illustrates that volunteer tourism experience is personal experience which meets people's needs of seeking adventures, and satisfies people's intrinsic motives; it's the experience of interacting and benefiting the host communities; it's the experience which helps the tourists reshape their worldview and values (Wearing, 2002). Zong (2012) studies the different situation of volunteer tourism of China and western countries, illustrating that under different cultural backgrounds the volunteer tourism experience can be significantly different. In her research she categorizes volunteer tourism experience into five different types: study and educational experience; social and affectional experience; pilgrimage experience; self-reflection and self-inspection experience; work and leisure (Zong, 2012).

2.3 Tourist involvement

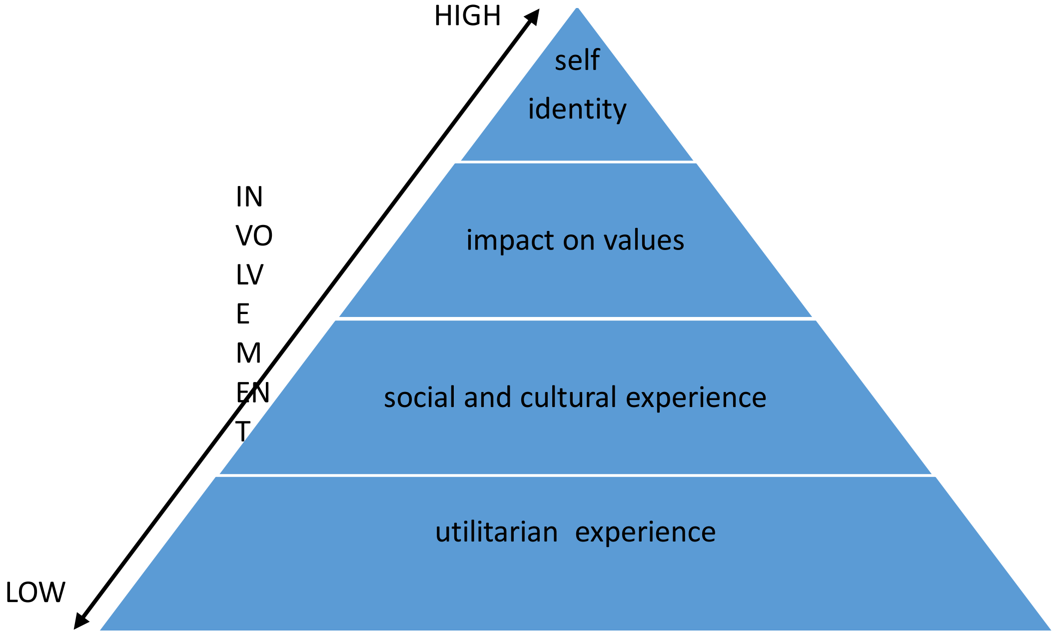
Caruana et al (2014) studied tourist's responsible tourism, and built a multi-dimentionality of responsible tourism model to map positionality of responsible tourists, describing the experience of responsible tourists from their inner-versus outer—directed goals and their degree of personal involvement in responsible tourism.

Caruana et al (2014) divides the tourist involvement in responsible tourism into three levels. Tourists with low involvement refers to the tourists who participate in responsible tourism because of their trust on honest marketing and their attempt to avoid commercialism. Tourists with a moderate level of involvement refers to the tourists whose motive of participating in responsible tourism is "to do the right thing". Tourists with this level of involvement believes that responsible tourism enables them to be obliged to specific people and ethically mindful. Tourists with high level of involvement refers to the tourists who construct their experience with the practice such as volunteering, working and sharing wealth.

Volunteer Tourist Experience Model

In the process of this study, we discover that each college-student volunteers experience significantly different based on his/ her involvement in this trip. Tourists with high involvement have a deeper interaction with the community, and gain more unique experience in this trip. Based on Caruana et al (2014) study on tourist involvement, we build the hierarchy of volunteer tourism experience.

Figure 1 Hierarchy of volunteer tourism experience



3.1 In this model, we divide the volunteer tourism experience into four hierarchies.

The first level is Utilitarian experience. Tourists can acquire academic skills and enrich their personal experience in volunteer tourism. The second level is Social and cultural experience. Tourists have more interaction with the local people, enlarging their social circle. What's more, during the interaction tourists will get a better understanding of the local culture and economy, and get authentic travel experience. The third level is Impact on value. Tourists live with the vulnerable people and try their best to benefit them, which gives them a chance to contact with the local society. By volunteering, the tourists become a person who has a better sense of social responsibility. The top level is self- identity. As volunteer work goes on, tourists will confront different kinds of trouble. They will dig their potential and creativity to solve the problem, and finally they will complete the tasks well. This process enables them to better know themselves, to challenge themselves, and to gain self- identity.

3.2 The level of the involvement of the college-student volunteers can be measured by the some factors.

Those factors are: how much do they interact with the local residents; how much do they know about the local culture and economy; how much effort do they put in their volunteer work and how well do they complete their work; how much are they impacted by volunteer tourism. Basing on these factors, we divide the level of involvement into comparatively low involvement and comparatively high involvement.

3.3 The experience of volunteer tourists with comparatively low involvement stays in the perception of the outside.

In volunteering, they acquire academic skills, interact with the local residents, and have a good cultural understanding. However, they put less effort in their work, and they are less mentally impacted by volunteer tourism. The experience they get are utilitarian experience and social& cultural experience. The experience of volunteer tourists with comparatively high involvement exceeds the perception of the outside. Moreover, it will lead to self-reflection and self-inspection. Tourists in higher involvement put more effort in their project, and they are more willing to think the social reality behind the volunteer work and their own values over. In addition, volunteer tourism brings tourists great impact, helping them better know themselves. The experience of the tourists in higher involvement will exceed utilitarian experience and social& cultural experience. They will get impact on values and self-identity experience.

Methodology

Our research is in form of a qualitative research framework with a collection of 11 college volunteer tourists. We interviewed these 11 respondents about their experience of volunteer tourism. Interview mainly contains information as follows: respondents' background, participation motivation, volunteer tourism experience, respondents' gain, the attitude towards volunteer tourism and their cognition about the current status and future trend of volunteer tourism.

Table 1: the background information of 11 respondent.

Name	*Gender*	*Grade*	*Destination*	*Project type*
J	Female	Junior	Lublin, Poland	Educational program, global volunteer
L	Female	Junior	Cairo, Egypt	Educational program, global volunteer
W	Female	Sophomore	Colombo, Sri Lanka	Educational program, global volunteer
A	Female	Junior	Jinan, China	volunteer in Youth hostel
Y	Female	Freshman	Weihai, China	Volunteer in scenic spots
M	Male	Junior	Guizhou, China	Environmental research volunteer
H	Female	Junior	Sichuan, China	Educational and medical program volunteer
Z	Male	Graduate	Xinjiang, China	Educational program volunteer
Q	Male	Graduate	China	Volunteer tourism promoter
C	Female	Junior	Nepal	Cultural exploration program, global volunteer
T	Female	Sophomore	Shandong, China	Educational program volunteer

During the interview, the researchers recorded the respondents' narratives using a voice recorder and took down notes to ensure the integrity of information. In the process of transforming recording into literal information, we worked in pairs to make the outcome more objective. Then, we adopted content analysis to deal with the outcome. We classify questions, abstract the key words and sum up the word frequency in order to find out the generality and difference in the literal information. Finally, according to the analysis result, we drew the framework of this article.

Results

5.1 Tourists' involvement in volunteer tourism.

Volunteer tourists can obtain precious and authentic travel experience through this whole process, which consists of project selection, early-stage preparation, carrying out projects, and community interaction. In figure1., the involvement level of respondents' volunteer tourism experience presents two different states, comparatively low involvement and comparatively high involvement. The involvement level dues to respondents' interaction with local people, and the understanding of the local culture, economy, and social situation; the level also dues to the volunteer tourists' efforts put in the project and the volunteer tourism impact on respondents.

5.1.1 Respondents' interaction with local people varies from person to person. Some volunteers who have deep interaction with local people usually have comparatively high involvement:

J: I have a deep contact with local people, living in the students apartment, a girl who lives next door really helped a lot. She takes me to see her parents and other relatives and I still contact with her even I am in my own country now.

M: Interviews in my project mainly in the form of chat, and I have more chances to talk with local residents. Living in farmhouse, I chat and eat with them almost every day.

However, some volunteers have less interaction with local residents, and correspondingly, they have comparatively low involvement during the experience:

Y: Usually, I just talk to the staffs about the details in work.

5.1.2 Volunteers who have a better understanding of the local culture, economy and other social situation have comparatively high involvement:

M：Before I start the project, I have looked into the organization's official website to know more details about local condition.

L：(I) truly understand the meaning of refugees ...... local Muslim faith (absolutely do not smoke, drink and steal things) makes me respect.

W：I found part of social situation from the orphanage in Sri Lanka, that is, money seems to be everything and the concept of social class is still popular.

Some volunteers just finished their work, and know less about the local culture, economy. These volunteers often have comparatively low involvement during the experience：

A: I have clear understanding of the work content, but not other things.

5.1.3 Some volunteers have done a well pre-trip preparation, so they develop a deep understanding of the project contents and pay more efforts on it, which accounts for comparatively high involvement:

L: Because the project I attend is about education, I have made a lot of preparation on English language teaching.

W: Many students prefer to choose teaching as their volunteering job and regard it as a fairly easy job. However, as a teacher, I can't relax my will for a second. I have to accumulate as much knowledge as I can. I have to create new teaching methods to attract my students and I have to make this period of experience meaningful."

But, some volunteers were not. They put less effort in their project and just follow the instructions, resulting in comparatively low involvement:

H: *It's ok. Since the activity was planned by local governors in the early time, I didn't run into much difficulty and no surprise certainly…*

Y: I think the guidance job in the scenic spot is not hard for me, and I haven't done much preparation.

5.1.4 Volunteer tourism has great impact on some respondents, and these respondents are often in a state of comparatively high involvement：

J: I do think the decision I made before is definitely correct. I have changed a lot, from introversion to extraversion, from dependent to independent…

Volunteer tourism has less impact on some respondents, and these respondents are often in a state of comparatively low involvement：

Y: I have no special memory about this experience, maybe it helps me experience life and help me with my communication skill…

5.2 Tourists' experience in volunteer tourism

Zhiyuan Yu (2012) considers travel as "the rites of passage", and travel experience could influence tourists' psychology and behavior, and this kind of influence was shown as changes on tourists' abilities, personality, and behavior, etc. Wearing (2002) summarizes the volunteer tourism experience as a kind of tourism experience which meets the tourist's demand of seeking differences and personal intrinsic motivation; Meanwhile tourists interact with the host community, making positive impacts through cultural interaction, and tourists will receive profound and authentic experience as well; What's more, this experience prompts the tourists to examine themselves, bringing the experience of self-inspection and self-development.

According to the volunteer tourist experience model above, the experience of the volunteer tourists are divided into four levels: 1) Utilitarian experience. 2) Social and cultural experience. 3) Impact on values. 4) Self-identity.

5.2.1 In the level of utilitarian experience, college student volunteer tourists could gain some academic skills and personal life experience.

The enhancement of individual comprehensive qualifications:

Most respondents thinks that they become more outgoing and initiative, their communicative and interpersonal skills are improved and their storage of knowledge is expanded. In other word, the volunteer tourism experience process is also a continuous learning process.

J: I used to be a very introverted girl… it made me become much more outgoing and more willing to communicate with other people.

Z: My Uyghur language ability improved a lot.

The enrichment of personal experience. Many respondents say that it's very challengeable to participate in volunteer tourism, and it is a kind of activity that can help them step out of their comfortable zone and obtain some valuable experience.

H: It was also a nice working experience… and it was helpful for employment.

L: This way of travel was much more meaningful than group tour.

5.2.2 In the level of social and cultural experience, the volunteer tourists joined the program actively, and have more interaction with the local people, their experience will be richer and deeper, especially reflecting in the satisfying of their social needs and in their deeper perception and understanding of local culture and economy, etc. It can somehow influence the volunteer tourists' own ways of life as well.

The enhancement of cultural interaction and understanding:
Volunteer tourism is deep cultural experience. Through this journey, volunteer tourists are able to receive a better understanding of the local culture. They interact with local people during the project and obtain deeper understanding of the local society.

W: (volunteer tourism) combined work, life and travel, we experience local life deeply… (It was) the most valuable travel experience.

M: After volunteering in Guizhou province, I found myself gain much more authentic knowledge of local ethnic minorities' custom.

L: Getting along with them (local people in Cairo), I admired their royalty to their faith very much.

The changes of life style:
After going back to their residence, those participants are more willing to step out of their comfort zone to experience different life.

J: When I was back from Poland, I started travel during my spare time. Later I also went to Changbai Mountain, South Korea and many other places. I felt that I love travelling more.

L: Although I had come back to my own country from Nepal, I still pay attention to the news about Nepal.

Realization of social demand:
Participants have established deep friendship with the locals and the team members in this volunteer tour. Obviously, their interpersonal circle have been expanded. They get acquainted with lots of like-minded friends and their social needs are met.

A: Because of participating in this activity (volunteering in youth hostel), I made a lot of new friends. They gave me a lot of help, and I was totally moved. Now I can talk to strangers without feeling embarrassed.

C: Our group members becomes more and more solidarity. Though we were back to our country from Nepal for a long time, we will meet once every period.

L: I saw many seemingly ordinary guys but with amazing experience.

5.2.3 The third level of the hierarchy model, we describe the higher experience as the impact on value. Volunteer tourist experience the life in less developed areas, therefore, they become more socially responsible, they treat things with a milder attitude, and they better treasure their present life.

C: After the earthquake in Nepal, our members of the same (former- volunteering) team organized a fund-raising and donated these money to the local rescue team.

L: I was not always easy to be satisfied in the past... I knew the real meaning of the refugees when I was there (in Cairo).

W: I used to think that education is not a difficult thing, but finally I knew the difficulty deeply when I do the teaching myself... Now I will respect education, respect teachers and their outcomes.

W: I feel that this tour is of hardship and happiness. Little surprises in daily life will be enlarged to make me very happy. What's more, I have more patience now, will not jump to judge…

5.2.4 We define the fourth part of this model, which is the deepest and the most valuable experience of the volunteer tourists, as self-identity experience. Chen (2009) holds the opinion that tourists can obtain identity from the travel experience. In tourism experience, identity presents a variety of forms, from the external destination identity, to identity with the roles of tourists, to cultural understanding and to self-identity, which demonstrates tourism experience's unique value. Volunteer tourists work, live and travel together in an unfamiliar environment. For these tourists, volunteer tour is not only a journey, but also a challenge on their own. No matter their initiative motive is utilitarian or altruism, volunteer tourists gradually feel the positive impact brought by volunteer tourism and their self-identity is gradually strengthened. Tourists experience various problems, but they can overcome and ultimately complete the task successfully, achieving a sense of accomplishment. The sense of accomplishment in volunteer tourism, which intensifies volunteer tourists' self-identity, is the satisfaction and self-worth they achieve when overcoming difficulties and solving problems in an uncomfortable environment when traveling.

Q: Preaching in major universities to introduce volunteer tourism ...Every time I finish preaching, students get passionate, also they expresses their admiration for my experience.

W: Teaching is a dual test of mental and physical, I don't feel like hearing someone says something like giving up...we should make this experience more meaningful.

L: I saved a man on the subway where he said thanks to me again and again... There was also a child who couldn't spell 'banana' when I did a dictation, she finally wrote a sentence 'I love you'.

5.3The relationship between involvement and experience in volunteer tourism

By comprehensively studying volunteer tourists' tour involvement and experience, we discover that the level of tourist involvement can decide the tourist's experience. In our study, some respondents put a great deal of time and effort in their volunteer work, trying their best to benefit the vulnerable people. They are more active to interact with the local residents and to experience the local culture and custom as well. In addition, they take their volunteer tour as an opportunity to introspect themselves on their value system and identity. Therefore, these volunteer tourists are better involved in volunteer tourism, and their travel experiences are of great value. Accordingly, volunteer tourists with high involvement can obtain profound travel experience, which impacts on their values positively and helps them gain self-identity. On the contrary, affected by many factors—for instance, the organization of the project, personal ability—some of the respondents didn't do very well in their trip. They are less involved in volunteer tourism. As a consequence, their experience of volunteer tourism are mostly superficial. Volunteer tourist with comparatively low involvement can acquire some academic skills from their work, make some more friends from different places, and get some knowledge of the local community, however, they can't attain more profound experience from volunteer tourism.

5.4 Some of the participants reserve their judgment about volunteer tourism.

Few participants express their reservations about this tourism form. Some people think that since a university student's not financially independent, if he wants to participate in a volunteer tour, he must need a good family background to support his spending. Like W said: "we are university students, we don't have income. If we want to go abroad to be a global volunteer, we must have enough passion and money."

Furthermore, Some people question that commodified volunteer tourism products are opposite to the original intention of volunteering since most volunteer tourists' motives aren't altruistic, on the contrary they are mainly utilitarian or selfish.

Additionally, some people reckon volunteer tourism as an elite travel form, which requires participants' adaptive capacity and service capability. From their experience, not every volunteer tourist enjoys their trip, which means if they can't adapt to the new environment or come through difficult tasks, they will fail their volunteer tour. Like W said: "A girl in my volunteer team couldn't carry on this (education) project, keeping complaining: 'Even I am a child, how can I teach those children. I can't do it.'"

Some people think that since volunteers from universities don't have enough ability of social practice, and their volunteer projects are usually short-term, they can't make sustainable impact. Like J said: "Most of the volunteers want to do something real and meaningful that can make the society better. However, our influence on the local community is really limited."

Discussion

This study developed hierarchy model of volunteer tourism experience which include four levels. 1) Utilitarian experience. Tourists can acquire academic skills and enrich their personal experience in volunteer tourism. 2) Social and cultural experience. Tourists can obtain authentic travel experience by interacting with local people, leading to better understanding of the local community. 3) Impact on value. Tourists try their best to help the vulnerable people. By volunteering, they become more responsible and compassionate. 4) self- identity. By overcoming difficulties and challenge themselves, volunteer tourists can attain a sense of accomplishment. The volunteer experience helps the volunteer tourists step out of their comfort zone, giving them an opportunity to challenge and introspect themselves. This experience enables volunteer tourists to achieve self-identity.

Our qualitative study testifies the model and found that different volunteer tourist has different level of involvement in volunteer tourism, and his/her involvement decides what kind of experience he/her will get. During the volunteer tour, the tourist involvement can be roughly divided into two levels—comparably high and comparably low according to the tourists' efforts, interaction with local people, understanding of local society, etc. volunteer tourists with lower involvement mostly get superficial experience. Since they can acquire some academic skills from volunteer work and have deeper interaction with the local residents of the destination, their experience is much better than that of mass tourists, however, they are less mentally impacted by volunteer tourism. Volunteer tourist with lower involvement can get utilitarian experience and social & cultural experience. In contrast, volunteer tourist with higher involvement are highly impacted by volunteer tourism, they will get impact on values and self-identity. By volunteering they introspect themselves on their value and former life style, becoming more responsible and compassionate. What's more, by taking a volunteer tour, they step out of their former life circle. They get to know new things, meet new people, and experience different culture. But most importantly, they can gain their self-identity in this tour.

6.1 Recommendations for further study

For further study, more in-depth study should be conducted on the stakeholders of volunteer tourism. First, in our study we find out that a majority of volunteer tourists apply for the volunteer projects of universities through non-government organizations (NGO). Researchers should conduct studies on the volunteer organizations, for instance, how to promote standardization and normalization of these organizations. Second, future research can have some studies on government and host communities, help enact responsible supply chains. Third, during our interviews, we find out that we can understand the situations better in a more quantified research system. For example, when asking about participants' recognition of volunteer tourism, or how much do their relatives support them, we can use a scale to measure these questions, using confidence intervals to speculate the participants' and their relatives' recognition of volunteer tourism. We can combine quantitative analysis with qualitative analysis in further study.

6.2 Recommendation for organization development

Although volunteer tourism is a novel tour in China, it can bring tourists a profound culture experience. However, our study we find out that volunteer tourism in China has some deficiencies in its development model, so we offer some suggestions for relevant organizations.

Firstly, they should improve and optimize the voluntary service project. There's much work to do. For example, they should make better arrangements of working schedule. What's more, they should deepen communication and cooperation with host communities, which prompts host communities to understand and appreciate the volunteers, taking care of their accommodation and finding the best fit job for them. Improvements leads to better experience, in the meantime, with reasonable job allocation, it's more likely for the volunteers to bring positive impact on the community.

Secondly, organizations should confirm their positioning and prove their worth. They need to expand their influence in Chinese society. At present, volunteer tourism is a niche tourism form. Volunteer tourists need the ability to adapt to new working, living and socializing environment, and they need enough money to support this tour, which keeps a lot of potential tourists away. Organizations should continuously publicize volunteer tourism to the public, building positive branding. With more and more people understand and support volunteer tourism better, this tourism form can be accepted and participated in by more Chinese, thus making positive impact on the Chinese society and Chinese youth.

Thirdly, organizations should improve the existing operating system. They have to perfect the organization mode, ensuring the safety and integrity of the projects. Currently in China, the volunteer projects the college students taking are essentially operated by volunteering organizations such as NGOs or official organizations such as universities. They have some tensions in project managing to be released. For example, how to innovate in volunteering projects, creating more project types; how to make sure the project fee is reasonable for the volunteers; how to create long-term benefits for host communities through the volunteering projects, etc. These improvements will definitely improve the current situation of volunteer tourism in China, leading to a more responsible and sustainable development course.

Research limitations

Our study still has some limitations. First and foremost, we have very small sample size, and only interviewed college student volunteers, no much attentions were paid on the volunteers from other social groups. We wish to deepen our research on volunteers who are not college students, and study their tourism behavior. What's more, for further study, we should do multiple interviews for one volunteer, for instance, one before start, one during the tour, one after the tour. In this way we can get more valuable research content, understanding the volunteer tourist's motivation, behavior, travel experience, and their change better. In addition, the cases we choose are all positive cases, which means no negative cases are involved in this paper. However, from our interview we find out that there are some volunteers who give up volunteering because they can't solve the problems or can't adapt to the environment. We don't know their motivation, behavior, experience and their attitude toward volunteer tourism. We wish to study their behavior, paying attention to the possible negative impacts of volunteer tourism. Last but not least, the more majority of the interviewees we choose are high grade students. Some of our research results are maybe biased.

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Apf1666 Brand Borneo – How Do Tourists Know Sabah and Sarawak?

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Abstract

For tourism destinations, place is the core product on offer. Place can be a brand, and in some cases, a place name is the brand. For over twenty years, Sabah has successfully used ‘Borneo’ as a destination brand, evolving and consolidating its presence in the market. Although politically associated with Malaysia, in the tourism arena Sabah has never strayed away from highlighting its geographical link to Borneo. One rationale is the products and experiences on offer in Sabah differ greatly from those on offer in Peninsular Malaysia, with key similarities to those on offer in Sarawak. How does the world know Borneo? This paper examines brand Borneo in an attempt to understand brand ownership, and if, at all, there occurs brand confusion. A qualitative content analysis is used to compare the two states’ DMOs websites, tourism logos and taglines. Preliminary findings shows that both states are positioned as different facets of Borneo, ownership is shared and very little confusion occurs. Findings contribute to the growing literature on brand confusion within destination branding.

Keywords: Borneo, brand confusion, brand ownership, qualitative content analysis, Sabah

Introduction

This paper explores brand Borneo in terms of its destination branding strategy in order to understand its brand positioning. Within tourism marketing, a clearly defined brand is an assurance of the product on offer. Destination branding and image creation are powerful tools used by DMOs to market their destination. Branding strategy seeks to highlight positive images associated with a destination, improve negative images and to create an awareness by promoting favourable images to target markets (Pike & Ryan, 2004). The island of Borneo in South East Asia is an interesting mix of tourist-focused destinations at various stages of development. One island shared administratively by three nations namely Malaysia (the states of Sabah and Sarawak), oil-rich Kingdom of Brunei and resources-rich Kalimantan (province of Indonesia). On this island are three countries, but four individual DMOs all of which use the word “Borneo” in some shape and form within their branding strategy. The State of Sabah, Malaysia is located on the northern portion of Borneo and tourism is now a key pillar of the local economy after agriculture. For over twenty years, Sabah has successfully used “Borneo” as a destination brand, evolving and consolidating its presence in the market. Initially (and informally) known as “Sabah, The Land Below the Wind”, with the advent of tourism, since the early 1990s this brand has incorporated the themes of nature and adventure. A range of with taglines (in chronological order) have included “Sabah-BORNEO’s Paradise”, “Sabah – Malaysian BORNEO”, “Sabah- Nature-ally- A Premier Nature Adventure Ecotourism Destination”, “Sabah - Best of BORNEO” to “Sabah, Malaysian BORNEO -the land of eco treasures from mountain high to ocean deep”. Presently, the Sabah Tourism Board mission statement is “to market position Sabah, Malaysian BORNEO as the premier nature adventure destination in the world” (www.sabahtourism.com). Tourism products on offer range from nature, wildlife, adventure, culture and heritage, most of which are exclusive to Sabah. The focus of this strategy has been on its natural resources, quite rightly its strengths. For any tourism destination, place is the core product on offer, and in some cases, a place name is the brand

(Anholt, 2009). Most tourism destinations used country or city name as the destination brand. For example, “Paris is romance, Milan is style, New York is energy, Washington is power, Tokyo is modernity, Lagos is corruption, Barcelona is culture, Rio is fun” (Anholt, 2006, p.18). These city brands used city names to connect their image to the world’s perceptions. Instead of focusing on the country, state or city name, Sabah utilised its location as an advantage and focused on the geographic name of an island, Borneo. Although politically associated with Malaysia, in the tourism arena Sabah has never strayed away from highlighting its geographical link to Borneo. One rationale is the products and experiences on offer in Sabah differ greatly from those on offer in Peninsular Malaysia, albeit with key similarities to those on offer in Sarawak. Of all four individual DMOs using Borneo in their destination brands, Sabah competes intensely with Sarawak in the tourism arena. How does the world know Borneo? This paper examines brand Borneo in an attempt to understand if, at all, there occurs brand confusion. This paper explores the issue of brand ownership to understand what differentiates Sabah from Sarawak, both of which use Borneo in their destination branding strategy.

Literature Review

Destination Branding

“Brand” was first defined as a name given to a product or service based on a specific characteristic. Brand in general serves as basic identification to differentiate one product or service from competitive offerings (Wood, 2000). A strong brand can control and stabilize consumer’s perception of product’s quality (Grewal, Krishnan, Baker, & Borin, 1998) because it possess psychological influences over consumer’s emotional and rational part (Anholt, 2006, 2010) in purchase decision-making process. When perception is more important than reality, brand act as an effective communication tool in creating consumer preferences and generating purchases (Cross, Cross, & Dublin, 2002). Brands only exists in the heart and mind of consumers (Riezebos & van der Grinten, 2012). Hence, the management of brands is referred to as the management of perceptions (Rosenbaum-Elliott, Percy, & Pervan, 2011). Just as a product needs a brand to attract consumers, so does a destination. According to Anholt (2010), with the rise of tourism, in order to remain competitive, marketers have sought to actively promote attractions and images of places to attract tourists. Here, branding has played an important role, with the place and/or its name becoming the brand. Place is ultimately the essence to a tourist destination because its identity serves to deliver desired and promised experiences (Allan, 2014). Like a product or service, a place needs a brand to evoke tourists’ awareness. A brand serves to pinpoint unique characteristics to differentiate itself, stand out (Wood, 2000; Cretu, 2011; McLaughlin, 2011), and attract consumers’ attention with brand promise (Anholt, 2009). In the context of tourism, a destination (or place) should possess a brand, in order to attract tourists’ attention. Destination branding can be defined as “a way to communicate a destination’s unique identity by differentiating a destination from its competitors.” (Crockett & Wood, 1999; Cai, 2002; Hankinson, 2004; Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011). In the literature, destination branding refers to unique personality and character which allows the establishment of relationship between the destination and the tourists (Cai, 2002; Blain, Levy, & Ritchie, 2005; Kattiyapornpong & Nel, 2009; Pike, 2009). Also, Caldwell and Freire (2004) suggested that destination branding is the non-pricing competitive strategy that fights to win over consumers’ hearts and minds.

A successful destination brand provides sustainable competitive advantages through utilising destination assets that are difficult to replicate (Haven-Tang & Sedgley, 2014). Such qualities of the destination (Woods & Deegan, 2006) are the core and personality that delivers destination experience value and authenticity. According to Qu *et al.*, (2011), destination branding is created by destination identity, while destination identity is enhanced through destination image formed by consumers. Destination identity is a quality exclusive to each place, while destination image is the representation of the external form of the unique qualities of place. Through communicating destination image, the destination identity will be known to the world. Initially, brand is built to reach target markets, enhance consumer awareness and ultimately influence consumers in the marketer's desired direction. For a destination, the ultimate goal is to make potential target markets aware of the location (Baker & Cameron, 2008). In sum, the literature on destination branding and image seeks to identify how well do tourists know a destination. Unlike product or service branding, the value of brand in the context of tourism destination is not only to retain consumer loyalty, but to enhance brand awareness – a level of consumer's recognition of the brand. In fact, few research has proven that lack of brand recognition is the cause of destination branding failure (Bašan, Bagaric, & Loncaric, 2013; dos Santos, 2014). Given the rise of global destination choices, differentiation, in terms of destination image and destination identity is vital to the branding success (Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998; Rinaldi & Beeton, 2015). Therefore, it is interesting to examine a case where both the image and identity seem similar. In tourism circles, why is destination image so important?

Destination Image

Destination image is the first impression of a destination. It triggered memories and experiences and links the cues to the destinations in tourists mind. Image is important to products, services, organizations and non-profit organizations, individuals, as well as destinations. Image is important to a brand because it is a "mental construct" which influences consumers' perceptions towards the brand with immediate comparison among the competing brands (Kahle & Kim, 2006). For destination, brand image operates in tourists' mind by linking the desirable associations to the location, form favorable image and increases tourists' interest towards the destination (Baker & Cameron, 2008). Positive image is a critical success factor for destinations (Tseng, Wu, Morrison, Zhang, & Chen, 2015). Positive and attractive images creates popularity and desirability, represents a place and inspire people to visit and revisit. A destination, with readily available qualities needs positive destination image to enhance tourists' awareness of the destination. In addition, a strong brand image can reinforce positive and identifiable destination identity. According to Qu *et al.* (2011), destination image is not limited to achieve increment in tourists' awareness, it also affects tourists' behaviors. Literature found that repeat visitors tend to have positive perception of destination image compares to the first time visitors (Qu *et al.*, 2011). The more positive the image, the more likely potential visitors will visit the destination (Kahle & Kim, 2006).Destination image is an important element in tourists' pre-consumption behavior which will influence tourists' decision-making processes in selecting travel destinations (McCabe, 2014). In the era of information overload, consumers often faces confusion and lack information accuracy of the brands. Tourists will be exposed to various destination brand-related information, including names, images, logos and taglines, packages, culture and heritage, languages, myths and legends.Mass of information and choices tends to leave tourists to their own imagination of the destinations. As a result, brands are competing in the mind of consumers and eventually lead them to a state of confusion.

Brand Confusion

Brand confusion takes place when consumers perceives the information of one brand as the information about a different or alternative brand. It is a state of mind which influences information processing and decision making (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999). The concept of brand confusion originated as an outcome of brand imitation, when marketers successfully misled consumers into believing an imitation brand as the real deal. It is also regarded as a result of brand similarity. Brand confusion can lead to serious consequences. Two possible outcomes are reduction in consumer loyalty and weaken brand image (Mitchell & Papavassiliou, 1999). One might think that damage to a brand image is bad but a worst case scenario is brand confusion (Brengman *et al.*, 2001). A damaged brand can be rebuilt or reposition but brand confusion might risk one's efforts and resources branding being used up for competing brands, a regrettable consequence which all marketers try to avoid. Albeit an important theory, little attention has been given to brand confusion in both academia and industry (Brengman *et al.*, 2001; McCabe, 2014). In this globally competitive environment, many destinations are striving hard to catch consumers' attention by focusing on promoting destination attractions such as beautiful sunsets, breath taking views, or white sandy beaches, which no longer excite potential visitors, let alone affecting visitor behaviour with differentiation (George & Anandkumar, 2014). As a consequence, low level of differentiation and lack of unique destination identity has put destinations in a challenging position of low brand awareness and high brand confusion.

When marketers relies heavily on promotional activities, focusing on catching consumers' attention with appealing graphics, they often forget the initial purpose of brand – to send a distinct message to help consumers differentiate one brand from another (Clancy & Trout, 2002). Differentiation serves as competitive advantage to prevent imitation from similar players, more importantly it reduces brand confusion in this information overloaded era. A few studies have found brand confusion to be one of the factors causing branding failure. For example the Cape Verde brand was once perceived to have confusing tourism products similar to other destination brands including Crete Island, Canary Islands, Caribbean Island, and Seychelles Islands (dos Santos, 2014). While both tourists and local residents were confused with its tourism products similarity, the Cape Verde brand also confused audiences with its tourism promotional logo containing similar characteristics with Andalusia, Algarve, and TAP brands in terms of color designs and lettering. On the other hand, it was also found that Goa, the state of India was suffering from projecting inconsistent images while having similar tourism products with its close competition, Kerala (Pawaskar & Goel, 2014). Accordingly, Goa is located on the Malabar Coast, shared the geographical location and similar attractions (in terms of environment and landscape) with Kerala for several years before the competitor developed its medical tourism. From the examples, similarities in both destination images and tourism promotional materials can cause confusion. Brand confusion will lead to brand failure or worst, guiding potential tourists towards visiting competing destinations. To survive in the international marketplace, it is important to understand destination branding. Managing a destination brand equals to communicating destination's reputation, hence a comprehensive branding strategy is required to direct potential tourists' mind right at the destination (Mikula & Harris, 2013). This is a task normally under the purview of the national or state DMOs.

Destination Organization Managements (Dmos)

In the context of tourism, any involved stakeholders are known as the DMOs (Blain *et al.*, 2005). The DMOs are the group of people who responsible to maintain the place authenticity (Richins, 2009) and to enhance the competitiveness of a destination (Pike & Page, 2014).

There are three major players in tourism industry including the tourists, locals, and intermediaries (i.e. government, travel agents, and tourism promotion boards) (Knudsen, Metro-Roland, Soper, & Greer, 2008). The decision on destination branding is often under the purview of DMOs and policy makers. Their aim would be to promote the 'destination', in essence what a country, region, or city in a tourism context means to attract visitors. To achieve the goal, proper marketing plans or strategies such as destination branding is necessary. Destination branding is a marketing communication strategy which aims to identify and fill the gaps between tourists' perceptions and projected destination images (Kattiyapornpong & Nel, 2009). The theory of destination branding assumes the destination has an existing brand. The way the tourists perceives its image and the way the DMOs projected the image provide a gap, an opportunity to improve the existing brand. Destination is a subjective concept and perceives differently by each different tourist (Barnes, Mattsson, & Sørensen, 2014), projecting a consistent image would benefits both the destination and the DMOs (Cai, 2002). Since projected images and perceived images can be very different, and that filling the gap between the two images would benefit the destination and its brand, projecting a consistent image that match the perceived image would enhance the brand positioning. Here, the DMOs especially the policy makers play an important role in unifying the projected images with perceived images in order to strengthen the destination brand. Therefore based on the preceding discussion, this study proposes to understand how does the world know Borneo? This paper examines brand Borneo in an attempt to understand brand ownership, and if, at all, there occurs brand confusion.

Methodology

Due to the exploratory nature of the research question, this study assumes an interpretive position, hence the research design is qualitative and seeks to understand an issue in-depth. This study used qualitative content analysis to review the official DMOs (Sabah Tourism Board and Sarawak Tourism Board) website to form an understanding of brand Borneo. Formerly known as content category approach (Weingast, 1950) and originated as word frequency measurer (Kohlbacher, 2006), qualitative content analysis is a useful qualitative method for social research. Qualitative content analysis summarizes any form of text data into key themes or categories, provide rich description of social phenomena to support new theories or models development, and to validate existing theories (Kassarjian, 1977; Zhang & Wildemuth, 2009; Mayring, 2014). The method is appropriate for exploratory research as it provides current knowledge of descriptive phenomenon (Pan, Tsai, & Lee, 2011; Leung, Au, & Law, 2015), and is found to be able to answer exploratory type of research questions (Hankinson, 2005). Moreover, the method is undeniably useful for its ability to describe current phenomenon based on identified categories or themes (Lee, Cai, & O'Leary, 2006; Xiao & Smith, 2006a; Xiao & Smith, 2006b; Buhalis & Law, 2008; Moyle, Croy, & Weiler, 2010; Munar, 2011), provide preliminary findings and enable the development of propositions for future prospects exploration. As such qualitative content analysis is an appropriate method in this study that serves the functions of identifying patterns to explore brand recognition for Borneo, particularly in identifying which of the destination brands (Sabah versus Sarawak) matches the images of Borneo, and "own" Borneo best in their branding strategy.

As mentioned, qualitative content analysis allows the categorization of information into themes for further interpretation. To answer the main research question of how does the world know Borneo, the first step in this study used qualitative content analysis consisting of gathering archival data from external sources via desk research. The data required was textual and extracted from the websites, online magazines, blogs and online news portals to examine and provide a general images of Borneo. Purposive sampling was used to identify relevant sources based on keywords including ‘Borneo’, ‘Borneo images’, ‘Borneo tourism’, ‘Borneo travel’, ‘Borneo Island’ which then allowed for a form of snowballing or links to secondary sources. Step 2 of the study consists of qualitative content analysis consisting the analysis of the official DMOs’ tourism websites (Sabah Tourism Board and Sarawak Tourism Board). The official tourism websites of both DMOs were compared in terms of the logos and taglines, maps, projected images and unique selling points to examine and provide a preliminary understanding about images of Sabah and Sarawak in general.

For the first step, Table 1 depict preliminary data sources which were used to understand general images of Borneo in the eyes of the world. Witten passages and extracts were downloaded for coding. Specifically, the coding process sought out data about major characteristics, place of interests, and evidence of how the Borneo image is depicted. While for the second step, Table 2 depict preliminary data which were used to compare projected images of both Sabah and Sarawak. The data were extracted from the official DMOs’ tourism websites, Sabah Tourism Board and Sarawak Tourism Board for coding. The coding process sought out data about official tourism promotional logos and taglines, maps, general images, unique selling points and evidence of how brand Borneo is depicted in both Sabah and Sarawak brands.

Table 1. Data Source of Websites, Blogs and Online News Portals

Data	References
Websites	http://wwf.panda.org/what_we_do/where_we_work/borneo_forests/about_borneo_forests/borneo_animals/ http://www.bbc.com/travel/asia/borneo http://www.borneo.com.au/ http://www.forestsoftheworld.com/Forests/Borneo/ http://www.gettyimages.com/photos/island-of-borneo?sort=mostpopular&excludenudity=true&mediatype=photography&phrase=island%20of%20borneo https://www.google.com/search?q=borneo+images&biw=1280&bih=699&tbm=isch&tbo=u&source=univ&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwjC3s_RkMTLAhWFUqYKHRNxBeQQsAQIGw http://www.islands.com/island-eco-tours-spring?image=2 http://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Borneo http://www.pbs.org/edens/borneo/awesome.html http://www.responsibletravel.com/holidays/borneo/travel-guide/responsible-tourism-in-borneo http://www.selectiveasia.com/borneo-holidays/borneos-islands http://www.statravel.co.uk/travel-borneo.htm http://www.timlaman.com/photo-galleries/borneo-rain-forest/ http://www.visitborneo.com/ http://www.worldwildlife.org/places/borneo-and-sumatra http://www.wwf.org.au/our_work/saving_the_natural_world/forests/forests_work/heart_of_borneo/
Online Magazines	http://www.wanderlust.co.uk/planatrip/destinations/asia/borneo
Blogs	http://www.lashworldtour.com/2012/10/where-is-borneo.html http://www.lightstalking.com/photographs-of-borneo/ http://www.selectiveasia.com/blog/short-adventures-borneo
Online News Portals	http://www.nytimes.com/2015/02/22/travel/island-hopping-off-the-coast-of-borneo.html?_r=0 http://www.theguardian.com/travel/2015/jun/27/gaya-island-borneos-biodiverse-treasurehouse-of-jungle-and-marine-life

Table 2. Comparison between Sabah versus Sarawak

Destination	Sabah	Sarawak
Official Website	http://www.sabahtourism.com/	http://sarawaktourism.com/
Logo & Tagline	VISIT SABAH MALAYSIAN BORNEO	sarawak MALAYSIA-BORNEO where adventure lives
General Images		
Orang Utan	√	√
Rafflesia	√	√
Islands	√	√
Diving	√	√
Mountain	√	√
Mosque	√	√
Unique Selling Points	i. Mount Kinabalu ii. Sipadan Island iii. Maliau Basin iv. Danum Valley	i. Niah and Mulu Caves ii. Longhouses iii. Strong cultural heritage

Discussion

Generally, results from the analysis show that Sabah brand is better aligned to the image of Borneo, compared to Sarawak. Destination is subjective and its images can be perceived differently from what it is projected.Kattiyapornpong and Nel (2009) claimed that destination branding serves to identify and fill the gaps between perceived images and projected images. From preliminary analysis, both destinations project similar images in their official tourism websites. As an example, the Sarawak Convention Bureau launched the "7 Wonders of Borneo" campaign, aims to showcase the best of Borneo and maintain Sarawak's presence in the tourism industry with seven unique features: the orang utan; the world's largest flower, the Rafflesia; Mount Mulu; indigenous tribes; the Rajah Brooke butterfly; pitcher plants (Nepenthes), amongst the world's largest carnivorous plants; and the state's colonial history (The Borneo Post, 2015; Wan, 2016). The features are unique but not exclusive to Sarawak. Similarly, Sabah also has seven similar features with slightly different type of wonders such as Mount Kinabalu, different species of the Rafflesia, and different indigenous groups. Although similar in terms of the geographical location and tourism products, Sabah's projected image is much more associated to the image of Borneo as an eco-destination, which is exclusive to Sabah. To the world, Borneo is home to one of the oldest tropical rainforests in the world, blessed with ecological abundance and biodiversity, and the pristine home of endangered wildlife. However, brand Borneo also features a strong rainforest conservation image, which is better aligned to the image of Sabah whereas Sarawak suffers from images of its timber logging industry. The preliminary findings also identify that "Sabah" is closely associated with "wildlife and rainforest". Since Borneo is projected as a nature tourism destination, the use of "Borneo" in the Sabah brand has strengthened its brand positioning by immediately matching "Sabah" to "Borneo" to attract tourists. On the other hand, Sarawak projects a clearer image as a destination rich in culture of its indigenous tribes.

Second, results show that the use of "Borneo" in Sabah brand has reduced brand confusion. Brand confusion explains a misperception and is caused by the similarities between two alternative brands. Mitchell and Papavassiliou (1999) suggests that it is a concept that affects consumer attitude and behaviour in purchase decision-making. As discussed, both states are very much alike in terms of the tourism products and are located on the same island. Even as they use "Borneo", both DMOs walk a tight rope due to the similarities between their products. In an attempt to differentiate each other, it would be worrisome if both destination brands ended up stimulating awareness for the competing entity. Brand confusion may occur when tourists search for the destinations. But when it comes to "Borneo", they will, in reality find Sabah a truly Borneo destination because the images depicted in the Sabah brand are in line with the general images of Borneo. From preliminary analysis, both destinations project the image of Borneo by sharing a major feature – the orang utan. Both are advantageously blessed with some unique attractions. Sarawak has the Niah and Mulu Caves, longhouses, strong cultural heritage of its indigenous tribes whereas Sabah has the highest peak in South East Asia, Mount Kinabalu; a top dive destination, Sipadan Island; Maliau Basin, the Lost World of Borneo; and forest conservation at Danum Valley to name a few. Brand confusion has been avoided by focusing on unique selling points, and package tours which aim to sell a range of experiences across the two states of Malaysian Borneo. By comparing the two states, their tourism logos and taglines, this paper suggests that the images depicted in the DMOs tourism promotional logo, taglines and images have positioned Sabah and Sarawak as different facets of Borneo. Hence, incorporating the word 'Borneo' in Sabah brand is advantageously positioning the state in the global market.

Lastly, preliminary findings show that Sabah brand is in advantage position utilising "Borneo" to highlight its location in the branding strategy. According to Baker and Cameron (2008), the ultimate goal of a destination is to inform potential markets of its location. Two different destinations managed by two different DMOs, both utilised their location advantage by incorporating the geographic name in their promotional taglines. But how does destination branding serves its initial purpose to stand out from close competitors? Findings support the use of "Borneo" in Sabah brand as depicted in the official tourism promotional logo and tagline has strengthen the brand positioning in global market. Comparing the two states' tourism logos and taglines, it was found that Sabah features a strong image as Borneo is linked with "wildlife and rainforest" conservation image. Since the early 1990s, Sabah has always incorporated the word "Borneo" into its taglines to highlight "location" as well as the main attraction as ecotourism from the earliest "Sabah-Borneo's Paradise" to the recent "Sabah, Malaysian Borneo-the land of eco treasures from mountain high to ocean deep". The tagline keeps changing but focus remains on highlighting its location. Brand Borneo utilises it location to reach out to the world, exuding images of an exotic destination with endemic flora and fauna, nature and adventure. Geographically, Borneo is a location on the world map, whereas both Sabah and Sarawak are multicultural melting pots complete with unique nature, endemic wildlife, adventure, culture and colonial heritage located on this island. Promotional taglines for these brands have consistently focused on key strengths of nature and adventure for example, "Sabah, Malaysian Borneo – the Land of Eco-treasures from Mountain High to Ocean Deep" versus "Sarawak – Where Adventure Lives". Given that both states use brand Borneo as a location stimuli, the brand works best in Sabah branding because Sabah' projected images is aligned to perceived images of Borneo. Hence, this paper contributes to an understanding of how one brand used by two different DMOs has been utilised in destination branding focusing on the geographic name of an island, instead of a country.

Conclusion

Branding a destination is not promoting tourism (Carvalho & Chowne, 2009). Specialized in stimulating tourists' interest of certain destinations from the alternatives, destination branding also enhances brand awareness and reduces brand confusion. In an attempt to examine brand Borneo to explore if there occurs brand confusion, preliminary findings shows that Sabah image is better aligned with the image of Borneo as a "wildlife and rainforest" conservation destination. Although both DMOs walk a tight rope due to the similarities between their products and both are using "Borneo" in their brands, brand confusion is low because Sabah has been constantly projecting its images matching perceived images of Borneo, while Sarawak projects a clearer image as a destination rich in culture of its indigenous tribes. In addition, this paper suggests that incorporating "Borneo" in the Sabah brand has strengthened the brand positioning in the global marketplace. When perception is more important than reality, image as the first impression of a destination plays an important role. Sabah with better aligned images to Borneo images has been utilising brand Borneo rightfully as its location to reach out to the world, exuding images of an exotic destination with endemic flora and fauna, nature and adventure. Hence, this study suggest that owning brand Borneo in Sabah branding is a valuable strategy as it represents a competitive advantage, as well as highlighting potential markets of its location.

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Apf1667 A Study on Geotourist of Using Augmented Reality Guidance though Brand Experience Model

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Abstract

Along with rapid development of transportation and Information & Communication Technology, Mobile phones with multi-functional applications (Apps) have been useful travel tools for tourists. How to develop wide variety of applications to meet tourist's demand has become one of the primary issues. Therefore, this study aim to research tourists' experience of using Augmented Reality (AR) guidance application to go sightseeing at Yehliu Geopark in northern Taiwan. Destination Brand Experience (DBE) model will be applied as basis to progress partial least squares (PLS) Algorithm and Bootstrapping by using PLS path modeling by SmartPLS 3.0. The findings suggest that DBE is an important determinant of revisit intentions and word-of-mouth. Satisfaction is a strong mediating variation. Besides, there is a distinct variation, sensory DBE, playing a leading role in significant DBE components. The paper concludes with implications for research and practice of AR guidance application.

Keywords: Augmented Reality, Destination Brand Experience, Geopark, Partial Least Squares

Introduction

Along with the rising of global tourism, Geotourism also become a popular travel style for those people who have a passion for knowledge, adventure, new discoveries, and all things real and amazing (Newsome & Dowling, 2006). It is sustainable, and it can also enhance—by means of restorative and constructive forms of tourism that fit the nature of the destination. The destination can be interpreted subjectively by tourist depending amongst other things, on their travel itinerary, cultural background, purpose of visit (Buhalis, 2000). Destination branding is a powerful marketing tool because it can build positive image and emotional links with tourists and experience they perceived (Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2004). Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello (2009)provide a more complete evaluation, brand experience, based on sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioral dimensions of the brand. Barnes, Mattsson, & Sorensen (2014) applied this new theoretical concept into the concept of destination brand experience (DBE).

In Taiwan, Yehliu Geopark is a famous destination for which have magnificent sea-erosion landscape and mushroom rocks, such as "Queen's Head". Attract large numbers of tourists, about 3 million visitors in 2015, around the world to visit. Yehliu Geopark has been a representative geotourism destination brand in Taiwan, but it reveals a fact that the audio guide and navigation tools are insufficient to handle the stream of people. The visit quality in Yehliu Geopark deteriorate, resulting in tourist satisfaction going worse and worse.

Therefore, creating a personal guidance with high mobility, usability and multi-function is one of the ways to improve tourist's travel experience for considerable increasing numberof tourists. In recent years, Augmented Reality (AR) technique has been applied in guide system as an auxiliary function. It allows users to see the real world and perceive an additional virtual world superimposedon the same field of view in real-time (Linaza, Gutierrez, & García).

Many studies have found that AR offers visitors interesting, fun,and challenging experiences, as well as immersive sensations. AR not only improves the participation and motivation of visitors, but also creates a realistic and novel environmentthrough the combination of the real and the virtual (Damala, Cubaud, Bationo, Houlier, & Marchal, 2008;.Klopfer & Squire, 2008; Mulloni, Wagner, & Schmalstieg, 2008). The Operate-Transfer company of Yehliu Geopark, Neo-Space International Inc., release an audio-guide application with AR technique, named Yehliu Tour. We used it as our research instrument and let the tourists experience the park with it.

The objective of this study is to research tourists' experience of using Augmented Reality guidance application at Yehliu Geopark, and determine whether DBE is a significant determinant of tourist satisfaction, intention to revisit and intention to recommend. And we are interested in which elements of DBE impact on tourists by using DBE model and a range of destinations. For the reason, we do purposive sampling in Yehliu Geopark for data collection and utilizes partial least squares (PLS) path modelling for its analysis.

Literature Review

Geopark

In 1999, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) proposed to promote a global network of geoparks for safeguarding and developing areas having significant geological features. Integrating national and international geological conservation, and to elect representative and particular areas from all over the world. In 2004, 17 European and 8 Chinese geoparks came together at UNESCO headquarters in Paris to form the Global Geoparks Network (GGN) where national geological heritage initiatives contribute to and benefit from their membership of a global network of exchange and cooperation.There are 8 geoparks to constitute Taiwan Geoparks Network, aim at fulfilling the core values of landscape conservation, environmental education, community development, and recreation and tourism.

Yehliu Geopark was officially established in 2003. It is the first geopark in Taiwan that symbols a milestone of geological conservation (Shi, 2005). It has always been one of the core tourism development sites because Yehliu Geopark contains rich geology and scenic resources and once fall under the jurisdiction of North Coast and Guanyinshan National Scenic Area. In 2005, the operational right was transferred to a private corporation aiming to develop this site as a global geopark (Chen, 2009). According to the statistics from Neo-Space International Inc., the number of visitors increased dramatically every year (from about 6 hundred thousand visitors in 2005 to about 3 million visitors in 2015) after the operate-transfer (OT), which indicates the importance of management and the attraction of geotourism.

Destination Brand Experience

Destination is a combination of local tourism resources, activities, product, services and experience in tourism (Ekinci, & Hosany, 2006; Ekinci, Sirakaya-Turk, & Baloglu, 2007 & Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2007). In order to strengthen the marketing advantages of tourism destinations, the brand of destinations must be constructed (Clarke, 2000). Because destination brandingis a powerful marketing tool that can build a positive image and emotional links with visitors andunderpinning destination branding are the perceived experiences that a visitor will have at a destination(Morgan, Pritchard, & Pride, 2004). It can also make visitors generate loyalty, including intention of revisit and recommend, which is difficult to convert (Park & Petrick, 2006).

With the experience economy era has come, Pine and Gilmore (1998) took consumer experience as a commodity; service is a stage of the enterprises to serve their commodities. Brand experience can be applied to all products and services, including complex product such as tourism experience (Buhalis, 2000). Hudson and Ritchie (2009) construct the destination brand experience into four distinct stages: a need to assess the destination’s current situation, develop a brand identity and promise, communicate that promise, and then measure the brand’s effectiveness.

Brakus et al. (2009) point out that much of the research on experiences has focused on utilitarian product attributes and category experiences rather than brands. They draw on the work of Pine and Gilmore (1999) and Schmitt (1999) for a variety of consumer product brands to identify five key areas of consumer experience: sense, feel, think, act and relate, then proposed a new scale for brand experience that has been rigorously test. The new brand experience scale is composed of four dimensions: sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioral brand experience. Barnes et al. (2014) applied the new scale to examines destination branding via new conceptualization, destination brand experience (DBE), and the role of DBE components in determining revisit intentions and word-of-mouth recommendations.

Augmented Reality guidance

Milgram and Kishino (1994) discussed that AR displays in a general sense, within the context of a Reality-Virtuality (RV) continuum. AR refer to display systems where computer generated images are either analogically or digitally overlaid onto real world in monitors. Recent advances in mobile computing, computer graphics, wireless and sensor technologies allow for the fast development of Augmented Reality (AR) applications on smartphones and tablets. Various commercial applications have recently been emerging in the mobile consumer domain at an increasing pace — Layar, Junaio, Google Goggles, and Wikitude are perhaps the most prominent ones (Olsson, T., & Salo, M. 2011). It can also be applied in various different industries because it can more extensively and directly contact with users.

In tourism industry, much of tourists is lack of cognition of destinations, even have no relevant knowledge about them (McKercher & du Cros, 2003). AR-enabled smartphone applications help destination-based information receiving because it make tourists connect attractions with their prior knowledge and provides additional new knowledge relevant to the sites. The main benefit is that tourists are able to view variable information about an object of interest that is placed immediately in context (Olsson & Väänänen-Vainio-Mattila, 2011). In the literature and application of past, Vlahakis, Ioannidis, Karigiannis, Tsotros, Gounaris, Stricker, Gleue, Daehne and Almeida (2002) developed Archeoguide, short for Augmented Reality-Based Cultural Heritage On-Site Guide, with outdoor tracking, mobile computing, 3D visualization, and augmented reality techniques to enhance information presentation, reconstruct ruined sites, and simulate ancient life at Greece’s Olympia archaeological site. Priestnall (2009) presented a methodology for the use of 3D modelling, landscape visualization and augmented reality technique in the context of real-world experience. The techniques are used to complement the physical geography components of fieldwork by augmenting real scenes with hidden (geological) and past (glaciated) landscapes.

“Yehliu Tour” is the first typical GPS-based smartphone AR guidance application for geotourists in Taiwan. However, there is still a lack of a wider adoption by the general public. To fill the gap and to spread the application information of smart guidance system are one of our main objectives of the research.

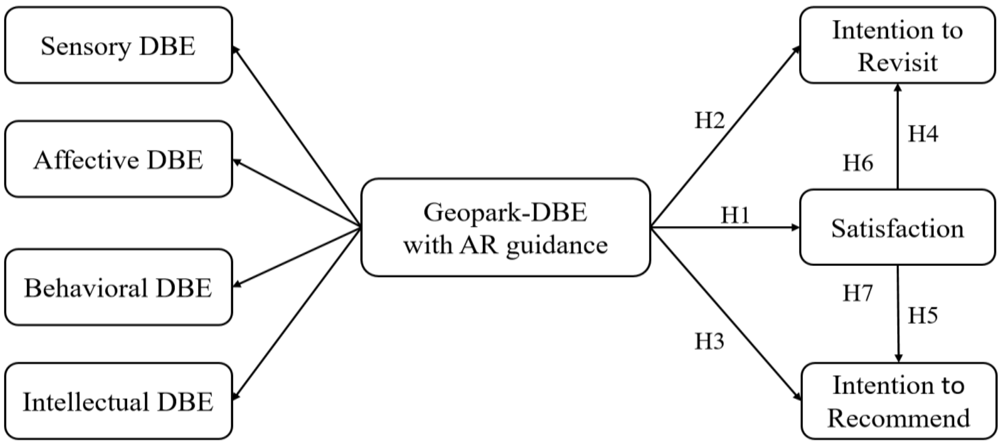
Methodology

The study focuses on purposive sampling of tourists who are willing to experience the environment with "Yehliu Tour", the AR guidance application in Yehliu Geopark. Data were collected via a survey at the entrance of Yehliu Geopark between 23th of January and 6th of February 2016. In order to avoid literally cognitive differences between foreign tourists using different languages, we focus on Taiwanese respondents. We provided tablets with "Yehliu Tour" for respondents and teach them how to operate it for about 3 minutes. After they done the experience, we asked respondents complete the questionnaires.

The survey utilized the recent brand destination experience scale of Barnes et al. (2014), modified to reflect our specific domain under investigation. The scale is composed of four aspects of destination brand experience: sensory, affective, intellectual and behavioral. In addition, the survey also collected measures of satisfaction, intention to recommend, and revisit intention refer to previous studies (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009; Hudson & Ritchie, 2009; Maklan & Klaus, 2011; Garcia, Gomez, & Molina, 2012). The research model and hypotheses were illustrated in Fig. 1, in this study context, we took a purposive approach to select representative geopark in Taiwan and geotourists who are willing to coordinate our AR-viewed application experience investigation.

The survey questions included demographic variables and 22 items of the subcontracts were measured by using 7-point Likert scales. Utilizing partial least squares path modelling, including Algorithm and Bootstrapping in statistic software SmartPLS 3.0 for its analysis.

Fig. 1.Research model and hypotheses.



Tables 1 and 2 present the reliability and validity of the "Geopark-DBE with AR guidance" construct based on a confirmatory factor analysis using SmartPLS 3.0. Convergent validity of the construct was measured 4 criteria: (1)all indicator loadings ranged from 0.724 to 0.909 exceed 0.7 and more strongly on their own construct (Chin, 1998); (2) average variance extracted (AVE) which ranged from 0.636 to 0.780 above the recommend level of 0.50, for constructs were considerably larger than squared inter-correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981); (3) the composite reliability (CR) for the sub-constructs ranged from 0.839 to 0.914 above the recommended level of 0.7 (Nunnally, 1978); (4) Cronbach's alpha . Overall, all items loaded on their expected constructs very strongly at P Values < 0.001.

Table 1 Psychometric analysis of the brand experience constructand descriptive statistics.

Sub-construct	Items	Mean	Std. Dev.	Loading	Std. Error	T-statistic
Sensory DBE AVE = 0.710 CR = 0.880 α=0.784	1. Yehliu Geopark makes a strong impression on my senses, visually and in other ways with AR guidance application.	5.56	1.007	0.865	0.065	44.072***
	2. I find the Yehliu Geopark interesting in a sensory way with AR guidance application.	5.61	1.096	0.889	0.071	48.344***
	3. Yehliu Geopark does not appeal to my senses with AR guidance application (r)	5.20	1.002	0.769	0.065	27.189***
Affective DBE AVE = 0.780 CR = 0.914 α=0.859	1. Yehliu Geopark induces feelings and sentiments when I using AR guidance application.	4.54	1.142	0.909	0.074	52.837***
	2. I don't have strong emotions for Yehliu Geopark with using AR app guidance. (r)	4.04	1.475	0.837	0.096	35.495***
	3. When I using AR guidance application, I find Yehliu Geopark is an emotional area.	4.50	1.154	0.901	0.075	74.694***
Behavioral DBE AVE = 0.724 CR = 0.887 α=809	1. I engage in physical activities and behaviourswhen I am using AR guidance application in Yehliu Geopark.	5.30	0.964	0.825	0.062	21.911***
	2. Yehliu Geopark gives me bodily experiences when I am using AR guidance application.	5.39	0.995	0.881	0.064	55.411***
	3. "Yehliu Tour" is not activity oriented. (r)	4.98	0.985	0.845	0.064	59.201***
Intellectual DBE AVE =0.636 CR = 0.839 α=0.709	1. I engage in a lot of thinking when I am using AR guidance application in Yehliu Geopark.	5.37	1.006	0.890	0.065	68.770***
	2. Using AR guidance application in Yehliu Geopark does not make me think. (r)	5.72	0.967	0.769	0.063	22.706***
	3. "Yehliu Tour" stimulates my curiosity andproblem solving.	5.14	1.070	0.724	0.069	18.960***

Note: *** denotes p < .001; (r) indicates reverse-coded items.

Table 2 Test for discriminant validity (Squared correlations < AVE).

	SEN	AFF	BEH	INT	SAT	WOM	REV	AVE
Sensory DBE (SEN)	**1**							0.710
Affective DBE (AFF)	0.533	**1**						0.780
Behavioral DBE (BEH)	0.513	0.521	**1**					0.724
Intellectual DBE (INT)	0.604	0.608	0.609	**1**				0.636
Satisfaction (SAT)	0.571	0.504	0.526	0.559	**1**			—
Intention to Recommend (WOM)	0.511	0.452	0.552	0.559	0.817	**1**		—
Intention to Revisit (REV)	0.440	0.311	0.514	0.417	0.661	0.812	**1**	—
AVE	0.710	0.780	0.724	0.636	—	—	—	—

Results

Table 3 present the profiles of the respondents. Briefly, 121 (51.1%) of the respondents are male, and 116 (48.9%) are female; 121 (51.1%) are between 21 and 30 years old and 64 (27%) are between 31 and 40 years old; 155 (65.4) are unmarried and 82 (34.6%) are married; 145 (61.2%) had college degrees and 36 (15.2%) had high school degree; 76 (32.1%) are students and 71 (30%) service industry workers, 83 (35%) respondents earn less than NT$ 20,000 each month and 61 (25.7%) had monthly incomes of NT$ 30,001-40,000; 114 (48.1%) respondents live in northern Taiwan and 58 (24.5%) live in central Taiwan.

Table 3 The profiles of the respondents.

Variable	Items	*N*	%
Gender	Male	121	51.1
	Female	116	48.9
Age(years)	Less 20	23	9.7
	21-30	121	51.1
	31-40	64	27.0
	41-50	27	11.4
	51-60	2	0.8
	Over 61	0	0
Marital status	Unmarried	155	65.4
	Married	82	34.6
Educational level	Junior high school and below	22	9.2
	High school	36	15.2
	University or college	145	61.2
	Graduate school	34	14.3
Occupation	Office or teacher	43	18.1
	Agriculturist, famer, fisherman	7	3.0
	Labourer and business	27	11.4
	Service industry	71	30.0
	Housewife	5	2.1
	Student	76	32.1
	Retired	8	3.4
Monthly income (NT$)	≦20,000	83	35.0
	20,001-30,000	41	17.3
	30,001-40,000	61	25.7
	40,001-50,000	42	17.7
	50,001-60,000	8	3.4
	≧60,001	2	0.8
Residence	Northern Taiwan	114	48.1
	Central Taiwan	58	24.5
	Southern Taiwan	51	21.5
	Eastern Taiwan	12	5.1
	Other areas	2	0.8

The results of testing the research model using PLS path modeling for testing Hypotheses 1 to 5 in SmartPLS 3 are presented in Table 4. The results of mediation tests using Sobel test as Lowry, P. B., & Gaskin, J. (2014) to test Hypothesis 6 and 7, which are shown in Table 5.

Table 4 Path modeling test of research model by using bootstrapping.

H	Relationship	Path Coeff.	St. Err.	t	P Values	f^2
H1a	Sensory DBE → Satisfaction	0.207	0.014	14.823	**<0.001**	0.080
H1b	Affective DBE → Satisfaction	0.198	0.023	8.632	**<0.001**	0.019
H1c	Behavioral DBE → Satisfaction	0.220	0.016	14.199	**<0.001**	0.026
H1d	Intellectual DBE → Satisfaction	0.189	0.017	10.926	**<0.001**	0.057
	Satisfaction: $R^2 = 0.444$; $F = 48.580$; $p < .001$					
H2a	Sensory DBE → Intention to Revisit	0.165	0.018	9.144	**<0.001**	0.005
H2b	Affective DBE → Intention to Revisit	0.157	0.022	7.083	**<0.001**	0.067
H2c	Behavioural DBE → Intention to Revisit	0.174	0.019	9.032	**<0.001**	0.067
H2d	Intellectual DBE → Intention to Revisit	0.150	0.019	7.999	**<0.001**	0.002
H4	Satisfaction → Intention to Revisit	0.551	0.084	6.651	**<0.001**	0.298
	Revisit Intention: $R^2 = 0.446$; $F = 33.258$; $p < .001$					
H3a	Sensory DBE → Intention to Recommend	0.199	0.014	14.023	**<0.001**	0.001
H3b	Affective DBE → Intention to Recommend	0.190	0.021	9.179	**<0.001**	0.029
H3c	Behavioural DBE → Intention to Recommend	0.212	0.016	13.311	**<0.001**	0.029
H4c	Intellectual DBE → Intention to Recommend	0.182	0.016	11.034	**<0.001**	0.032
H5	Satisfaction → Intention to Recommend	0.701	0.049	14.221	**<0.001**	0.854
	WOM: $R^2 = 0.682$; $F = 47.547$; $p < .001$					

Note: H – Hypothesis

Table 5 Mediated effects through satisfaction in the research model by Sobel test.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Effect	St. Err.	Z	P Values
Sensory DBE	Intention to Revisit	0.216	0.076	3.776	**<0.001**
Affective DBE	Intention to Revisit	-0.071	0.057	1.238	0.108
Behavioural DBE	Intention to Revisit	0.335	0.065	2.393	0.008
Intellectual DBE	Intention to Revisit	0.178	0.079	3.510	**<0.001**
Sensory DBE	Intention to Recommend	0.169	0.045	4.378	**<0.001**
Affective DBE	Intention to Recommend	0.047	0.040	1.255	0.105
Behavioral DBE	Intention to Recommend	0.232	0.041	2.527	0.006
Intellectual DBE	Intention to Recommend	0.318	0.059	3.055	**<0.001**

From Tables 4 and 5, there is obvious support for each of the hypotheses. First, all of the DBE components were significant in determining the outcome measures in Table 4. And there is a stronger support for the behavioral DBE component of the DBE scale in significantly determining satisfaction (H1c: $\beta = 0.220$, $p < 0.001$), intention to revisit (H2c: $\beta = 0.174$, $p < 0.001$) and intention to recommend (H3c: $\beta = 0.212$, $p < 0.001$).

Secondly, there is strong support for the relationships between satisfaction and both intention to revisit (H4: $\beta = 0.551$, $p < 0.001$) and intention to recommend (H5: $\beta = 0.701$, $p < 0.001$). Overall, significant proportions of variance in the outcome measures are explained by the research model including 44.4% of intention to recommend ($R^2 = 0.444$; $F = 48.580$; $p < 0.001$), 44.6% of intention to revisit ($R^2 = 0.446$; $F = 33.258$; $p < 0.001$) and 68.2% of satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.682$; $F = 47.547$; $p < .001$).

A test for the mediating effect of satisfaction on the relationships between DBE and both intention to revisit and intention to recommend reveals confirmation of hypotheses 6 and 7. Satisfaction acts as a significant mediator for 2 elements of DBE in our model, including sensory DBE upon intention to revisit (H6a: effect = 0.216, z = 3.776, $p < 0.001$) and intention to recommend (H7a: effect = 0.169, z = 4.378, $p < 0.001$), and intellectual DBE upon intention to revisit (H6d: effect = 0.178, z = 3.510, $p < 0.001$) and intention to recommend (H7d: effect =0.318, z = 3.055, $p < 0.001$).

Discussion

As we can see from Table 6, we have found at least partial support for each hypothesis in our research model. The research model is based on the destination brand experience scale from Barnes et al. (2014), which consisting of four components of DBE. All the aspects are significant at each location and the construct is a significant influence on satisfaction, intention to revisit and intention to recommend in this study.The mediating role of satisfaction between DBE and intention to revisit and recommend in our study is partial supported (H6a, d and H7a, d).

Table 6 Summary of results of hypothesis testing

Hypothesis	Relationship	Results
H1	DBE → Satisfaction	Supported
H2	DBE → Intention to Revisit	Supported
H3	DBE → Intention to Recommend	Supported
H4	Satisfaction → Intention to Revisit	Supported
H5	Satisfaction → Intention to Recommend	Supported
H6	Mediation:DBE → Satisfaction → Intention to Revisit	Partially Supported: H6a, H6d
H7	Mediation:DBE → Satisfaction → Intention to Recommend	Partially Supported: H7a, H7d

Those results suggest that tourists' outcomes are most driven by how they feel physiologically, mentally and emotionally as their senses encounter all kinds of stimuli from the AR guidance application. Including the visual, tactile and auditory experience from the audio-guidance, and the knotty Mission Stamp by using AR, a game of stamps collection, in "Yehliu Tour". There also are some interesting or touching stories about Yehliu Geopark, e.g. the statue of Lin Tianzhen which reminds people a story about the local fisherman bravely jumped into the sea to save the student who fell into the sea by accident, but unfortunately both of them are drown in the end. The Table 5 indicates only sensory DBE and intellectual DBE are significantly influencing intention to revisit and recommend though the satisfaction mediating. The result point to the important supplementary nature of satisfaction in processing sensory and intellectual DBE for tourists. Satisfaction is not just an outcome but an important element of the process of creating stronger DBE for tourists with AR guidance application and should be developed and managed accordingly.

The Geo-DBE is likely to improve according to the tailored AR guidance application for geotourists and the management of the perceived experience of the app is vital because the app can therefore be applied to enhance the destination. According to result of the research, the Destination Management Organization (DMO) could modify the direction of the development of AR guidance application, such as the visual effect and operation of the app. Upgrade the sensory effect or even create a new pervasive AR games in the application could provide an interesting and interactive way to guide tourists through different attractions in geopark (Linaza et al, 2013).

There is one limitation of this research is that the tourists in Yehliu Geopark came from all over the world with different culture background, they might have another view on the literal cognition of the questionnaire. But, in order to eliminate the culture barriers, we focus on sampling Taiwanese visitor. Future research could seek to test the destination brand experience scale for a wider range of destination brands in a wider variety of countries and different types of destinations that are more representative of a range of DBE profiles.

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Apf1668 Organizational Culture Impact on CSR Practise in Gaming Industry: A Case Study in Macau

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Abstract

Introduction

Legalized casino gambling in China only exists in Macau, a city that goes through thick and thin together with the gambling industry. The tax of gambling reached 136.7 billion MOP and contributed to 84.5% of fiscal revenues in 2014 (DSEC 2015*). Because of the prosperity of gambling, the local businesses were struggling to compare with the incentive schemes offered by the casinos and were losing a sizeable chunk of their workforce (Luo, Lam, Li, & Shen, 2016). In the meanwhile, problem gambling sprawls into the local communities. Facing the shift of government strategy as orchestrating Macau a leisure tourism city, how to keep gambling industry developing sustainably arised attention of local government and major operators, thus the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility(CSR) has been utilized, the Responsible Gambling(RG) as one of the factors of CSR has been mentioned frequently to Casino reports.

The last but not the least, with the unique history of Macau and particular image of gambling, it shows cultural shock created by the estern and the western here. Among the six major casino groups, three of them are domestic and rest of them are overseas investment. Different cultural backgrounds make the management styles different. For practicing the CSR properly by local government and major operators, understanding the organizational culture of each casino group makes sense. There is limited study addressed this issue, this study tries to investigate the relationship between Organizational Culture and CSR implementation in the Macau gaming industry. The specific objectives of this study are as follows:

- To historical review CSR implementation of the gambling operators in Macau.
- To examine the Organization Culture factors that would influence CSR practice s among the gambling operators.
- To improve gambling operator’s CSR practice.

Literature Review

The concept of Organizational culture(OC) can be traced back to the 1970s(Pettiggrew,1979), even though there has no universal definition, most researchers emphasizetwo perspectives---the mental and behaviors. In this paper, OC was defined as a set of shared mental assumptions that the corporate learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration,that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore, to be taught to new members acting appropriate behavior to percieve,think and feel in relation to those situations (Schein, 1995; Yu & Choi, 2014).OC covers moral,social,and behavioral norms of one's organization based on the values,beliefs,attitudes,and priorities of its members(Ahiabor,2014).OC does not only affect the manner in which managers manage and consequently shape employee behavior,but also the total output and the way it provides

services to its customers (Ahiabor, 2014). Furthermore, OC can gain brand loyalty among its customers and distinguish itself from competitors (Guiso, Sapienza, & Zingales, 2015). According to earlier studies, several methods have been employed to classify OC, in this paper which focus on gambling industry, OC will be measured as western part and eastern part(Han, 2011; Husted, 2015;Kale & Spence, 2008; Tang, Gallagher,& Bie,2014).

The CSR practice emerged before the First World War, Husted(2015) provided a brief introduction in the United Kingdom, United States, Japan, India, and Germany, and get a conclusion that service, civic mindedness, welfare work, and trusteeship were the terms by which authors and business people referred to CSR from the mid-nineteenth century to the First World War. In three decades, CSR concept has been developed through multiple studies and it shows a shift that emphasis on understanding CSR has transited to finding factors can improve CSR. For the financial performance of CSR, there are still many debates about whether CSR will affect financial performance and at what kind of conditions that financial benefit can emerge(Djukic& Lepojevic, 2015). According to product perspective, Chernev and Blair (2015) found that CSR can influence the way consumers evaluate a company's products, even when consumers can directly observe and experience the product. But Luchs, Naylor, Irwin, and Raghunathan (2010) held oppositive view. Recently, Harjoto, Laksmana, and Lee 2015) found that board diversity significantly increases CSR performance by increasing CSR strengths and reducing CSR concerns for firms producing customer-oriented products and firms operating in more competitive industries. CSR has been defined by many international communities such as the International Organization of Employers (IOE) and the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD).In this study, we quoted the definition of CSR as “the process through which various individuals, organizations, institutions, environmental and community leaders affect enterprise to restore and repair the compensation responsibility to make social a balanced and sustained robust operation”(Yang, Huang, Huang, & Huang, 2016). For the contribution of CSR, this study view on a micro level and a macro level. At the micro level, CSR influence organizational members'attitudes and behaviors by shaping their values and priorities within individual companies.At the macro level,CSshapes society's expectations of corporations (Tang, et al., 2014). According to Tang, et al.(2014), most of the comprehensive studies of CSR adopt a political-economic, cultural, or institutional approach or a combination of them, they also considered the industry as a mezzo-level factor influencing CSR practices and communication.Dahlsrud (2008)’s five dimensions which analyzed by stakeholder, social, economic, voluntariness and environmental.

The analysis between OC and CSR is few. According to the limited early studies, the OC can affect CSR but CSR can’t effect OC directly. Ü bius and Alas (2015) divided the culture into a hierarchy, market, clan, and adhocracy culture as the framework, and utilized ANOVA-test and the linear regression analysis to find statistically relevant connection CSR and OC with eight samples countries. They found that market culture type predicts the firm performance concerning social issues and different OC types are dominating in enterprises from different countries. They also found that OC is influencing on national culture where the corporation is operating. Jackson, Vadi, and Tamm (2009) investigated the effect of OC on CSR in service companies in Estonia. They conducted an Organizational culture Questionnaire and supplemented by CSR data which provided by top managers or appropriate persons in all organizations as a response to a questionnaire. Results can’t support their hypothesis what strong OC characterizes the higher CSR performance. But relationship orientation was more strongly correlated with most CSR elements. This paper is the first attempt to systematically relate OC with its CSR behavior. Yu and Choi (2014) applied stakeholder theory to find out the impact on Chinese firms' adoption of CSR practices. They used a two-stage approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing(1998) and structural equation modeling(SEM) to test the research hypotheses. What the data told is that CSR-oriented OC has a completely mediating role on the relationship between stakeholder pressure and the adoption of CSR practices. Their finding suggested that Chinese companies should promote a well-established CSR-oriented culture within a CSR paradigm shift more effectively and thus gain a sustainable competitive advantage over their companies.

Method

According to the literature review, dimensions of OC adopted Übius and Alas (2015)'s concept that considering OC as four dimensions---the hierarchy, market, clan, and adhocracy emerge to be the framework. In the meanwhile, the CSR part referenced Blowfield and Murray (2011)'s seven areas of corporate responsibility activities: Leadership, vision and values; marketplace activities; workforce activities; supply chain activities; stakeholder engagement; community activities and environment activities. Furthermore, the dimensions of CSR accepted Tang(2015)'s mesa-level factor---"industry" as the sixth dimension. Considering the unique image of gambling, the Responsible Gaming, the CSR branch most frequently appears in casinos' reports is the seventh dimension. Combined the 19-item questions which are quoted from Übius and Alas (2015)'s questionnaire for OC measurement and the 31 classes of activities of Blowfield and Murray (2011)'s seven areas attached the 10 activity-item of industry and RG for CSR measurement. These items and demographic information composed our pilot questionnaire. After that, we conducted in-depth interviews for casino executives and the professors appropriate at CSR knowledge. After in-depth interviews, the questionnaire was modified based on the feedback from those experts. The adjusted questionnaire fit the need of our study objectives and were going to utilize on the pilot test before the formal survey. A well-established multiple-item 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1("strongly disagree") to 5("strongly agree") was adopted to observe variables in this study. Detail items of the questions will be published in the full paper later. Final questionnaires were answered by 300 employees who work in the six casino groups, each of the casino groups need to be asked by 50 employees average. For the next step, we used a two-stage approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1998) to test the research objectives. The first stage is a confirmatory factor analysis(CFA) to access the validity of the model's measurement. The second stage begins once the measurement model is validated.

Findings

The OC concept has become popular in CSR literature as it provides an access point in the fields of human resources and organization behavior for corporate social performance(Yu& Choi, 2014). On the basis of above analysis, we found that Macau local casinos' emphasis on CSR obvioursly differ from overseas investment casino groups. What's more, the OC directly impact on CSR in the gambling industry, even early study found that Chinese companies are lack of consciousness of CSR, Macau local casino groups perform well than overseas investment on comprehensive perspectives. The data also show that CSR impact OC indirectly. In spite of this, the stakeholder activities and the adoption of CSR practices have a full connection connected by CSR-oriented Organizational culture, which finding is fit for the early study of Yu and Choi (2014). OC is usually regarded as the primary reason for the failure of organization change program such as environmental practices, stakeholder authorities, and leadership. Some scholars suggest that a change of tools, techniques, or strategies may result in failure if the fundamental culture of the organization remains the same (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). It suggests that the successful implementation of cultural change for the sake of CSR might be largely dependent on the values and ideological underpinnings of the organization's culture and that these in turn affect CSR implementation and the types of outcomes observed(Yu & Choi, 2014).

Implications & Conclusion

This study provides a case in Macau to find out the impact of OC on CSR in the gambling industry, what can guide the local governors and major operators to benefit themselves and develop the social sustainably and harmoniously. Moreover, it tries to build an effective framework of OC and CSR in gambling area to help researchers understanding OC and CSR in a new degree which can enhance the academic field in OC and CSR. We can get a conclusion here that there isa strong impact of OC on CSR in the gambling industry in Macau, and the relationship between them is one way.

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Apf1669 Photo-elicitation using Q-method in Focus Groups: An Innovative Method in Recognising Sense of Place for a Marine Park in Borneo, Malaysia.

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Abstract

Tourism destinations often visited by the host residents suggests that they are an important part of the environment. Tunku Abdul Rahman Park is a marine national park highly visited by both local recreationists and tourists due to its strategic proximity to the capital city, Kota Kinabalu, Malaysia. This paper rationalizes the need to explore the relationship between *sense of place (SOP), hosts,* and *sustainability* (at TARP) utilising a unique combination of methods – photo-elicitation, Q-methodology and focus group interviews. Results from a pilot study revealed that TARP is indeed meaningful to the hosts of Kota Kinabalu. Four themes emerged from the data: *Hedonia-seeking, Aesthetics appreciation, Seclusion and Companionship.* Therefore, this study suggests that sense of place preservation is imperative to retain a uniqueness of character, allows the host community to maintain their sense of belonging and host sustainably. This paper fills a gap in an under-researched area in understanding place meanings of host communities in a marine tourism destination.

Keywords: Focus Group, Host, Marine Park, Photo-elicitation, Q-methodology, Sense of Place, Sustainability.

Introduction

Tourist destinations have mostly been studied based on their physical context. While a tourism destination is indeed a combination of physical spaces (Snepenger, Snepenger, Dalbey, & Wessol,2007), it is an instrument to ultimately generate experiences. Shared by both tourists and host communities, tourist destinations are able to reveal a social communication system offering insights to the value behind the experiences gained and the symbolic nature of these destinations (Snepenger, Murphy, Snepenger & Anderson, 2004).

As tourism places are usually consumed by tourists (McKercher, Wong & Lau, 2006; Skipper, 2009) thus studies on tourism destination meanings are usually ascribed to them.

While tourists may develop attachment to a destination because of the ability of the destination to fulfil needs or goals (Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010), these places are more meaningful to the host communities which forms the fundamental position in any tourism system (Burns & Sofield, 2001). In this paper, the tourism destination is examined by understanding the relationships, experiences and attribute meanings of Tunku Abdul Rahman Park (TARP) host communities to the marine park utilising a unique combination of methods – photo-elicitation, Q-methodology and focus group interviews.

Host communities are the population that live in the tourism destination (Burns & Sofield, 2001; Mason, 2008). However, studies on hosts were given less prominence in the tourism literature (Murphy, 2013) even as they are directly and indirectly contributing to the tourism industry and are usually at the receiving end of the tourism activities of a destination (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; UNWTO, 2012). According to Relph (1976), one could unconsciously develop a bond with a place that they consider as their 'root', where they come from and feel safe at. Overtime, sense of place – the concept of understanding meaning upon a place, is developed when an individual resides at an area and develops relationship with not only the people but familiarity with the environment. As it is possible to encourage others to have a sense of place (Rogers and Bragg, 2012), this paper suggests that the host community with a high sense of belonging would be able to convey their SOP to the guests through cultural and social interactions, and providing local products and services.

This study focuses on TARP in Sabah on the island of Borneo, Malaysia, which is not only the first marine national park in Sabah but also a popular tourism destination. This park is highly visited by both local recreationists and tourists due to its strategic proximity to the capital city, Kota Kinabalu. Gazetted in 1974, it covers an area of 50 square kilometres and consists of five islands: Gaya, Sapi, Manukan, Mamutik and Sulug, which continue to evolve, develop and generate high tourism receipts for marine tourism in Sabah. TARP offers a vast range of activities, accommodation and services for visitors. The activities are scuba diving, windsurfing, sea walking, picnicking, parasailing, kayaking and snorkelling among others. Accommodation caters to different markets, from camping sites to luxurious resorts located on the islands. TARP is governed by the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and Environment (Sabah), and the Board of Trustees of Sabah Parks. Currently, governance states that marine life sustainability is the core responsibility in the park for every stakeholder. In addition, the second Tourism Master Plan 2011 – 2025 emphasises sustainable tourism development for TARP. Visitors hop on a twenty-minute boat ride from the city to arrive in TARP for marine-related leisure and recreation. The arrivals of TARP recorded for year 2012, 2013 and 2014 were 398,870, 527,017 and 422,829 arrivals respectively from 95 countries including Malaysia. Meanwhile, local visitors from Sabah made up an average of 20.1% from the total arrivals every year. While most tourism studies of TARP focus on the spectrum of tourists and its tourism resources (eg. Alias & Mansor, 2005; Lo, 2007; Kassim, Jamal, Ahmad & Darson, 2014), studies on the host community of TARP is relegated, which also reflects an under-researched area in the literature on understanding host sense of place in a marine tourism destination.

Meanwhile, the research design for this study uses a qualitative approach which uniquely combines and modifies three methods that are commonly applied individually – focus group, photo-elicitation and Q-method. Focus group inquiry which is applied to induce participants' feelings, beliefs and attitudes is used on the host residents of Kota Kinabalu. Photo-elicitation, a technique under visitor-employed photography seeks to elicit meaningful photos from participants (Harper, 2002). This technique has been associated with the ability to evoke memories that are related to understanding place meanings (Stedman, Beckley, Wallace & Ambard, 2004; Tonge, Moore, Ryan & Beckley, 2013). Moreover, Qmethodology is a method to systematically analyse qualitative data (Brown, 1997; Exel & Graaf, 2005). A partly-adapted Q-method strives to draw and classify these meanings. This amalgamation of methods will provide a clearer understanding of place meanings for the host community of TARP and the attributes that are *concretum* which helped construe and express their sense of place.

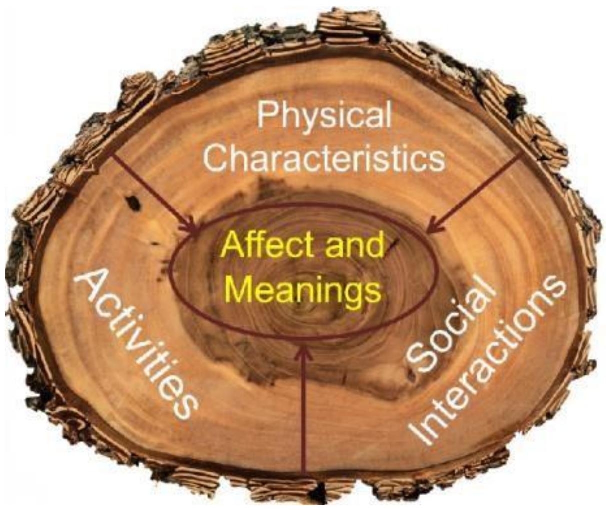
Literature Review

One of the challenges of tourism destinations is the integration of host communities into the tourism experiences and development. Understanding host communities' feelings, experiences and thoughts of a place can encourage co-operation (Pollock, 2013) and are essential for the planning, development and maintenance of the place (Byrd & Cardenas, 2007).

Place and Host Sense of Place

Place is space with meaning. The very definition of place itself was philosophically thought and recorded by one of the earliest place researcher, Yi-Fu Tuan who said that “place is an organised world of meaning; an unchangeable concept” (1977: 179). It is a place with meaning to it and it takes time to explore and understand a place (Tuan, 1974). The lifeless space is awakened through human experiences, relationships, emotions and thoughts converting it into place (Stedman, Beckley, Wallace & Ambard, 2004). Meanwhile, a tourist destination can be viewed as the combination of places that helps to generate experiences (Snepenger, Snepenger, Dalbey, & Wessol, 2007). Shared by both tourists and host communities, tourist destinations reveal a social communication system offering insights to the values behind the experiences and the symbolic nature of these destinations (Snepenger, Murphy, Snepenger & Anderson, 2004).

Earlier, Tuan (1974) coined the concept of ‘Topophilia’ or ‘love of place’ which describes *sense of place* as a strong emotional bond between places and people which is formed by having direct-lived experiences. This concept not only encompasses an understanding of the meaning bestowed upon a place by local residents and also visitors but is opined to be more sensed than measured (Binder, 2008; Sullivan, Schuster, Kuehn, Doble & Morais, 2009). Reviewed previous literatures have well received this idea that the concept of sense of place ultimately expresses the need to identify place meanings (eg; Hay, 1998; Turner & Turner, 2006; Kyle & Chick, 2007; Sullivan, Schuster, Kuehn, Doble & Morais, 2009; Najafi & Shariff, 2011) where place meanings consist of memories, feelings and experiences towards a place. Scannell and Gifford (2010) conclude four general components that form sense of place - *physical characteristics* of the place; *activities* provided and taken place in the place; *socialinteractions* connected with the place; and the *affect and meanings* that includes memories and associations, as well as the connotations and denotations. Note that these components are perceived by previous authors to vary in terms of importance. While many place researchers highlighted the importance of affective and cognitive in forming sense of place (Scannell and Gifford, 2010), Shamsuddin and Ujang (2008) found the physical elements – image and activity, with the latter being the most influential component associated with sense of place. This further supported previous researchers that summed sense of place as subjective and a probable subconscious affair with a place. This paper suggests, by attempting to understand place meanings (the core), sense of place can be unravelled from the rind (as illustrated in figure 1.0).



Chapter 1 Figure 1.0: Components of Sense of Place

Meanwhile, host sense of place studies in marine tourism destinations is still an under-studied area in the literature except for Wynveen, Kyle & Sutton (2010) that have conducted a study in the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park, Australia. For the hosts of a destination, their sense of place can be derived intrinsically or constructed extrinsically through events, education or tourism activities. Relph (1976) proposed that one could unconsciously develop a bond with the place that one considers as their 'root', where they come from and feel safe at. Besides that, Pollock (2013) also suggested that hosts who believe their culture and home are sacred will feel obliged to preserve and protect them. Over time, sense of place is developed when an individual resides at an area and develops relationship with not only the people but familiarity with the environment. Extrinsically, the community sense of place can be developed through the pursuit of art and culture by the community (Hodgson, 2011), tourism activities (Ezeani, 2012), religious and historical beliefs (Ghorpade & Kulkarni, 2013), among others. These findings are in line with other literature (see Tuan 1977; Jackson 1994; Million 1992) and once this strong sense of belonging is created, is difficult to give up or change (Rogers & Bragg, 2012). Additionally, Rogers and Bragg (2012) noticed that it is possible to encourage others to have a sense of place; thus the host community with high sense of belonging with their place would be able to convey their sense of place to guests. Indeed, it is imperative to understand that hosts' sense of place is not shallow but is attached with strong values and beliefs; and this study suggests that if used, are possible to contribute to a substantial growth of a tourism destination.

Hosting for Destination Sustainability?

Sustainability has widely been discussed and it is seen an important element to the industry with many examining the tourism industry through this scope (Swarbrooke, 1999; Kuhlman & Farrington, 2010). According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2005:12), sustainable tourism is defined as the kind of "tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities". While tourism destination sustainability was almost unheard of before the 1980s; today, is more of a right (Miller, 2009). This includes principles; policies, structures and management strategies for tourism development which also protects the natural and man-made resources of a destination for future growth (Lane, 1994). While previous studies suggested that place meanings have a strong influence on community and its place (eg. Tosun, 1998; Halpenny, 2006, 2010; Sullivan, Schuster, Kuehn, Doble & Morais, 2009) but there is limited literature linking host place meanings leading to the possibility of tourism destination sustainability. Therefore, the research question raised is, how important is the host community for a destination and can recognising their sense of place play a role in ensuring the sustainable development of a tourism destination?

While previous studies suggested that place meanings have a strong influence on community and the destination, (eg. Tosun, 1998; Halpenny, 2006, 2010; Sullivan, Schuster, Kuehn, Doble & Morais, 2009) there is little literature directly linking host place meanings leading towards tourism destination sustainability. According to Pollock (2013), tourism is one sector where the host communities can affect change as they are the fundamental component of any tourism systems. The literature suggests that host community is important and they could be a prevalent factor in encouraging or discouraging the sustainability of a destination. According to Burns & Sofield (2001) and Stamboulis & Skayannis (2003), the attitude of the host, products and services; and the cultural and social environment shaped by the host communities have an effect on the receipts of a tourism destination. Also, one of the main principles to ensure continuity and survival of tourism activities and the destination is to identify and understand the knowledge of the host community (Byrd & Cardenas, 2007). The knowledge of host place meanings can be used to enhance participation and connection within the community –

minimising conflicts, create host-guest bonds and foster a safe environment (Washington Department of Commerce, 2012) enabling the destination to provide authentic tourism experiences. As the literature suggests host is an important stakeholder that may influence various areas in a tourism destination, this paper suggests that identifying and preserving host sense of place is key to allow the host community to maintain their sense of belonging and host sustainably for destination sustainability.

'Measuring' Sense of Place

The study of people-place relations originally spurts from the studies in environmental psychology, community psychology, human geography and even architecture and planning (Lewicka, 2011). While most early place studies investigated neighbourhoods, cities, studies on recreation sites and tourist destinations has gained increased popularity (Schroeder, 1996; Creswell, 2007). However, in the last 40 years, most studies on place meanings have been under the measures of quantitative than qualitative (Turner, Mcgregor, Turner & Carroll, 2003; Lewicka, 2011). However, quantitative measures has been criticised as these measures do not offer understanding into place-related emotions and meanings since it operates under the assumption that positive bonds with a place will lead to a certain behaviour (e.g. willingness to revisit).

For researchers observing to understand experiences, emotions and the meanings of places, the qualitative approach applies. This approach can be further divided into two categories: verbal and pictorial. Verbal approach includes in-depth interviews (Van Patten & Williams, 2008; Zhang, Ryan & Cave, 2016), focus group interviews (Bow & Buys, 2003; Khan, 2012), ratings of sentences about places (Stedman, 2003) and soundscapes evaluation (Turner, Mcgregor, Turner & Carroll, 2003). The pictorial approach involve**s** picture or photographs either provided for them or taken by participants (Stedman, Beckley, Wallace & Ambard, 2004; Beckley, Stedman, Wallace & Ambard, 2007; Tonge, J., Moore, S., Ryan, M. & Beckley, L., 2013). More often than not, both of these measures are combined when a participant takes a photograph and comment**s** on it during an interview (Stedman, Beckley, Wallace & Ambard, 2004**)**. However, this method usually applies to individual experiences and not collective thoughts.

In fact, the reason why there is a dearth of studies carrying out photo-elicitation on a collective basis is because there is simply no way to justify these photographs collectively. This paper seeks to address this concern by including an adapted Q-method – the Q-sort into the equation of focus group and photo-elicitation. Exel and Graaf (2005) provide a clear and extensive introduction to Q-methodology explaining how this method aims to help learn about subjective measures such as a person's views, beliefs and opinions in a systematic way. Q-methodology firstly appeared in a letter to *Nature* by William Stephenson, a physicist and psychologist to systematically analyse qualitative data (Brown, 1997). While it was a highly criticised method during his days, Q methodology is gaining popularity, being widely adopted in the social sciences (Brown, 1997) and is beginning to take its place in tourism studies (Stergiou, Airey & Riley, 2003). Several terms to take note in Qmethodology are the Concourse, Q-set, P-set and Q-sort (Figure 2.0). Concourse refers to the collection of all possible statements the respondents are able to make about the topic studied containing all related aspects of discourses involved. Then, the researcher draws samples that represent the concourse termed Q-set. Q-set is referred to a sample set of representations (eg. statements, photographs, comic strips etcetera) derived from the concourse while P-set refers to the selected respondents or participants for the study. Typically, the P-set will rankorder or sort the Q-set by numbers or by categories which is called the Q-sort process. Q sorting would help to reveal the stance of the participants in regards to the topic being investigated while the usual subsequent step after Q-sort is to subject the sorted materials through a factor analysis.

Although Q-methodology is originally a quantitative method making sense of qualitative data and the common subsequent step is to subject the rankings of Q-sort to a factor analysis; the data collection method for this part of the study is only to engage photoelicitation using Q-sort whereas a focus group interview will ensue, factor analysis is deemed unnecessary for the purpose of this study. By combining photo-elicitation and Qmethod in a focus group, this study is able to assess collective thoughts, meanings, sentiments and experiences of the participants in a systematic way as well as identify explicit attributes that contributes to participants' sense of place.

Research Methods

Based on the purpose of this paper, the research design of this study which is exploratory and in-depth employed several qualitative methods that includes, semi-structured focus group interviews, photo-elicitation and an adapted Q-method. Data collection consists of two parts. *Part One* comprises focus group interviews that will be conducted with a purposive sample of participants consisting of local residents. This part aims to identify the stance of the participants through an initial discussion about their relationship and experiences with TARP. Subsequently, *Part Two* involves an innovative combination and alteration of photoelicitation using Q-method followed by focus group discussions. It requires the participants from Part One to visit islands in TARP and take as many photos (elicit photos) as they like which represent the places, experiences and activities that are meaningful to them. These photos initiate the process of the adapted Q-method (illustrated in figure 2.0) as the concourse and a set of photos is chosen (Q-set). The participants (P-set) gather again to begin the process of sorting the Q-set into categories of positive, *neutral* and negative feelings (Q-sort). Then, a further sorting of *less positive*, *more positive*, *less negative* and *more negative* is conducted from the positive and negative pile. Part Two is concluded with another round of focus group interviews to discuss the results from the Q-sort process. This combination of methods is systematic and seeks to be more specific and illuminative in understanding SOP in TARP than the conventional individual or focus group interviews.

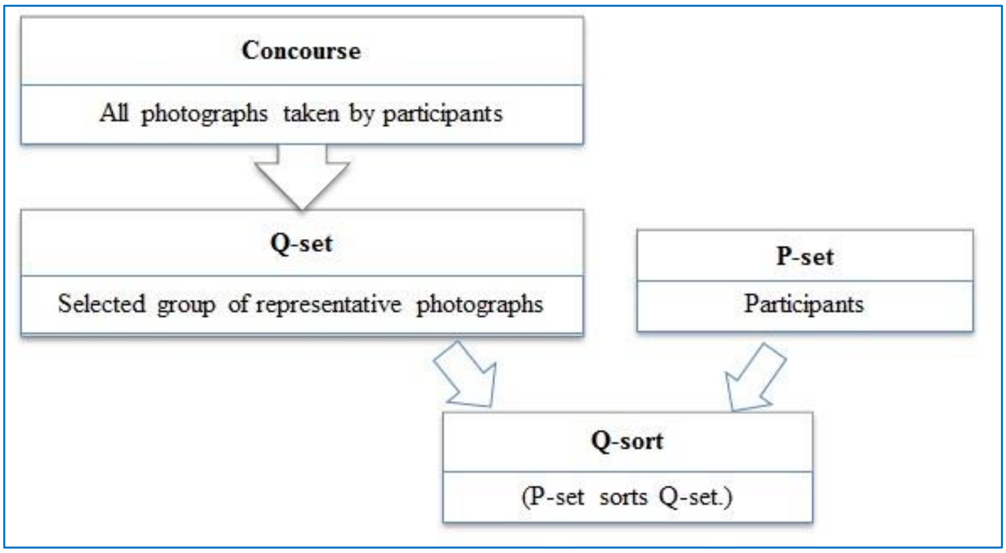


Figure 2.0 Adapted Q-method Process

According to Frey & Fontana, (1993) the question format or the interview structure is dictated by the purpose of the study. Interviews aim to identify and describe participants' feelings or attitudes and can be categorised into three: structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Zhang, Ryan & Cave, 2016). Semi- structured interviews are flexible enough to allow participants express their experiences and meanings for the place to the extent they are comfortable with but are also able to ensure that the participants' interaction stays within the stipulated areas of discussion with the guidance of the *interview guides*. Four key questions and two key questions formed the basic structure of the interview guides for both part one and two respectively, and are listed in Table 1.0. Qualitative research questions usually includes a central question and several sub-questions that relates to each other (Creswell, 2007) For instance, when asking participants' thoughts about their visiting experience in TARP as the central question, the related sub-questions were 'How frequently do you visit TARP? With whom do you usually come with? Why?'

Table 1.0: Base Questions for Interviews

Participants	Interview themes and questions
Host Residents	<u>Part 1</u> Visiting Background for TARP (Interview questions like 'How frequently do you visit TARP?') Favourite places (Interview questions includes 'What are the activities do you do in TARP and which is your favourite?') Development in TARP (What changes do you notice in TARP from your past visits and how do you feel about these changes?) Conveying TARP experience (How would you describe TARP to others that have not been here?) <u>Part 2</u> For the more positive, positive, negative and more negative group of photographs (What are the elements that stood out for you in this photo? What does this photo mean to you?) Neutral photographs (Is there any photo that you wish to discuss? Why?)

A purposive sample is selected based on several criteria representing a range of residents of Kota Kinabalu. As this paper present results from a pilot study, the sample is a group of Kota Kinabalu adults ages 34 and below (Generation Y) who are not working in the tourism industry (n=5) (see Table 2.0). Participants were recruited through a recruitment flyer posted in general boards around Kota Kinabalu city and in the social media. Interested potential participants were then pre-screened to ensure they fulfilled the prerequisites (Jennings, 2010) of had they been to TARP and visited at least two islands. The prescreening is completed over the internet using an online questionnaire. Part One of the interview was conducted on an island at TARP, while interviews for Part Two were conducted back in the mainland. The researcher chatted with each participant when they revealed their interest in joining the study and this brought the participants and researcher closer and reduced unfamiliarity issues during the interviews.

Table 2.0: Participants Biographical Profile

Name* *(*Has been changed)*	**Age**	**Gender**	**Education**	**Occupation**	**Note**
Abelle	25	F	Bachelors	Admin Clerk	She enjoys spending time with her family in TARP
Alan	24	M	STPM/A-levels	Student	He likes hiking and camping
Akyu	25	M	Diploma	Unemployed	Frequent diver
Adial	25	M	Diploma	Pilot	Learnt swimming in TARP
Arwan	25	M	Bachelors	Student	Always visits with friends in groups

Since recording conversations can be a sensitive subject (Zhang, Ryan & Cave, 2016), participants signed a letter of consent to not only allow recordings in the interviews but also to ensure anonymity of their identity. All interviews are recorded (audio and visual) and field notes were made as described in Creswell (2007). Data was transcribed based on six phases for thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and later compared and interpreted to produce themes that describe and explain sense of place towards TARP.

Findings and Discussion

The findings presented in this paper are from the first focus group of a larger study. As the pilot study group, the participants consisted of one female and four males. All participants were in their mid-twenties and fulfilled the age criterion which is to be under 35 years old, are in or have completed tertiary education. Of the five islands, one participant has visited two islands, two participants have been to three islands and one participant each has visited four and all five islands respectively.

Results from this pilot study revealed that TARP is indeed meaningful to the hosts of Kota Kinabalu. Four themes emerged from the data: *Aesthetics appreciation*, *Hedoniaseeking*, *Seclusion and Companionship* and keywords are identified under these themes (see Table 3.0). Hedonia-seeking stood out as the major theme as all participants stated that they visited TARP for relaxation and its nature although the components in each theme can sometimes overlap and be the background of each other.

Table 3.0: Data Keywords for Themes

Hedonia-seeking	**Aesthetics Appreciation**	**Seclusion**	**Companionship**
Keywords			
-Serenity -Peace -Quiet -Relax, laid back -Activities -Nature respect & protection -In-control -Refreshing -Convenience -Satisfied	-Beauty -Cleanliness -Memories, nostalgic -Colourful -Organised -Original form -In place -History	- Crowd-avoidance - Barricade - Invasion - Own place, our place, my home - Secret place - Lost	-Friends and Family - Bonds -The right people

Hedonia-seeking

All participants expressed seeking pleasure when they visit TARP. The islands are places for them to be refreshed and rejuvenated because of its physical natural surroundings and clear waters (Figure 3.0). The components of sense of place, the physical environment or the space (Scannell & Gifford (2010) is an important factor contributing to place affect and meanings. For example, one participant said:

> "We all like the peace and quiet there. These jungle tracks we do back there, to the other side of the island. Just peaceful".
>
> (Alan, 24)

> "Satisfaction. More relaxed. It's like weekend getaway from all the hectic environment. We can see the blue, blue sky and greeneries everywhere because you don't face it every day at your work or around your house also."
>
> (Abelle, 25)

Meanwhile there is evidence that these cognitive and affective meanings lead to behaviours (conative) that contributes to environmental preservation. In line with Pollock (2013) suggestion, hosts that have a sense of home for a place will feel obliged to preserve and protect the place. For instance one participant revealed how he enjoys being underwater in TARP, taking up a protective role of the environment:

> "…it's like you're being in control because on land it is like walking and see up there. But underwater is like you are the king because you are watching the corals and the fish. When the fish sees you, they will like swim away, afraid of you. And I'm like [crossed hands], yeah I'm the king. It's like you're in control underwater. At the same time *I can protect them*."
>
> (Akyu, 25)

Chapter 2 Figure 3.0: Clear Waters in TARP

Interestingly, it is the natural resources (i.e. forest and sea) that most appeal to the host participants, while other novel tourism activities (e.g. sea-walking, parasailing, zip-lining) is what they can do without, especially when the pricing of the activities is unaffordable for the locals. These hedonia-seeking thoughts and behaviour led to this study suggesting that the host community can indeed play a role in supporting sustainability in TARP especially towards its environment.

Aesthetics Appreciation

In order to have a sense of rejuvenation and appreciation for TARP, participants expressed that the beauty of TARP gives them a sense of appreciation and trust that TARP should always be maintained as a beautiful marine national park in terms of both land and sea. Supported by Rogers and Bragg (2012), this sense of belonging will stay once it has been acknowledged. From the Q-sort and interviews, some other most appreciated physical attributes in TARP are of its clear waters and scenic hiking trails and forest. A participant commented:

> "Forest of the trail behind the island (Figure 4.0). This one, no matter how many times I go, no matter when I go; it's *always* clean. ".
> "I feel like the water...things lives inside there. They are not affected by pollution Iguessed.
> "You know you feel so much like everything in its place. Everything is in its original form."
> (Alan, 24)

Chapter 3 Figure 4.0: Hiking trail in Gaya Island

Indeed, this could be the other way around that their sense of belonging also encouraged them to maintain their beauty of TARP. Clarified by a participant about his camping rituals based on countless camping experience in TARP:

> "As if you have guest coming to your home and it's just messy. I feel embarrassed. …
> Usually in the morning when we camp, wake up early in the morning we start cleaning up.
> Even before the workers who are supposed to do that, we already did that. We cleaned up.
> And then, ahh …okay. Now I feel okay. You can come in now."
>
> (Alan, 24)

Indeed, Relph (1976) claim that one develop**s** a bond with a place, considering the place as one's 'root' or home is demonstrated in this study.

Seclusion

For hosts who simply want to be away from the hustle and bustle of the city, TARP is a prime recreational site. Ironically, with the rapid tourism development within TARP and its popularity as a quick getaway for tourist**s** because of its proximity to the city, hosts are forced to seek seclusion even in TARP – in essence, away from being away. The current tourism situation led them to be even more protective of certain areas in the marine park in order to achieve that level of seclusion. This is revealed during the interviews of the conversation between participants:

> **Abelle** : Where do you usually camp?
> **Alan** : I can't tell you."
> -------------------
> "**Alan:** Yeah, we go camping in Gaya and Padang Point. We try not to tell anyone. It's our own place
> **Abelle :** That's my secret place also *[smiles]* (Figure 5.0)
> **Alan:** WHAT?! No, no. That's not your secret place. It's MY secret place. *[smiles]* "

Chapter 4 Figure 5.0: A Secret Place

A summary of the sentiment of visiting TARP is eloquently articulated by one of the participants which exemplified love of place (Tuan, 1974) beyond being in peaceful seclusion:

> "Awesome. Refreshed. We live in KK. Can be fun and everything. But then it gets hectic, crowded. We all kind of have the same thinking, mind-set. ... and sometimes, during the month, we want to escape. Somewhere will be us, somewhere we belong, somewhere where we can call our own place. We go there in the island hiding in our secret place and just… just us. Hanging out and then from our place, we could see the city. We could see what's happening, the traffic... And then we're here, it's peaceful. It keeps us going."
>
> (Akyu, 25)

Meanwhile, there is a need to be careful of the reason that causes such seclusion among the hosts in TARP as it can have an adverse effect on host place meanings and subsequently, the tourism destination (Burns & Sofield, 2001; Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003) as they continue to avoid tourists and novel tourism activities.

Companionship

According to Snepenger, Murphy, Snepenger & Anderson (2004), a tourism destination reveals a social communication system that offers understandings to the values and figurative nature of these destinations. This communication system develops as people interact in TARP in pre-existing groups (families and friends) (Figure 6.0) or between strangers and created:

> "Special memories. That time when my girlfriend brought me here on my birthday. That's the first time we go to an island together. She blind-folded me so it's kind of sweet and she thought me how to swim. We went again after that. *Macam* (seems like) lesson 2.0."
>
> (Adial, 25)

Figure 6.0: Interaction between Father and Child

For some, companionship seems to be a more important element when it comes to recreation in TARP.

> "You go with the right people, you go there at the right place, and then you'll like it. …what we believe is that anywhere can be awesome if you go with the right people. We're always the right people. I go to Sapi I meet Ricky* and I have Mike* there… Like I said, anywhere can be awesome if you go with the right people."
>
> (Alan, 24)

Having the companionship of others that allow communication and social bonding is exactly why it is one of the main components that form sense of place as suggested by the literature. The social interactions that occur in a place bonds people and places together (Scannell & Gifford, 2010) will encourage the host community to work together in ensuring TARP's sustainability as a tourism destination.

In essence, the results of this paper revealed that TARP is indeed meaningful to the hosts of Kota Kinabalu with the emergence of four main themes. Although these themes are distinctive in their own rights, they are also intertwined in the TARP experience. Meanwhile, even as the hosts are seeking to be away from tourist and touristic activities, there is a strong presence of sense of belonging to the park for the hosts of Kota Kinabalu. The findings of the study supports the notion that sense of place preservation is key to retain a uniqueness of character, allows the host community to maintain their sense of belonging and host sustainably.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study described sense of place among the hosts of Kota Kinabalu towards Tunku Abdul Rahman Park, a marine national park in Malaysian Borneo. Four preliminary themes emerged from the data: Hedonia-seeking, Aesthetics appreciation, Seclusion and Companionship. As hosts take the fundamental position in any tourism system (Burns and Sofield, 2001), findings from the study reveals that recognising host sense of place is crucial to retain a unique character of a place, allow local residents to maintain a sense of belonging and to host sustainably. Since the results presented here are of a pilot study, a clearer understanding of the overall research question will only be accessible with further focus groups interviews. For now, this study has achieved the use of an adapted Q-method, combining photo-elicitation techniques, Q-sort and focus group interviews.

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Apf1671 A Comparative Study of Government Mobile Application for Incorporating Food Tourism

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Abstract

The increase in use of mobile device when traveling makes the content of government tourism mobile application a powerful way to promote a destination's cuisine and food culture. Using the method of content analysis, this study explores the contents of information related to the cuisine and gastronomy from the mobile application of Hong Kong, Korea, Taiwan, Thailand, Switzerland, Italy, Scotland, and Czech Republic. By examining how official tourism organizations deliver information and comparing different food tourism marketing strategies of mobile application, this study reveals the strengths and weaknesses of government tourism mobile applications and provides suggestions for promoting food tourism.

Keywords: Food tourism, Smartphone, Content analysis, comparative study

Introduction

Food tourism research has gained enormous attention during the last decade. Previous literature can be either classified as studies about tourists' overall food consumptions (Chang et al., 2010; Guan, 2012; Kim & Eves, 2012) or studies about culinary tourists whose major motivation to travel is food (Kivela & Crotts, 2005; Long, 2004). In either case, the role of food in a destination has been emphasized than ever before since particular food product, cuisine, or restaurant images of a destination can create unique competitiveness of a destination (Ab Karim & Chi, 2010; Hjalager & Corigliano, 2000; Lin et al., 2011).

Meanwhile, the use of smartphone and mobile application in the hospitality and tourism field is rapidly increasing due to its power to affect tourist behavior, emotional states, and consumer decision making (Hannam et al., 2014; Law et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015). In recent years, many countries have put much effort to design government-sponsored tourism mobile application as one of the significant tourism marketing channels for tourists. However, despite the importance of the use of mobile applications for tourists' food experiences in a destination, there has been surprisingly few studies that considered ways to make the best "use" of a government's tourism mobile application, especially focusing on a destination's food attractions. In addition, very limited research has conducted comparative studies in order to examine the use of government tourism mobile application. Thus, the objectives of this study are, firstly to examine how official tourism organizations offer information and interact with users in the mobile application from food tourism perspective, secondly to compare and contrast their food marketing strategies in mobile application, and lastly to reveal strengths and weaknesses of mobile applications and provide suggestions to promote food tourism based on the analyses.

Literature Review

2.1 Tourists' food experiences in a destination

Previous literature indicates that different types of tourists are likely to seek different kinds of food experiences in a destination (Bardhi et al., 2010; Boyne et al., 2003; Chang et al., 2010; Hjalager, 2002; Quan & Wang, 2004). For example, Hjalager (2002) identified 4 types of tourists in terms of tourists' gastronomic experiences. First, the existential gastronomy tourists are more likely to engage in learning activities such as attending cookery school, visiting wineries, cheese makers, or food festivals in order to not only just taste the local food but also to learn and deeply engage in the local culture. Secondly, experimental gastronomy tourists are interested in experiencing designer's cafes and restaurants in a destination that can provide fashionality value to this type of tourists. Thirdly, the recreational gastronomy tourists seek for familiar food rather than exotic local food in a destination to feel safety and comfortableness. Lastly, the diversionary gastronomy tourists do not really care about the exotic food experiences. Their main focus in a destination might be people who they travel with rather than food (Hjalager, 2002). Other types of food tourists are also identified. For example, Chang et al (2010) interviewed and observed Chinese tourists' food behaviors in Australia, and the "observers" were more likely to desire familiar food to assure themselves and preferred fusion food rather than authentic local food. Meanwhile, the "participators" actively engaged in experiencing novel cuisines at a destination. For the "browser" group, safety and security were the main concern, and they were not fastidious to choose a restaurant (Chang et al., 2010). Sanchez-Cañizares & Castillo-Canalejo (2015) pointed out the need to distinguish tourists between people who have keen interests to try authentic and exotic local food and people who prefer more familiar food such as international food or the food from their own country. Taking these into consideration, food experience plays an important part for every type of tourists with the exception of tourists who have no particular interests in food (e.g., the diversionary gastronomy tourists).

Sanchez-Cañizares & Castillo-Canalejo (2015) argued that in order to design tailored marketing strategies to tourists in terms of their food consumption, government or official tourism organization's internet marketing plays very significant roles for tourist at a destination. Tourists may gain beneficial effects of searching food-related activities or restaurant information in a destination. Tourists who do not prefer to have exotic local food would still seek for the place that they can enjoy familiar food in a destination.

2.2 Food tourism marketing channels

Previous literature indicates that the major marketing channels for food tourism have been transformed over the last decades. Traditionally, Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) have fostered food tourism by utilizing brochures or TV advertisements (Frochot, 2003; Hjalager & Corigloano, 2000; Mellinger, 1994; Okumus et al., 2007; Pritchard & Morgan, 1996). After the significant development in the online travel market, DMOs have placed emphasis on websites of destination and developed tourism marketing strategies using food as a main resources (Ashish & Shelley, 2015; Horng & Tasi, 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Nelson, 2015). More recently, during the last five years, the tremendous development of mobile phones has changed the main information platform from personal websites of computer to mobile applications in smartphone. Tourist experience is not an exception and is greatly affected by smartphones and mobile applications. Increasing number of travelers search for information using mobile application, and they use it before, during, and after the trip (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2013). The content of the mobile application, therefore, provides a direct channel for a tourism organization to communicate with existing as well as potential visitors (Wang et al., 2012). The content of government tourism mobile application is particularly important for promoting food tourism, as it can provide adequate information and facilitate tourists' food experience of the destination.

2.3 Mobile marketing for food tourism

Mobile phones have evolved into fully functional computers with a variety of capabilities, and they have become deeply integrated into everyday life (Wang et al., 2014). Using smartphone in travel also has grown significantly. Possible implication for its influence on travel behavior and process of decision-making has become a topic of interest in tourism industry (Lamsfus et al., 2013). The advances in mobile technology provide a wide range of possibilities that attract frequent tourists and support people to enjoy their trip (Gretzel, 2010; Wang et al., 2012; Wang & Fesenmaier, 2013; Wang et al., 2014). Rusu and Cureteanu (2009) further mentioned, "Just as the Internet completely revolutionized the way consumers book travel, now the immense, growing reliance on mobile devices is causing a second shift in how travel is purchased" (Rusu & Cureteanu, 2009, p.67). In addition, Kim and Law (2015) stated that increasing use of smartphones has a significant effect on tourism, as many tourists book hotels and purchase flight tickets, and access information of travel websites through smartphones.

How travel is purchased is not the only change that smartphones have caused. Smartphone application further enhances the quality of tourist service because tourists can use information search and reservation functions while on the move (Liu & Law, 2013). Such convenience and flexibility of mobile device technology provides all the more reason to use smartphone in tourism, not to mention that smartphones aid tourists to make decisions that are spontaneous and time-intensive (Hwang, 2010). In fact, smartphones have been credited to support not only the basic travel activities such as planning, reservation, and navigation, but also "micro-moments" of travel such as giving roadside assistance, calculating tips in a restaurant, and finding out the exchange rates (Wang et al., 2011). As suggested by No and Kim (2014), the new technologies of smartphones are a way to enhance tourists' convenience and to satisfy their desire to obtain information.

As mentioned above, the importance of mobile marketing in tourism has been emphasized during the last few years. However, to the best of our knowledge, no study has investigated how smartphone has enhanced tourists' food experiences in a destination. Particularly, few studies have compared the usage of tourism mobile applications by DMOs, focusing on food tourism.

2.4 The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and travel experiences

There is no doubt that smartphones have significantly affected tourism industry and will continue to do so. Although the second shift has become dominant, not everyone can accept the new change. According to the theory of the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) introduced by Davis (1989), users' willingness to accept and use available information technology depends on perceived usefulness and perceived easiness. Perceived usefulness refers to "the degree to which a person believes that using a particular system would enhance his or her job performance." Meanwhile, perceived easiness is defined as "the degree to which a person believes that using a particularly system would be free of effort (Davis, 1989, p.320). David (1989) developed a validated scale to measure perceived usefulness and easiness, and he discovered that usefulness plays a stronger role than easiness for users to accept the new technology. Later on, Moon and Kim (2001) extended the previous theoretical model by introducing the construct, "playfulness" to explain the users' behavior toward newly emerging IT. The TAM has been employed broadly in hospitality and tourism field to anticipate mobile service adoption, e-commerce acceptance, the usage of social media focusing on hotel or travel booking (No & Kim, 2014). The impact of smartphone and mobile application on tourism seem to be inevitable, yet how the user will perceive usefulness, easiness, and playfulness of smartphone and mobile application still remains unknown. Especially, few studies identified how the best use of mobile application for tourists' food experiences can be achieved based on TAM.

Methodology

3.1 Content analysis

Content analysis method has been broadly adapted in the hospitality and tourism research. A number of researchers corroborate that content analysis can be applied effectively in the food tourism studies, when analyzing both texts and photo images that are represented in brochures or advertisements (Frochot, 2003; Hjalager & Corigloano, 2000; Mellinger, 1994; Okumus et al., 2007; Pritchard & Morgan, 1996). In recent years, content analysis on website has been frequently used to investigate web marketing in food-based tourism (Ashish & Shelley, 2015; Horng & Tasi, 2010; Kim et al., 2009; Miranda et al., 2015). Since the analysis of both texts and images represented in mobile application is critical in this study, content analysis is deemed appropriate method to answer our research questions.

3.2 Procedure and samples

Firstly, general examination of the sources that are related to food tourism context in mobile application was conducted by two researchers who are doctoral level graduate students majoring in hospitality and tourism management. Secondly, the objectives of the study were identified, and coding schemes as well as categories were developed accordingly. Thirdly, the government mobile applications were selected based on the following criterion:

1) Active promotion of culinary tourism by national DMOs
2) Existence of mobile application offered by national DMOs.

During the course of selection, it came to the researchers' understanding that surprisingly little number of countries provided government mobile application for tourists' use. In the end, mobile applications from the Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB), Korea Tourism Organization (KTO), Taiwan Tourism Bureau (TTB), Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), Czech Tourism (CT), Scotland's National Tourism Organisation (SNTO), Italian National Tourism Board (INTB), and Swiss National Tourist Office (ST) were selected (see Table 1). As Ho (2002) stated that English is considered to be the "de facto medium for international travel and tourism" (as cited in Horng & Tsai, 2010), English version of government mobile applications were selected for the analysis. Qualitative content analysis was used to analyze the information related to food culture and local cuisine in the mobile application. Ratings and reviews of each application were also studied.Fourthly, the initial results were compared, and contents with disagreements were analyzed until agreement was achieved. Lastly, the final results and findings were refined.

Table 1. Basic information of tourism mobile applications of eight countries

Information	HKTB[b]	TAT[b]	KTO[b]	TTB[b]	INTB[b]	SNTO[b]	ST[b]	CT[b]
Name	DiscoverHK	Amazing Thailand	Visit Korea	Tour Taiwan	Italia Travel App	Welcome to Scotland (Scot guide)	Make my Switzerland (City Local)	Czech Republic _ Land of Stories
Made in year of	2011	2012	2013	2015	2012	2011	2013	2015
Number of downloads	100,000	10,000	100,000	1000	500	50,000	10,000	1000
Review[a]	512	165	1057	13	5	203	95	15
Rate[a]	4	4	4.2	4.5	4.6	2.9	3.7	4.3

[a] Note: The number and the rate of reviews are checked on Dec 10, 2015

[b]Note:Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB), Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), Korea Tourism Organization (KTO), Taiwan Tourism Bureau (TTB), Italian National Tourism Board (INTB), Scotland's National Tourism Organisation (SNTO), and Swiss National Tourist Office (ST), Czech Tourism (CT)

Results

4.1 Restaurant guide and information

Mobile applications of Hong Kong, Korea, Scotland, Taiwan, and Czech Republic show similar structural patterns of introducing restaurant information. That is, restaurants are firstly classified according to the region or cuisine type. Once tourists choose specific region or cuisine type, the information of each restaurant such as the name, address, contact number, map, and short description of the restaurant is provided. For example, in Scotland mobile application, "Eating out" section offers a list of restaurants according to the type of cuisine, ranging from "Scottish," "Vegetarian," and "Fish," to "Italian," "French," "Spanish," "Indian," "Chinese," and "Thai." After selecting the food type, a list of restaurants appears with the name, and the distance from current location is shown.

While mobile applications of Hong Kong, Korean, Scotland, Taiwan, and Czech Republic show similar patterns of representing restaurant to users, the focus of a specific information or feature varies according to the countries. For example, Hong Kong emphasizes special functions such as, "Augmented Reality" (AR) and "The Quality Tourism Service Scheme" (QTS). AR helps tourists find the exact location of the restaurant, while QTS helps tourists select restaurants that are guaranteed by Hong Kong government, assuring tourists with a sense of security and safety. Detailed explanation of AR isprovided in chapter 4.4 in this paper.

Korea's mobile application gives importance to provide tailored restaurants for tourists. It offers a section called "Recommended for you," in which the user can compute his or her country of origin, age, and gender. By computing this information, the mobile application provides a suggested list of restaurants for the person. A male tourist from Angola in his 50s, for example, would be provided with restaurant that serves halal food.

Unlike the case of Hong Kong, Korea, Scotland, Taiwan, and Czech Republic that firstly provides a restaurant list according to certain criteria and then give common information about the restaurants, Switzerland and Thailand give more priority to show images of restaurant or food. In Switzerland's mobile application, fine panoramas of pictures of restaurants are displayed. Neither the name of the restaurant nor the distance of the restaurant from the current location is represented, but only the wide pictures of the restaurants are demonstrated. This stimulates the curiosity of tourists to find out more about the restaurants and easily creates expectations toward the attractions because visualizers such as pictures generally catch people's attention more than verbalizers such as letters (Chiou et al., 2008).

In Thailand's mobile application, "Nearby" section of the main page provides some features for visitors to navigate their ways to a restaurant. Based on filters of "Where to go," "Where to see," and "Where to eat," users can find restaurants. All the sections are provided with wide-screen pictures. The wide-screen images in Thailand mobile application are the major characteristic that is differentiated from other countries' applications.

4.2 Food culture and traditional local cuisine

In order to promote food tourism, a country's cuisine and food culture should be introduced so that potential tourists can have a better understanding of the destination's food culture (Horng & Tsai, 2010). Among the mobile applications that have been reviewed, only Italy and Thailand provide information about the varieties and features of food cultures and traditional local cuisines. The Italian application introduces its food culture according to its regions and cities. After tabbing "Discover Italy" from the main menu, the user can select a region from

Italy followed by a list of cities in the specific region. Every city provides information in four sections, which are: “Description,” “What to see,” “What to do,” and “What to taste.” After analyzing “what to taste” section, several points about Italia Travel App can be summarized. Firstly, local ingredients are introduced before any type of cuisine is explained. This not only helps tourists to understand the basic elements of local cuisine, but also helps tourists obtain knowledge regarding Italian food culture. Secondly, since the descriptions of “What to taste” is attached to a specific city, local food delicacies are explained in detail. Italy’s mobile application focuses on introducing which regional food is famous for. Authentic flavors and special features of the regional foods are emphasized. Since an important activity for food tourists to engage at a destination is to taste regional, authentic, and traditional food that is differentiated from other food (Chang et al., 2010; Hjalager, 2002), emphasizing delicious regional specialties fulfills the curiosity of tourists. Thirdly, the explanation of the regional wine is provided in almost every city. This indicates that wine is essential component of the Italian food culture.

Thailand’s mobile application also introduces its food culture and traditional local cuisine, but it does so in a different manner from Italy. The “Thai Food” section of “Discover Thailand” provides a long list of foods that represent Thai food culture, and each item is labeled as one of the following: must buy, must do, must see, must taste. When certain food is described, the application not only explains the story behind food (how it was originated), but also how it is made and what ingredients are included, what kind of health benefits are provided, how the food smell and taste like, as well as how to eat the food (Eating manner). Food further takes part in “Thai Way of Life” section as well. By explaining the background of the food product, the mobile application provides an understanding of Thai way of life. In the “More” section of the main page, additional section for “Thai foods” can be spotted, which provides a detailed description of diverse Thai food types, composed of rice, mains, Thai curry and soup, Thai noodles, Thai desserts, Thai salad or yam, source of paste, Thai fruit, Thai beer and beverages, and Thai gourmet specialties. Rice, for example, is described as the staple food for Thai people. By providing the occasion in which one literally says “I want to eat rice” as a way of saying that he or she is hungry, the description offers how important rice is for Thai people.

Since the existential gastronomy tourists are eager to learn about local culture including history and behind meaning of the food (Hjalager, 2002), it can be considered that explanations provided in Italy and Thailand mobile applications can satisfy these types of tourists.

4.3 Food-related activities in tourism

4.3.1 Food event

In Thailand’s mobile application, the page for “Events & Festivals” includes information about diverse food festivals. “Lopburi Monkey Festival,” for example, indicates which time of the year it is held, what kind of food is offered, and why the festival is held. The specific date of the festival and location of the venue are provided as well as an online link for further information, not to mention the map and a picture.

In the Italian mobile application, the user can find a menu called “Gastronomy” in the “Travel idea” section. 24 dimensions of gastronomy themes are provided such as “Balsamic Vinegar of Modena,” “Slow food,” “Cooking with Italia.it,” “Pizza,” “Christmas Sweets” and etc. Information about food events is included in some dimensions of the gastronomy themes. For instance, in “Balsamic Vinegar of Modena,” information abouta food event called “Acetaie aperte”(a sort of open house of the best vinegar market) is provided in terms of which time of the year it is held, and what kind of food it offers, and why the festival is held, similar to the Thailand's mobile application.

4.3.2 Cookery school and recipe

Korean mobile application displays "Themed travel" as one of main menus. Among a list of themed travel, the application has section for "Traditional Activities & Programs." The user can find "Korean cooking class," in which a list of companies and institutions for hands-on experience of cooking classes are provided. The list includes the name of institutions, three photos of the program, and brief description of the main food item that will be made, type of activities that are offered, number of students that can take the class, the medium of language available, and class schedule.

In Italy's mobile application, "Cooking with Italia.it" provides a list of 20 regions in Italy. After tabbing the specific region, users can find the names of representative menus of the region. Recipe is then provided with photos of cuisine, ingredients and amount, directions for each step. The Italian mobile application provides practical information for travelers who would like to recall the memories of Italy and cook by themselves after they go back to their home countries.

4.3.3. Food district

In the Korean mobile application, "Popular areas" section is offered to users. These areas include places such as Busan's Jagalchi Market, Shindang-dong Tteokbokki Town street, and Bundang Jeongja-dong Cafe street. These food districts are places with plethora of restaurants to try or are well known places for specific cuisine. The list includes a photo of the area, name of the area, and the distance to the area. The introduction describes the historical background, special features that the place is known for, annual event if there is any, as well as specific food to try. For example, the Jagalchi Market in Busan established itself as a market that represents "Busan."

In Hong Kong's mobile application, nine food districts are introduced. The food districts section provides diverse activities that tourists can enjoy in Hong Kong. The application describes what type of activities that tourists can enjoy while of after the meal in the food district. Rather than focusing too much on food, the application introduces beautiful scenery of the fishing port, panoramic view of the picturesque seaside village, and natural green resources that tourists may also enjoy in the food district.

Table 2. Comparison of eight countries' official tourism mobile applications

Content features	HKTB [a]	TAT [a]	KTO [a]	TTB [a]	INTB [a]	SNTO [a]	ST [a]	CT
Restaurant guide	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Food culture & cuisine		✓			✓			
Food-related activities in tourism	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		

[a] Note:Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB), Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), Korea Tourism Organization (KTO), Taiwan Tourism Bureau (TTB), Italian National Tourism Board (INTB), Scotland's National Tourism Organisation (SNTO), and Swiss National Tourist Office (ST), Czech Tourism (CT)

4.4. Special functional features

Table 3 indicates that all countries provide a map function in their mobile applications. However, other special features such as AR, customized pages, or search functions are not provided in all mobile applications. AR, in which smartphone users can see virtual 3D images of information, refers to a function that provides a wide variety of user experiences (Lee et al., 2015). Only Hong Kong, Thailand, and Taiwan provide AR function for users to easily find the dining place.This function helps tourists find a restaurant in an unfamiliar environment, and this adds to previous literature that AR enhances mobile capabilities (Jung et al., 2015).

Customization refers to a mobile function that allows the user to create a personal planner or page within the application, so that a list of activities or places that he or she prefers can be put together. Scotland's application, for example, provides a feature called "bookmark," which allows users to mark a restaurant as well as other information about food that they may be interested. Taiwan and Czech Republican application also provide the same function but is named differently as "My Favorites" and "My Diary" respectively. Thailand's personalized section feature a more comprehensive function called "My trip."

The function that allows users to search specific word or phrase is provided by almost all countries except Switzerland and Czech Republic. While the rest of applications offer a simple search feature, Korea's mobile application even provides list of words that have been searched recently, are recommended, and are popular. This type of search function helps tourist to easily find specific restaurant or cuisine that they want during the trip.

Table 3.Special functional features

Functional features	HKTB [a]	TAT [a]	KTO [a]	TTB [a]	INTB [a]	SNTO [a]	ST [a]	CT [a]
AR	✓	✓		✓				
Customization (My page/ Planner)		✓	✓	✓		✓		✓
Search		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
Map	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

[a] Note:Hong Kong Tourism Board (HKTB), Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT), Korea Tourism Organization (KTO), Taiwan Tourism Bureau (TTB), Italian National Tourism Board (INTB), Scotland's National Tourism Organisation (SNTO), and Swiss National Tourist Office (ST), Czech Tourism (CT)

Discussion

The findings of this study are summarized, and implications for management and research are discussed as follows. First, as TAM indicates (Davis, 1989), users perceive ease of use when they do not put too much effort on using the particular system. In terms of easiness, Hong Kong, Korea, and Scotland mobile applications can be regarded user-friendly because tourists can easily find dining information within only three clicks. In addition, users can search a certain type of restaurant according to the personal preference and the distance from the restaurant. With regard to information about food culture, traditional local cuisine, and food events, these three mobile applications provide generally easy access to discover the food-related menus compared to other mobile applications. DMOs should bear in mind that the mobile application must be easy to use. By focusing on user-centered design, the application should let the users to search for information easily and maneuver the application freely.

Second, playfulness is also considered as an important factor that affects users to accept the new IT. The more users perceive the playfulness, the more they show high performance and affective response to the IT (Moon & Kim, 2001). After the analysis of eight mobile applications, it was found that distinctive styles of design in terms of presenting information or images contribute to a higher level of perception of playfulness to users. For example, Thailand and Switzerland mobile applications offer a more playfulness moments to users. Thailand’s application has pictures of specific food or food place that took the entire width of the mobile screen. Switzerland application is slightly different in that instead of providing both pictures and names of the food or restaurant, it shows list of pictures without any description unless the user tabs on the picture. In addition, Switzerland’s application offers some type of playfulness moments to users in that users can indicate their current “Mood” by tabbing “Cultural,” “Social,” “Active,” and “Stylish.” The chosen part becomes white-colored, indicating that it is ready to activate, while the rest of the parts remain in red color, symbolizing the flag of Switzerland. These attractive and eye-catching images or functions can be very effective in food tourism marketing (Horng & Tsai, 2010). However, considering that every tourism organizations may have different aims regarding the ways to attract tourists, tourism organizations should develop their contents that reflect the original aim of their organization. Whether the first aim is to attract users’ attention by showing diverse images and unique design or to provide much information by letters should be decided based on the aim of DMOs.

Third, perceived usefulness is major determinant of intentions to use the mobile applications. However, different types of food tourists may have different approaches and perceptions of usefulness. For example, the existential gastronomy tourists might want to search information regarding learning activities such as attending cookery school, visiting food festivals to involve in the local culture, while experimental gastronomy tourists may desire to experience trendy and unique experiences in the restaurant (Hjalager, 2002). Hong Kong, Thailand, Korea, and Italy mobile application can be useful and appealing to these types of tourists because the applications offer fruitful information about food culture, traditional local cuisine, and food events that travelers can enjoy. Meanwhile, recreational gastronomy tourists might seek for familiar food to feel safety and comfortableness in a destination (Hjalager, 2002). For this type of tourists, finding a proper restaurant for their taste is the priority rather than learning new knowledge about local food culture. Hong Kong, Korea, and Scotland mobile applications may be useful for this type of tourists since tourists can classify restaurant according to their food preference. Also, for diversionary gastronomy tourists who are not really concerned about food experience at a destination might feel lazy to search specific dining information. This type of tourists are more likely to be overwhelmed by the amount of information and they may feel difficult to find the information they desire (Ho, 2002). Korea's mobile application has a function called "recommended for you." The application automatically recommends a restaurant list once after the user inputs simple information. The application allows users to enjoy the benefits that a mobile application can offer to the fullest. Therefore, DMOs can design their mobile applications usefully according to the type of food tourists that DMOs aim to target because different tourists have different perception toward the usefulness of the application.

Fourth, it was found that easiness, playfulness, and usefulness of the tourism mobile applications do not always correlate with each other. A mobile application can be very useful but not necessarily easy to use. It can offer much sense of playfulness but may not be user-friendly. For example, AR into mobile application to travel should be considered as a way to provide convenient guidance for tourists to navigate their ways. It was found that only three DMOs – Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Thailand mobile applications offer AR functions. Since AR has grown in popularity due to its enhanced mobile capabilities (Jung et al., 2015) and hasparticular importance in tourism industry due to its ability to increase social awareness of the immediate surroundings and unknown territory (Martinez-Graña et al., 2013), implementing AR seems to be useful for tourists. When no instructions are provided as to how to use the function, however, users who are not familiar with such feature may not be able to fully enjoy the function that can enhance tourists' experience. In addition, some negative comments were often identified because of the technical problems when using AR. DMOs, therefore, should consider not only offering AR functions in their applications but also making them user-friendly and reducing the technical issues as much as possible.

Lastly, in order to optimize the promotion and marketing of specific culinary tourist spots, tourism marketers can develop and utilize storytelling of cuisines in mobile applications. A good "story" has been identified as a key factor for a successful business, aiding to attract attention and to increase popularity as a result (Woodside et al., 2008). Thailand, for example, offers many stories by relating its local food to themes such as fun, wisdom, and way of life. Italy also follows a similar marketing strategy by telling stories about the origin of local food and the customs. DMOs should try to engage in the storytelling by promoting a unique culinary product that represents the country's identity and culture in a specific context, so that the story can leave a long-lasting impression on tourists. This can be done by combining the foods, recipes, cultures, and culinary tourism.

This study is meritorious in that the comparison of government tourism mobile applications with the focus of food tourism is considered as an initial attempt in the academia. However, this study is vulnerable to some limitation. First, this study is limited to eight government tourism mobile applications. Second, the current study does not consider the tablet PC as the research scope. Lastly, this study adopts only qualitative content analysis to conduct research.

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Apf1672 Towards a Definition of Luxury Travel

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Abstract

The luxury travel market in China is emerging due to the growing wealth and changing consumer preference. People are more able and willing to spend money on travel and premium brands than before. Nevertheless, the definition of luxury travel is not clear. The discussion of luxury travel is rarely found in academia, contrasting with the strong attention from the industry players during various luxury travel fairs and exhibitions. To bridge this gap, this study aims to propose a definition of luxury travel by content analysis of luxury travel related webpages and literature review of luxury consumption. Both manifest content analysis and latent content analysis is conducted for better extraction of luxury travel features and significance of each feature. As a result, a product feature based definition is generated: luxury travel is a travel product with top quality, fashion, scarcity, personalisation, and adventure.

Keywords: Chinese Tourists, Content Analysis, Definition, HNWIs, Luxury Travel, Tourism Future Trend

Introduction

The luxury travel market in China is boosted by the growth of Chinese wealth since travel has become an important leisure activity among the HNWIs (High Net Worth Individuals). There are more than one million HNWIs in China in 2014, doubling from 2010 (Bain & Company, 2015). According to Hurun (2015), the 17,000 ultra-HNWIs in China who have more than 500 million RMB wealth prefer travel during their leisure time, and many of them own private jets and yachts. Over a quarter of them indicated the need of high-end business trip service and travel. The popularity of travel among HNWIs might be the reason why Hurun, the leading publishing group targeting HNWIs, studies luxury travel and publishes report on Chinese luxury travellers annually. Their report surveys the affluent travellers in China and the most recent report shows that the luxury travellers who participated in survey took four trips aboard on average and spent an average of 200,000RMB per year per person on travel (Hurun, 2015).

The development of luxury travel segment is not only due to the interest of affluent segment but also the general population. A recent report from McKinsey & Company (2016) reveals that more than half of the Chinese strongly agree or agree on the statement “my household income will significantly increase in the next 5 years” and about a quarter of the consumers would like to spend more on travel if their income will be increased. Judging from the trading up for premium products over mass products (McKinsey & Company, 2016), it is very likely that Chinese will consume more luxury travel products. Thus, not only super rich, but also well-off population in China is interested in luxury travel products. Understanding the concept of luxury travel is helpful on learning the future trend of tourism products.

The term “luxury travel” is used in reports or marketing materials in various luxury travel events including examples likeLuxury Travel Mart, International Luxury Travel Market, and Luxury Travel Fair by Conde Nast. The importance of the luxury traveller segment is certainly recognised by industry experts.According to the Global Travel Director, Laurens van den Oever, “These luxury travellers are willing to pay more for a higher quality of service and customised level of unique traveling experience—definitely a small but very important segment for travel sector to pay special attention to”(Jing Daily, 2014). However, the definition of luxury travel is not very clear and it was rarely discussed in depth. In order to understand the Chinese luxury travellers better, it is important to look into the concept and suggest a definition of luxury travel. This definition will make the discussion among different parties more efficient and benefit the furtherance of luxury travel-related researches. This research aims to investigate features of luxury travel and propose a definition of luxury travel in both Chinese and Western environments.

Literature Review

The growth potential of luxury travel market has been well recognised by researchers. Luxury travel products are more profitable because of higher margin compared to regular products (Page, 2009). It is found that luxury travel service and resort was expanding even when the international travel industry was negatively influenced by global financial crisis in 2012 (Bianchi & Stephenson, 2014). There may be two reasons why the market of luxury travel product is growing. One reason is that consumers are prepared to upgrade travel experience to luxury travel experience by economising in other areas of household spending (Page, 2009). Another reason may be that travellers are generally more willing to pay for luxury travel experiences (Gretzel, Fesenmaier, & O’leary, 2006), especially the younger generation (Hotels.com, 2014; cited by Yang, 2015).

Although it is a segment with large growth potential, luxury travel is an under-researched area in both Chinese and Western context.

The word “luxury” is one of the most abused words used in hospitality (Meeting Net, 2006; cited by Languillon, 2015), and there are very little discussion on the definition of luxury tourism. Page (2009) defined luxury tourism as the consumption of an expensive and high-quality experience, e.g. Grand Tour (Page, 2009). However, the necessity of including price in the definition is questionable. First, the high-quality experience is often associated with high price, thus, such definition sounds redundant. Secondly, if the private jet service is provided as free gift or with limited charge, it does not mean that private jet service is not part of the luxury travel products. Popescu & Olteanu (2014) defined luxury travellers according to monetary ability: those who have more than enough income and will not limit their tourism practise by income. However, there are several issues when this definition is applied. First, rich people does not necessarily travel with first class flights. Their monetary ability does not limit their choice of travel and they are potential luxury travellers, but they also have the choice to be not involved in any luxury travel product. Second, some travellers may have limited income and have limited requirements on travel. They do not feel the limitation of income on their travel choices, thus, they could be identified as luxury traveller by this definition while they will not consume any luxury travel products. Third, some travellers may have limited income, but they would like to spend a lot on travel. They may consume a lot of luxury travel products. However, because their income is not more than enough, they are excluded from luxury travellers by this definition. Thus, luxury travel is not well defined by existing research.

To better define luxury travel products or travellers it is important to understand the characteristics of luxury travel products. Uniqueness, exclusiveness and personalisation are important features for luxury travel products to be distinguished with other travel products

(Page, 2009; Bakker, 2005, cited by Page 2009; Virtuoso, 2015; ILTM/HTL, 2011, cited by Morrison, 2013). Bakker (2005) emphasises the importance of personalisation and alleged that personalisation is more important than brands and fashion (cited by Page, 2009). Page (2009) also stated that luxury travel experience is associated with exclusive tourist resorts, private jets, comfort, service, relaxation, sumptuous quality, detailed attention, and exacting standards. Virtuoso (2015), as an international network of luxury travel agencies, mentioned unforgettable memories and adventurous activities or destinations as important elements in luxury travel experience.

Luxury travel is socio-demographic and lifestyle related (Morrison, 2013). Virtuoso (2015) found the top five travel motivations for luxury travellers: exploring new destinations, seeking authentic experience, rest and relaxation, personal enrichment and spending time and reconnecting with loved ones. Luxury travellers can be segmented into four types: wealthy travellers who choose luxury as a norm, corporate travellers who fly with business or first-class and stay in luxury hotels, lifestyle traveller looking for unique trip, and one-off/once-in-a-lifetime traveller (Bakker, 2005; cited by Page, 2009). Interestingly, there are price sensitive luxury travellers: *The Penny Pincher's Passport to Luxury Travel* introduced how the budget of luxury travel can be reduced (Wilson, 1990).

Luxury travellers may look for social distinction (ILTM/HTL, 2011, cited by Morrison, 2013; Salazar & Zhang, 2013). A study on Chinese elite travellers reveals the importance of face on accommodation decision (Salazar & Zhang, 2013). Some studies in Western context discovered the relationship between tourist and conspicuous destination choice. Destinations can be categorised into “conspicuous” or “inconspicuous” types (Phillips & Back, 2011). Interpersonal mediation and materialistic hedonism positively influence traveler's motivation to choose conspicuous destinations. It is also found that tourist types have much influence on the intention to travel to conspicuous destinations (Todd, 2001). Tourists who feel good, successful, important, and powerful during vacation tend to travel to unusual conspicuous destinations.

Since there is lack of studies on luxury travel, it is important to review the concept of luxury in order to define luxury travel. “Luxury” originated from the Latin word “luxuria” meaning excess or “luxus” meaning extravagance (Collins, 2016). Although the concept of luxury is found to vary over time and isrecognised by its hard-to-define nature even in luxury brand management books (Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012; Kapferer, 2012), there are a number of studies revealing the factors contributing to the concept of luxury.

Excellent product quality is an important dimension of luxury product (Dubois & Laurent, 1996, cited by Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Lu, 2008; Vickers & Renand, 2003). Luxury products must have a reason to be expensive (Kapferer, 2012). Excellent product quality might be a good reason for luxury product sold at a high price. That is probably the reason why Page (2009) only mentioned quality and price in his definition of luxury travel products. In Wiedmann, Hennings & Siebels' (2009) study, luxury consumers are segmented into four groups and one of them rates quality the most important factor.

Personalisation or uniqueness is another important dimension of luxury product (Lu, 2008; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Hennings & Siebels, 2009). Personalisation and uniqueness are recognised as attractive features of luxury travel in both Western and Chinese context (Virtuoso, 2015; Hurun, 2015). McKinsey& Company (2011) identified four segments of Chinese luxury consumers. One segment namely “luxury role models” are those young and fashionable who seek uniqueness rather than wealth display. Personalisation and uniqueness are related as personalised product is often unique.

Scarcity or social distinction is the third important dimension (Dubois & Laurent, 1996, cited by Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012; Hennings & Siebels, 2009; Lu, 2008; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004). This dimension is so important that luxury products are categorised in different levels based on accessibility and exclusiveness. Inaccessible luxury refers to exclusive models, e.g. special model of Rolls Royce; intermediary luxury refers to expensive replicas of individual model, e.g. catalogue Ferrari; and accessible luxury refers factory made and large-quantity products, e.g. Dior ready-to-wear (Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012). In tourism context, rarity of resources is a major reason why Chinese luxury travellers choose a luxury travel agent (Hurun, 2015). Scarcity is associated with social distinction because consumers cannot be distinguished from majority of the population if the products are not rare.

Other proposed dimensions of luxury include: high price, emotional element, the power of the brand, hedonism, extended self, and fashion (Dubois & Laurent, 1996, cited by Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Hennings & Siebels, 2009; Lu, 2008).
The above dimensions of luxury products can be helpful in understanding and defining luxury travel. In order to fill the gap in the definition of luxury travel, this research tries to answer the following two questions:
1. How luxury travel can be defined based on product dimensions or features?
2. How the understanding of luxury travel product may differ in the Chinese and the Western context?

Methodology

Content analysis was conducted on relevant books, reports and online webpages as reflections of to the real world. A sample of online webpages describing luxury travel was selected by searching on Google. Google was selected as the search engine because of its constant improvement on search result quality (Google, 2016). "Luxury Travel" was used as key words both in English and Chinese. The two words were searched together in quotation marks which ensures that the listed results contain the term "luxury travel" together instead of "luxury" and "travel" separately. The first 398 displayed Google search results on English list and the 299 results on Chines lists were manually collected on 28 April 2016. These numbers of results were included because these items were all displayed as search results and any other items of possible search results are omitted by Google due to high similarity comparing to the existing lists. Manifest content analysis, e.g. word frequency counting, is helpful in understanding the importance of different dimensions of the concept luxury travel. Latent content analysis is also important in understanding the underlying meaning of luxury travel because the direct wording may not appear in the description of certain dimension of luxury travel. Thus, the text on webpages were extracted and analysed using NVivo.10 by word frequency counting and open coding. The definition of luxury travel is developed based on both content analysis results and review of related literatures

Results

163 results in English list and 113 results in Chinese list are excluded from the analysis based on screening review of the content. The reasons are: 1) content duplication, e.g. the result of The Chinese Luxury Travellers report by Hurun were posted 30 times in the search results by different websites, 2) irrelevant content, e.g. expired job postings from luxury travel agent and luxury travel set of skin care product, 3) insufficient text content, e.g. the Instagram page of

luxury travellers. Thus, in total 235 English webpages and 186 Chinese webpages are included in the content analysis.

The range of content providers of these webpages is very wide. Majority of the webpages are provided by luxury travel agents. Other content providers includes: national tourism organisation (NTO), luxury travel magazine, travel agent, luxury travel blog website, travel related publication, luxury related publication, luxury travel event and others. This diversification of content providers might indicate that the popularity of the luxury travel concept among different stakeholders.

Features of luxury travel are identified based on the content analysis. Four factors including excellent quality, fashion, scarcity and personalization are important and evident in luxury products (Lu, 2008), and they are also important for luxury travel supporting by the high frequent words. Excellent quality comprises of “best”, “top”, “perfect”, “amazing”, and “high quality”; fashion consisted of “new” and “fashion”; scarcity includes “exclusive” and “unique”; and personalization refers to “personalized”. Adventure is another frequent word, and it is identified as unique feature of luxury travel, differentiating from general luxury products. Being defined by its features, luxury travel is a travel product with top quality, fashion, scarcity, personalization, and adventure.

Similar results of luxury travel dimensions are found by using latent content analysis. **Excellent quality** is important to luxury travel products. 26 references in Chinese content and 33 references in English content are found related to best product, e.g. travel agents claim that they provides the best product. There are also a numbers of references mentioning *good quality* (9 references in Chinese content and 6 references in English content) and *perfect* (4 references in Chinese content and 8 references in English content) of the luxury travel products. Since luxury travel product is service based product, the emphasis on *service quality* (18 references in Chinese content and 19 references in English content) also support the importance of excellent quality. **Fashion** is also a significant dimension of luxury travel. The fashion related content is found in 5 references in Chinese content and 5 references in English content. New or innovative travel experience is found in 12 references in Chinese content and 1 references in English content. **Scarcity** of luxury travel can be found on the description of *exclusiveness* (14 references in Chinese content and 30 references in English content), *rarity* (14 references in Chinese content and 2 references in English content), *unknown destinations* (2 references in Chinese content and 2 references in English content). The *exclusiveness* or *rarity* of the luxury travel product resources were mentioned in some webpages, e.g. very limited number of luxury hotel rooms. **Personalisation** is the most important dimension of luxury travel based on the content analysis. 39 reference in Chines content and 65 references in English content contain description of *tailor-made,customised*, *personalised*, or *hand crafting luxury travel products*. *Uniqueness* is found in 19 references in Chinese content and 24 references in English content. Although there are ready-to-sell travel products available on many webpages, personalised product requests are often preferred. **Adventure** of luxury travel is important in both Chinese (20 references) and English (34 references) context, e.g. many travel products are either containing the word adventure or related to adventurous destinations like Antarctic and Arctic.

There are other findings related to luxury travel other than the definition related features based on word frequency counting and content analysis. **Family** oriented is a feature of a segment of luxury travel products. *Family* is a frequent word, and there are 3 references in Chinese content and 9 references in English content providing family related description.

Luxury travel product is often be associated with **art and culture** (17 references in Chinese content and 13 references in English content), **wine and dine** (11 references in Chinese content and 13 references in English content), and **nature** (37 references in Chinese content and 11 references in English content). The **price competitiveness** is sometimes mentioned (17 references in Chinese content and 11 references in English content). Luxury travel is considered more as experience than a product. **Experience** is emphasised in 15 references in Chinese content and 47 references in English content, and many webpages mention *memorable experience* (12 references in Chinese content and 26 references in English content). **Privacy** is also important in luxury travel products (28 references in Chinese content and 16 references in English content). **Status** related description is more in Chinese content. *Royal class* is mentioned in 12 Chinese webpages and *worth-sharing* is mentioned in 2 Chinese webpages, but both feature is not mentioned in English webpages.

Discussion

According to the number of references, the most significant feature of luxury travel is personalisation. Uniqueness or personalisation is both recognised as important features for either luxury travel products (Page, 2009; Bakker, 2005, cited by Page 2009; Virtuoso, 2015; ILTM/HTL, 2011, cited by Morrison, 2013) or general luxury products (Lu, 2008; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Hennings & Siebels, 2009). While personalised travel product is unique, personalisation could be one way to ensure the uniqueness. This might be one reason why personalisation is most important. Another reason might be that personalised travel product can meet the individual traveller's needs better.

Scarcity and excellent quality are almost equally important after personalization. Scarcity or social distinction is important for identifying luxury travel and luxury goods or motivating luxury consumption (ILTM/HTL, 2011, cited by Morrison, 2013; Salazar & Zhang, 2013; Dubois & Laurent, 1996, cited by Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012; Hennings & Siebels, 2009; Lu, 2008; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Hurun, 2015). High quality is considered as one distinguishable feature of luxury travel and luxury product (Page, 2009; Dubois & Laurent, 1996, cited by Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012; Vigneron & Johnson, 2004; Lu, 2008; Vickers & Renand, 2003).

Fashion is the fourth important dimension. The finding supports what Bakker (2005) stated that fashion is less important than personalisation for luxury travel product (cited by Page, 2009). Fashion is still an important dimension not only because it is associated with luxury (Lu, 2008), but also because there is observable changing trend of the popularity of destinations. For example, Australia is getting popular among Chinese luxury travellers in recent years (Hurun, 2015) and the popularity is probably due to fashion.

Adventure is a dimension which distinguishes luxury travel from general luxury products. Virtuoso (2015) has mentioned adventurousactivities or destinations as important elements in luxury travel experience. Adventurous trips are not suitable for every travellers, thus, the popularity of adventure type of luxury travel could also be explained by its less accessible nature. Travellers who participate in this type of travel not only enjoy the experience, but also have more benefit for status showing on both monetary ability and physical condition.

In addtion, there are other interesting findings related to luxury travel. Virtuoso (2015) found one travel motivations for luxury travellers is to spend time and reconnect with loved ones. This is probably the reason why *family* is often mentioned in luxury travel product descriptions. Unforgettable memories are important in luxury travel experience (Virtuoso, 2015), thus *memorable experience* is often mentioned. Luxury travel is lifestyle related (Morrison, 2013), thus *art and culture, wine and dine* are often described. Luxury travel might be an extension of the daily lifestyle. Other than *art and culture*, *wine and dine*, nature based activities and destinations are also popular. One reason might be that most luxury travellers live in cities, and they would like to get close to nature during vacation. The price competitiveness is sometimes mentioned, contrasting with perception that money does not matter for luxury travellers (Popescu & Olteanu, 2014).

It is interesting to note that for luxury goods, high price is not included in the definition (Lu, 2008; Chevalier & Mazzalovo, 2012). The reason why price is excluded from the definition of luxury travel product in this study is that hedonism pricing means that price is developed based on product features (Rosen, 1974, cited by Fonner & Berrens, 2014) and a travel product with top performance in terms of all the features will naturally be expensive.

This study proposed a definition of luxury travel based on review of literature in luxury brand management and content analysis of current online materials regarding luxury travel. It is found that the English and Chinese content on this topic share similar dimensions. This approach ensures that the definition could reveal the significant features of luxury concept and be relevant in both Chinese and Western environments. However, it is worth noting that since the concept of luxury varies over time, the concept of luxury travel may also vary in future. Thus, it is important to review and update the definition with recent market and social change. The perceptions and descriptions on luxury travel in English and Chinese context are found to be similar except one major difference: status is considered as more important for Chinese luxury travellers. This is expected because Chinese travellers have more concern about face (Salazar & Zhang, 2013).

A limitation of this study is that only text is analysed in this study. Visual content can also deliver the concept of luxury travel, thus, photos and videos on the relevant webpages could also be included in future study. Another limitation is that content provided by different organisations are analysed together without any distinction. Future study could be conducted with consideration of single type of content provider in order to determine specific needs for certain type of stakeholder. For example, only a few NTOs like New Zealand Tourism Board has promoted luxury travel product on their official website, while other NTOs do not provide luxury travel related information on their official websites. Specific study could be designed to address the needs of NTOs targeting at luxury travellers.

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Apf1673 Is Hotel Employees' Emotional Intelligence and Cultural Intelligence Associated with Guest Satisfaction? An Exploratory Study on Hotel Guests' Perception

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Abstract

In the face of the highly interactive and diverse cultural hospitality setting, employees' emotional intelligence (EI) and cultural intelligence (CQ) are crucial to the quality and the outcome of the service encounters. However, the issue has long been neglected by hospitality practitioners and researchers. The present study aims to investigate the influence of hotel guests' perception of frontline employees' EI and CQ on guests' satisfaction and invited 295 tourists from different countries covering four continents to participate in the survey. It is attested that employees' EI and CQ maintains a high positive relationship, which further confirm their strong link statistically. Likewise, the non-Asian hotel guests consistently rate the employees' EI and CQ higher than the Asian counterparts. More importantly, both employees' EI and CQ have positive and influential impact on guest satisfaction and CQ has a higher influence are also verified, signifying the hospitality practitioners should take both employees' EI and CQ into account whiling striving for guests' satisfaction.

Keywords: Cultural intelligence, Emotional intelligence, Guest perception, Guest satisfaction, Hospitality industry, Service encounter

Introduction

It is extensively agreed that the products provided in the hospitality industry have made it distinctive from other industries since it does not only offer physical products, like accommodation, as well as food and drinks, but also a variety of customer services which, in a certain extent, possess the characteristics of intangibility, simultaneity and heterogeneity. In view of the unique nature of the hospitality products, hotel guests are the co-producers and actively take part in the service encounters, intensive interactions between service providers and hotel guests are frequently triggered. It also implied that the emotions of both hotel guests and employees are involved in the service encounters and the emotions will affect the interaction (Prentice & King, 2011). As a result, mastering the service encounter effectively such as demonstrating emotionally intelligent behaviours, in every service encounter to impress the hotel customers is a crux to determine guest satisfaction.

Emotional intelligence (EI) has long been discussed by many researchers since the conceptualisaton developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and has become a controversial and prevailing topic since the last century. The definition of EI refers to one's ability to identify and understand emotions in the self and others in an attempt to regulate own emotions and behave in an appropriate manner during an interaction. In other words, as Mok, Tsarenko, and Gabbott (2008) indicated, EI is a set of social skills concerning the intrinsic emotional awareness and control in a specific interaction with others. An individual with high EI usually possesses high social intelligence which is conducive to effective social interaction. Owing to the high involvement of emotional labour in the hospitality industry, applying the construct of

EI would bring the hotel practitioners competitive advantage on condition that its service employees own certain level of emotional intelligence. As Prentice and King (2011) suggested, proper application and demonstration of emotional skills could relieve emotional customer, and help employees manage their emotions simultaneously in order to avoid any opportunities of experiencing emotional dissonance. Likewise, the realisation of globalisation has expedited frequent cross-cultural interactions nowadays (Rockstuhl, Seiler, Ang, Van Dyne, & Hubert, 2011). The phenomenon is beneficial to the emergence of cultural intelligence (CQ).

Cultural intelligence is the ability of individuals to identify and understand other cultures so as to adapt themselves effectively in intercultural settings (Moon, 2010). It is noteworthy that CQ could be applied to two different situations: whether an individual could accommodate himself/herself to unfamiliar and culturally different places, like working in an overseas country with complete different cultural setting; or that individual could effectively communicate with other people of diverse cultural background. In the hospitality setting, hospitality practitioners strive to deliver excellent service to their guests of diverse cultural settings, in which different ethnicity, norms, values, and practices are signified. Apparently, the latter application condition of CQ, which is about the interaction between the service employees and customers of completely diverse cultural setting, would be much suitable to the context of hospitality industry. Imagine a scenario of a guest contact service employee working in a hotel emphasising chic and fun, he/she is in a bad mood due to personal problems and fails to address dissatisfaction from the serious facial expression and low tone of a German guest, he can manage to casually apologise to the guest for the malfunction of the guestroom facilities. Will the guest have any satisfaction at this service encounter? This illustrates the perception of hotel guests on EI and CQ of the service employees can be very critical in determining overall guest satisfaction towards the hotels.

It should be noted that an individual displays high EI in a domestic context may not perform the same in a different cultural setting (Kumar, Che Rose & Subramaniam, 2008; Moon, 2010). Hence, recognising the high level of emotional labour in the service encounters, the hospitality practitioners should also take CQ into account apart from EI when working in an intensive cross-cultural environment. Regardless of the vigorous academic discussion of EI since its emergence, there are few articles discussing EI in the hospitality industry. Thus far, studies linking CQ in the hospitality industry are even rare. Furthermore, the self-report approach was adopted in the majority of empirical studies whilst measuring an individual EI and CQ. It is understandable since both EI and CQ are related to one's ability that is highly personal. On the contrary, the risk of inflated assessment may possibly be imposed on the self-report measure, which in essence may affect the research findings. Considering the lack of the empirical research studies about EI and CQ in the Hong Kong's hotel industry, as well as the close examination of the relationship between EI and CQ, the authors attempt to take the first attempt to explore the hotel guests' perception of frontline employee's EI and CQ on guest overall satisfaction. The objectives of this study are:
1. to examine the relationship between hotel guests' perception of employees' EI and CQ;
2. to examine the Asian and non-Asian hotel guests on employees' EI;
3. to examine the Asian and non-Asian hotel guests on employees' CQ; and
4. to assess the relative influence of EI and CQ on guest overall satisfaction.

Literature review

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

The definition and domain of EI

Emotional intelligence is the ability of individuals to recognise and understand emotions of oneself (Cavelzani, Lee, Locatelli, Monti & Villamira, 2003) and others (Wong & Law, 2002; Mok et al., 2008; Crowne, 2009). It can be referred as intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence respectively (Prentice & King, 2011), based on how individuals take appropriate actions in their social relationships (Mok et al., 2008; Crowne, 2009). Individuals with high EI is able to observe and realise own and others' emotions (Gunkel, Schlagel, & Engle, 2014), have high social intelligence (Crowne, 2013), develop more effective interpersonal relationship through modulating responses, cope with negative emotions and better control of their own lives is resulted (Wong & Law, 2002).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) proposed that EI consists of three distinguished dimensions, appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion and utilising of emotion respectively. Appraisal and expression of emotion refers to emotion in the self (self-emotional appraisal, SEA) and emotion in others (others emotional appraisal, OEA). An individual with this ability can preempt others to realise own emotion deeply and express the emotion correspondingly; he or she can also recognise and understand emotions of other people accurately (Wong & Law, 2002; Yuan, Hsu, Shieh & Li, 2012). Regulation of emotion (ROE) signifies the regulation of emotion in the self. Hence, Wong and Law (2002) and Yuan et al. (2012) indicated that people with this competence can rejuvenate from the psychological distress rapidly. The authors further mentioned that individuals possessing the so-called Utilising of emotion (UOE) can make use of their own emotion to engage in activities properly for better performance.

EI in hospitality industry

Hospitality industry is a typical service industry (Scott-Halsell et al., 2008; Scott-Halsell et al., 2011); simultaneously, in view of its nature, it has inherently been recognised as a people business (Langhorn, 2004; Scott-Halsell, Shumate, & Blum, 2007; Kim & Agrusa, 2011) that generates a massive amount of dynamic service encounters. It is generally acknowledged that whether the service enterprises could attract customers is largely determined by how the service encounters conduct. However, service encounter involves "unique dyadic interaction" (Mok et al., 2008, p. 22), that is intensive interactions between the service provider and customer (Kernbach & Schutte, 2005; Prentice & King, 2013), the emotions of both parties are inevitably put into the service encounters, which has become the paramount but difficult factor to be controlled by the industry practitioner as "Emotion is personal phenomena" (Calvelzani et al., 2003). Hence, Prentice and King (2011) suggested service firm to try to manage the emotions of both customer and employees, first and foremost starting from employees' emotional intelligence.

Wolfe and Kim (2013) indicated that empathy is a major interpersonal factor that should be valued since it determines how desirable the relationship is with others, which in a sense could predict how long a manager would remain in the industry (Scott-Halsell et al., 2011). The impact of EI is important to both managers and employees, especially to those working at frontline as they are guest contact staff who are expected to proactively engage in the service encounters that requires a high level of emotional labour (Prentice & King, 2011; Prentice & King, 2013). An ideal emotional labour behavior is largely controlled by the positive EI attributes (Lee & Ok, 2012) such as extending genuine care, courtesy, friendliness, sincerity and empathy whilst serving the customers (Wong & Law, 2002; Matthews et al., 2012). In the end guest satisfaction could be resulted. The positive/negative outcomes predominantly depend on the emotional skills of the employees (Prentice & King, 2011), both recognising and understanding the emotions of their own as well as the customers in the service encounters. The desirable emotions drive the service providers to perform their duties confidently, not only better service performance (Kim & Agrusa, 2011; Prentice & King, 2011), but also joy and satisfaction (Lee & Ok, 2012; Wolf & Kim, 2013) could be attained.

Emotionally intelligent employees are better able to perform the jobs involving high emotional labour. Kernbach and Schutte (2005, p.441) concurred that "Service-provider emotional intelligence had a significant main effect on customer satisfaction" based on their experiment with three different difficulty level of simulated service encounter via video presentation. Undeniably, EI and CQ have demonstrated its critical role despite the level of emotional labour engaged in the jobs of service employees. In sum, in view of the surveys in relation to EI and CQ are mainly based on employees' self-report and simulated scenarios, this study would like to use a more direct approach to further examine the impact of hotel guests' perception of service employees' EI on guest overall satisfaction in Hong Kong's hospitality industry.

Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

Conceptualisation of CQ

The massive impacts of globalisation has been evidently changing the lives and work of people who have a lot more chances to interact with others coming from different parts of the world. As such, the capability to effectively adapt to cross-border situations and interact with culturally different individuals in their domestic context has become highly imperative in the fast-paced world (Thomas, Liao, Aycan, Cerdin, Pekerti, Ravlin, Stahl, Lazarova, Fock, Arli, Moeller, Okimoto & van de Vijver, 2015). As expected, the condition is greatly conducive to the emergence of cultural intelligence (CQ). Cultural intelligence, developed by Earley and Ang (2003), is commonly reckoned a new construct to illustrate an individual's capability to interact and respond in cross-cultural setting. Despite numerous researchers of different specialisms have conducted studies of CQ in recent years, their interpretation of CQ is consistent and complementary. CQ is defined as an individual's ability to identify and comprehend diverse foreign cultures and effectively adapt to environments/context in multiple cultures (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Brislin & Worthley, 2006; Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay & Chandrasekar 2007; Crowne, 2009; MacNab & Worthley, 2012; Thomas et al., 2015) and interact with culturally different individuals (Crowne, 2009; Moon, 2010; Thomas et al., 2015). Ang et al., (2007) suggested CQ is composed of Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ, and Behavioural CQ. Metacognitive CQ or Cultural metacognition (Thomas et al., 2015), refers to one's capability of involving consciously and purposively identifying, learning, and monitoring cultural norms of others followed by anticipating others' preferences and adjusting accordingly in one's mind through cross-cultural experiences and interactions. An individual with high metacognitive CQ could flexibly and sophisticatedly apply their cultural knowledge in diverse cultural interactions. The idea of Cognitive CQ, or Cultural knowledge (Thomas et al., 2015), is much more concrete. It reflects awareness (MacNab & Worthley, 2012) of a variety of norms, practices, traditions, and taboos in diverse cultures. Motivational CQ is the ability to put effort and energy to learn and adapt oneself in different cultural contexts to overcome difficulties and barricades (Chen, Liu & Portnoy, 2012; Rockstuhl et al., 2011). The authors reiterated that any individuals with high Motivational CQ reflect strong interest to recognise and understand the cultures of others and they are focused and persistent to adjust their behaviours to fit into different cultural settings and are better able to establish connections with others. The last component is Behavioural CQ, which refers to the exhibition of suitable and adaptable behaviours and actions in relation to diverse cultural context to show respects to others (Chen et al., 2012).

Cultural Intelligence in the workplace

Having been established over a decade, CQ is being widely studied more in psychological and social aspects, and the research about CQ in workplace is therefore rather limited. Ang et al. (2007) conducted a survey with 98 international managers representing 17 nations across the continents of Asia, Europe, and America etc. and proved that metacognitive CQ and behavioural CQ maintain significant positive relationship with task performance. On the other hand, Chen et al. (2012) executed a study focusing on the relationship between motivational CQ (personal and organisational) and cultural sales of real estate sales agents and real estate firms in the United States serving people of different cultural regions. It is confirmed that the higher an employee's motivational CQ, the higher the cultural sales performance. The relationship between employee's motivational CQ and cultural sales performance could be further strengthened by organisation's motivational CQ and its diversity climate. The findings of Chen et al. (2012) have revealed that motivational CQ can lead to positive task performance. The mixed results of CQ between Ang et al. (2007) and Chen et al. (2012) connote that further empirical study is required. It is also worth noted that the issue of CQ in the hospitality industry is largely unexplored.

Since hotels provide accommodation as well as food and beverage service to travellers across the world, its business nature has created typical cross-cultural context and intensive customer contact. Under this circumstances, hotel managers and hotel employees, especially those working at frontline, are also expected to be emotionally- and culturally intelligent in an attempt to extend excellent service to the guests. Simultaneously, some hotel practitioners would prefer to hire service employees of different ethnicity to better serve international hotel guests. Therefore, it is believed that guest satisfaction, in a certain extent, depends on the moment of truth, especially the quality of interaction, in which the CQ of service employees is expected to undertake a significant role. Facing the serious negligence of studying CQ in the hospitality, this study attempts to explore in what level hotel guests' perception of service employees' CQ exert influence on guest overall satisfaction.

The Relationship between EI and CQ

The previous sections of this study have illustrated the importance of EI towards the organisational stakeholders (customer, employee, manager, and organisation) as well as the organisational success without much elaboration to cultural construct. This is plausible because EI focuses on recognising and understanding emotional information in the self, realising others' emotion, regulating emotions in order to trigger appropriate actions/behaviours. It is concerned with intrapersonal aspect without involving own CQ (Moon, 2010). The career success of some people can be a result of mastering their EI well in the domestic context. Furthermore, Kumar et al. (2008) and Moon (2010) denoted successively that individuals could purely demonstrate their cultural sensitivity to perform CQ behaviours solely depend on other's cultural background in an interaction without including emotions, like speaking other's language, exhibiting gesture in adherence to norms and practice of others for example. Nevertheless, considering the megatrend of globalisation, culture has inevitably exerted its influence whilst individuals exercise EI in global business (Kumar et al., 2008), especially for global leadership (Gunkel et al., 2014). Alon and Higgins (2005) indicated that the cue of emotion could be very different across cultures depending on the norms, habits, and conservativeness. Therefore, a leader in a culturally diversified work setting or global company should perform varying EI behaviours based on one's interpersonal competency, such as social awareness (Moon, 2010), conforming to different cultures of other people. It is generally reckoned that EI and CQ possess both distinctive and overlapping characteristics (Kumar et al., 2008; Crowne, 2009; Moon, 2010; Gunkel et al., 2014), which was proved by the empirical study of Moon (2010) and Crowne (2013) respectively. Rockstuhl et al. (2011) further supported the relationship between EI and CQ in a survey to 126 military leaders and their peers studying at the Swiss Military Academy regarding leadership competence in different contexts. EI could bring effective leadership in domestic context but could not solely lead to a leader's effectiveness in a cross-border context unless the demonstration of CQ (Moon, 2010). The findings of the above study have not only highlighted unequivocally the distinct importance of CQ, but also the strong link between EI and CQ. There are very few studies taking scientific approach to statistically prove the relationship of these two constructs. The present study adopted a new perspective and examined the relationship between guests' perception of service employees' EI and CQ in the hospitality context in Hong Kong.

Methodology

Measurement development

A survey questionnaire was developed to investigate hotel guests' perception of hotel front office employees' EI and CQ, and its influence on guest satisfaction. Three filtering questions were asked at the beginning of the questionnaire to select and target the right respondent, which included asking the main purpose of the visit, respondent's country of origin, as well as the hotel names and the length of their stays in Section 1. In the next Section 2 and 3, they were designed to collect the data about the hotel front office employees' EI and CQ respectively. Section 4 concentrated on the guest overall satisfaction based on their evaluation of hotel front office employees' EI and CQ as a whole. In Section 5, the final part of the questionnaire was set to obtain respondents' demographic information, including country of origin, age, gender, education level etc. The questionnaire was professionally and precisely translated into Chinese, Japanese and Korean language based on the original English version to accommodate the diverse background of the tourists/visitors so that the purpose of the study could be better served. A total of 295 respondents completed the questionnaires; sixteen of them were not usable due to the illegible writing or omission of important information. In other words, 279 valid responses were received for this research study.

Exploring EI and CQ of front office employees

Hotel is generally recognised as a platform on which lots of service encounters and interactions between hotel frontline employees, working at front office, food and beverage, housekeeping department for example, and the guests/customers are performed. Nevertheless, the level of interaction varies depending on the job nature and the department in hotels. Front office is inherently and commonly acknowledged "the hub or nerve centre of the hotel" (Walker, 2013, p.98), which is expected to maintain high and intensive interaction level with its guests. Undoubtedly, the front office employees are the typical representatives of hotel frontline employees. As a result, the respondents were asked to evaluate the front office employees' EI and CQ according to their experience or observation from the contacts/interaction, such as check-in and check-out process; enquiry/complaint handling; giving recommendations; and routine communication/conversation. In this way, hotel guests' perceptions of the EI and CQ of front office employees could be explored.

Measurement tool of EI

Regardless of the availability of numerous measuring instruments of EI, some of them have contained too many items which in a certain degree would hinder the operationalisation while conducting the survey. Finally, the 16-item EI measures of Wong and Law (2002), recognised as a "psychologically sound measures in the management field" and its "brevity and reputation" by Kim and Argrusa (2011, p.591) was used in the survey. This measure itself comprises Self-emotional appraisal (SEA), Others' emotional appraisal (OEA), Use of emotion (UOE), and Regulation of emotion (ROE). Since SEA refers to an individual's capability to recognise own emotion and the study was conducted from guests' perspective instead of the usual self-report approach. The item of SEA was ruled out in this survey. The items of the remaining three dimensions of the measurement, namely OEA, UOE, and ROE, were modified and reworded corresponding to the context of the service encounters in the front office. Ultimately, OEA (3 items), UOE (2 items), and ROE (2 items) of Wong and Law (2002) were selected and applied to the questionnaire for respondents to evaluate on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Measurement tool of CQ

The cultural intelligence scale developed by Cultural Intelligence Centre (Ang et al. 2007) was applied to the questionnaire. In this measurement, the dimension of Metacognitive CQ, pertaining to an individual's ability to recognise own higher-order cognitive process of cultural related issues and make adjustment in one's mind, is not appropriate to be assessed by the third party, which means the hotel guest in this study. As such, this aspect was not included in the questionnaire. Again, in view of the self-report nature of the scale, proper modification and rewording for the items containing in the Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ and Behavioural CQ was required. After that, Cognitive CQ (3 items), Motivational CQ (2 items), and Behavioural CQ (4 items) were used in the survey and the respondents rated the front office employees' CQ on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Sample selection and data collection

This research study is to explore hotel frontline employees' EI and CQ from the perception of hotel guests and tourists/visitors in Hong Kong are target respondents. Simultaneously, in view of the nature of CQ, variety of respondents' cultures was also taken into account. Data was collected by convenience sampling in different famous sightseeing spots such as Victoria Peak, Stanley Market, and Avenue of Stars in Hong Kong in June 2015. On top of that, the approximate proportion of the respondents' cultures was planned with reference to the HKTB's Monthly Report - Visitor Arrivals Statistics in Dec 2014 (HKTB Insight and Research, 2015) before the survey was implemented for the purpose of obtaining a diversified profile of respondents' cultures whilst more accurately reflecting tourists/visitors' perception of hotel front office employees' EI and CQ.

Statistical tool

The data collected were entered in the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) for analysis. Frequency analysis was conducted to analyse profiles of the respondents (gender, country of origin, age group, education level). Since the measurement scale of EI and CQ has been modified to fit in the research, the reliability analysis of each subscale of EI and CQ was performed to ensure the internal consistency. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (*r*) was employed to explore the relationship between hotel guests' perception of front office employees' EI and CQ. Moreover, Independent t-test was conducted to compare the differences of EI and CQ of front office employees between the Asian and non-Asian hotel guests. Finally, multiple regression analysis was applied to evaluate if any significant influence of EI and CQ contributes to overall guest satisfaction.

Results

Brief profiles of the respondents

As Table 1 indicates, within the 279 respondents, 130 (46.6%) are male from the major source markets of Hong Kong tourism. For short-haul markets, there are respondents coming from Mainland China, Taiwan, Japan, South Korea, Singapore for instance; the respondents from long-haul markets cover different parts of Europe, like UK, Germany, France, Russia, and others (Spain, Norway, Austria etc.); the Americas; Pacific Rim including Australia and New Zealand. Owing to the adoption of convenience sampling, 160 (57.3%) of respondents selected luxury hotels for their trips whereas 119 (42.7%) stayed in budget hotels. On top of that, 127 (45.5%) of respondents stayed in the hotels for 3 to 4 nights, followed by 1 to 2 nights (23.7%) and 5 to 6 nights (21.1%) respectively. Further, 42% of the respondents aged between 18 and 35, respondents with the age of 36-55 account for another 45%. The similar percentage may reflect that both cohorts, young and mature adults, are equally important to the tourism of Hong Kong. It is also noteworthy that 65% of the sample obtained at least college/university level, signifying that the respondents are capable of understanding and administer the questionnaire in a certain extent.

Reliability

As the measurement scale of EI and CQ was modified to fit in this research study, reliability test was performed to test the internal consistency among the items in each instrument. The Cronbach's α of Others emotional appraisal (OEA), Regulation of emotion (ROE), and Use of emotion (UOE), factors of EI, is 0.920, 0.811 and 0.806 respectively, whereas the Cronbach's α of the factors of CQ is 0.809 (Cognitive CQ), 0.802 (Motivational CQ) and 0.892 (Behavioural CQ). The values of both EI and CQ constructs are above the region of 0.7 to 0.8 as proposed by Kline (1999), which demonstrates the good reliability of the constructs. Moreover, the high value of Corrected item-total correlation ranged from 0.806 to 0.920 of EI construct and from 0.802 to 0.892 of CQ construct, is obviously higher than the cut-off point of 0.30, proving that the items of each scale correlate with the overall score from the questionnaire (Field 2013). In other words, both EI and CQ scales have exhibited good reliability.

Table 1. Respondents' profile

	N =279	Percent			*N* =279	Percent
Gender				*Travel mode*		
Male	130	46.6		Package tour	50	17.9
Female	147	52.7		Independent traveller	229	82.1
Missing	2	0.7				
				Coutnry/region of residence		
Age				Mainland China	47	16.8
Under 18	7	2.5		Taiwan	20	7.2
18-25	49	17.6		Japan	18	6.5
26-35	69	24.7		South Korea	30	10.8
36-45	54	19.4		Singapore	16	5.7
46-55	70	25.1		Malaysia	6	2.2
56-65	18	6.5		Thailand	2	0.7
66 or above	12	4.3		Indonesia	2	0.7
				India	14	5
Purpose of visit				Asia - Others	6	2.2
Vacation/leisure	237	84.9		Australia	14	5
Business/meeting	30	10.8		New Zealand	6	2.2
Visiting friends/relatives	11	3.9		UK	10	3.6
Missing	1	0.4		France	10	3.6
				Germany	21	7.5
Type of hotel				Russia	6	2.2
Luxury	160	57.3		Europe - Others	20	7.2
Budget	119	42.7		USA	16	5.7
				Canada	13	4.7
Length of stay in hotel				America - Others	2	0.7
1 to 2 nights	66	23.7				
3-4 nights	127	45.5		*No. of visit*		
5-6 nights	59	21.1		First time	170	60.9
7 nights or above	17	6.1		2-4 times	75	26.9
Missing	10	3.6		5-7 times	15	5.4
				8-10 times	3	1.1
Education level				More than 10 times	15	5.4
Less than secondary/high school	13	4.7		Missing	1	0.4
Secondary/high school	82	29.4				
College/university	141	50.5				
Postgraduate	42	15.1				
Missing	1	0.4				

Relationship between guests' perception of employee EI and CQ

Table 3 exhibits the relationship between front office employees' EI and CQ from the hotel guests' perception. Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to investigate the relationship. The correlation coefficient ranges from +1 to -1, where +1 represents a perfect positive relationship; -1 means a perfect negative relationship. The correlation coefficient (r) of employees' EI and CQ is 0.775 with $p<0.01$. Thus, it is attested that guests' perception of employees' EI and CQ maintains a high positive correlation. This finding has statistically confirmed the close EI-CQ relationship.

Table 3: Correlation coefficient between guests' perception of employees' EI and CQ

	Overall emotional intelligence	Overall cultural intelligence
Overall emotional intelligence	1	.775**
Overall cultural intelligence	.775**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4. Mean scores of guests' perception of employees' EI and CQ, and results of independent *t*-test

	Emotional intelligence	Cultural intelligence
Asian hotel guests	5.160	4.983
Non-Asian hotel guests	5.427	5.146
t-value	-2.664**	-1.511

** represent 1% significant level

The difference of employees' EI and CQ between Asian and Non-Asian hotel guests

In accordance with Table 4, the mean scores of employees' EI (5.160) and CQ (4.983) from the perspective of Asian hotel guests are consistently lower than non-Asian hotel guests, who carry the average value of 5.427 for EI and 5.146 for CQ respectively. However, to further verify the significance of the variances of the mean scores of EI and CQ between the two cohorts, in a certain extent, depends on the results of an independent t-test. As seen in the table above, it is corroborated that the mean score of Asian hotel guests' perception of employees' EI is significantly lower than the non-Asian hotel guests with $p<0.01$. On the contrary, the mean score of Asian hotel guests' perception of employees' CQ is not significantly lower than the non-Asian hotel guests.

Table 5. Results of regression explaining the impacts of overall EI and CQ on guests' overall satisfaction					
Independent variables					
	B	SE	*β*	*t*	Sig.
Constant	0.566	0.284		1.993	0.047
Overall emotional intelligence	0.354	0.082	0.287	4.323	0.000**
Overall cultural intelligence	0.609	0.080	0.507	7.643	0.000**
Multiple R	0.752				
R Square	0.565				
Note: (1) *B*, coefficient; SE, standard error; *β*, standardised coefficient; *t*, t-value;					
Sig., significance; (2) Dependant variable: guests' overall satisfaction (3) Insignificant items					
were excluded in this table. (4) ** represent 1% significant level.					

Relative influence of EI and CQ on guest overall satisfaction

A multiple regression was conducted to identify the impact of EI and CQ contributing to the guests' satisfaction more precisely. The independent variables, overall emotional intelligence (EI) and cultural intelligence (CQ) shown in Table 5 help to explain the EI- and CQ-guest satisfaction relationship at 95% confidence interval. Simultaneously, the value of correlation coefficient R is 0.752, signifying the high positive relationship between both predictors (guests' perception of employees' EI and CQ). It is noteworthy that the overall EI and CQ of employees from hotel guests' perception account for 56.5% (R^2=0.565) of the variability of guests' overall satisfaction. It implies the representative and influential role of the control variables towards satisfaction of hotel guests. As Field (2013, p.340) reiterated, the standards beta values (β) could "provide a better insight towards into the importance of a predictor in the model. It is evidently attested that the relative importance of employees' overall cultural intelligence (β=0.507) is much higher than employees' overall emotional intelligence (β=0.287) on influencing hotel guests' overall satisfaction. Consequently, we will further explore how EI and CQ exert its influence on guest satisfaction in the hospitality setting in the following section.

Discussion

The positive high correlation (r=0.775, p<0.01) between guests' perception of the front office employees' EI and CQ has attested the positively close relationship between EI and CQ. This finding is able to statistically prove the strong link between EI and CQ from the hotel guests' perception through their observation and interaction in the service counters with the front office employees, apart from using the self-report measure (Moon, 2010; Rockstuhl et al., 2011; Crowne, 2013). The study attests that EI and CQ commonly exist in the hospitality context, which could be noticed by the hotel guests. Consequently, the hotel practitioners should consider the frontline employees' CQ whilst paying attention to their EI owing to their close relationship.

Comparing the mean scores of front office employees' EI and CQ given by the hotel guests, it is identified that Non-Asian hotel guests consistently tend to give higher rating for both EI and CQ than Asian hotel guests superficially. Likewise, it is proved that only the mean score of EI rated by Non-Asian hotel guests is significantly higher than the Asian guests since the mean scores of CQ of both cohorts are so close that may not make any difference. Admittedly, the higher scores given by Non-Asian guests are consistent with the findings of overall hotel satisfaction by other researchers. For example, Schuckert, Liu and Law (2015) analysed

86,000 online reviews and ratings and corroborated the higher satisfaction rating of English speaking customers as compared with non-English speakers; the overall satisfaction level of non-Asian hotel guests is consistently higher than the Asian ones (Lau, Akbar, & Yong, 2006). Indeed, the relatively high rating of the non-Asian guests are reflected and exemplified by the recent findings of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University's Tourist Satisfaction Index and Tourism Service Quality Index (PolyU TSI and TSQI) (SHTM, 2014). In accordance with the PolyU TSI and TSQI of the hotels sector, the average scores of TSI and TSQI of long-haul source from 2012 to 2014, including the Americas, Australia, New Zealand and the Pacific, as well as Europe, Africa and the Middle East, are 75.71, 78.72 and 77.27 as well as 77.23, 80.98 and 79.01 respectively, whereas the short-haul markets, such as mainland China, Japan and Korea, South and Southeast Asia, as well as Taiwan and Macau scored 71.26, 70.72 and 69.17 on average for the PolyU TSI, as well as 73.37, 72.75 and 70.80 for the PolyU TSQI of the hotels sector between 2012 to 2014. Conspicuously, both the satisfaction and tourism service quality index of non-Asian guests is consistently and obviously higher than their short-haul counterparts, which is probably on the downward trend. It is evidently indicated that the non-Asian guests are prone to give higher rating according to their hotel experience and more importantly, the employees' EI and CQ demonstrated through the interactions from the guests' perception. Lau et al. (2006) examined and compared the satisfaction level of hotels in Malaysia among the guests from Malaysia, other Asian countries and non-Asian countries and confirmed the higher the similarity of the cultural background of the hotel guests, the higher the expectation and the lower the satisfaction.

According to the PolyU Tourist Satisfaction Index (SHTM, 2014), tourists from mainland China scored the lowest in 2012 (66.25) and 2013 (69.02) whereas tourists from Taiwan and Macau gave the lowest score of 69.17 in 2014 among all short-haul markets. The largely consistent results of both studies in a certain extent could help explain the higher rating of employees EI and CQ given by the non-Asian guests. Owing to the cultural similarity, Asian hotel guests could be better able to comprehend the level of cultural sensitivity of front office employees in particular values, beliefs and norms, which indeed could be reflected through service employees' cultural intelligence. Conversely, the dissimilarity of the culture may possibly make the non-Asian hotel guests feel excited about the novelty of the totally different culture and may not intend to impose high expectation as the Asian guests towards the service employees in the service encounters, such as check-in and check-out process and enquiry handling. As a result, non-Asian hotel guests may not expect too much on the service employees to demonstrate sophisticated cultural intelligent behaviours. Hence, the rating difference between Asian hotel guests and non-Asian hotel guests for both EI and CQ is resulted. However, is the statistical indifference of the CQ rating between Asian hotel guests and non-Asian hotel guests due to the employees' capabilities of performing more culturally consistent behaviours to the Asian guests rather than non-Asian guests, or is the insignificant difference of CQ attributed to the relatively short duration of guest-service employee interaction that the employees' CQ is hardly to be noticed? Further investigation would be required. Undoubtedly, it is worth noted that culture plays a significant role in this circumstances.

It is the fact that mood and emotions are inherently instilled in every individual. Facing the high customer contact environment in the hospitality industry, which is composed of numerous service encounters involving emotional labour at varying levels throughout the interactions between service employees and hotel guests, any ad hoc and unexpected incidents could inevitably happen anytime. It is generally acknowledged that hotel front office employees, in a certain extent, need to confront stress and tension in their jobs. The stress could directly come from guests like unreasonable and unrealistic request, from their jobs like coordination with other departments and systems/equipment breakdown etc., and from employees' own personal matters like family and affective issues. It is extremely critical for the employees to manage their emotions skillfully and behave properly in highly interactive service settings (Winsted, 2000). Therefore, even if the service employees are in a bad mood for whatever reasons, they are expected and required to professionally and pleasantly interact with the hotel customers to understand and meet their needs accordingly in an attempt to extend quality service to the guests so that guest satisfaction could be achieved eventually. Throughout the entire process, the service employees need to fully utilise their emotional intelligence, from thoroughly realising their own emotions (self-emotional appraisal, SEA) as well as the guests' emotions (others emotional appraisal, OEA), then adjust their own emotion (regulation of emotion, ROE) and extend service to the guests properly under the specific context. For example, under the situation that a guest wearing a tiring face after a long flight is waiting for check-in, one front office employee just performs the routine check-in procedures as usual versus to another employee immediately serves the guest with refreshment (tea or water) and escort him/her to the room. The former definitely could not reflect his/her emotional intelligence which results in negative impact on guest satisfaction; on the contrary, the latter has demonstrated excellent emotional skills like showing empathy and extended appropriate service through recognising guest's emotion in order to assuage his/her unrest or undesirable feeling in the service encounter, followed by positive influence on guest satisfaction in the end. Furthermore, the two extreme outcomes connote to the hotel practitioners that by knowing guest's emotion is scant to attain guest satisfaction unless the guest emotions can be addressed with proper action/behaviour simultaneously.

In view of the diverse cultural settings in the hospitality industry, it is unsurprising to learn the positive influence of frontline employees' CQ on hotel guests' satisfaction. It is an interesting finding on the highly positive impact of frontline employees' CQ (β=0.507) on the overall satisfaction of hotel guests. The result denotes that whether the frontline employees show their understanding of guests' culture and take the lead to interact with the guests through verbal behaviours (language, accent, tone) and/or non-verbal behaviours (facial expression, body language) conforming to the guests' culture instead of just purely exhibiting emotional intelligent behaviours in the service encounter may result in different level of guest satisfaction. It is generally reckoned that the service employees are expected to serve guests with enthusiasm to make them feel being cared and respected. However, being too enthusiastic to the guests in a normal occasion may make them feel uncomfortable and even offended. The unexpected negative outcome might be because of the guests' conservative cultures. For instance, Japanese guests regard the service employee looks into their eyes and talks to them smilingly are impolite, which in a sense makes them feel unrest and being disdained, consequently guest satisfaction may be negatively affected. Intriguingly, applying the situation to the guests with less conservative or open cultures, the eye contact and the smiling face of the service employees let them feel welcome and may appreciate the enthusiastic service, undoubtedly, guest satisfaction could be expected. The example has conspicuously construed the importance of CQ on the service employees and its influential role on guests' satisfaction. By recognising guests' cultural background, the cultural intelligent employees would be better able to proactively use proper verbal and non-verbal behaviours which are consistent and acceptable to guests' cultures in the service encounter, so that guests' needs could be better satisfied.

Likewise, the multiple regression analysis has highlighted the predominant role of frontline employees' cultural intelligence on the guests' overall satisfaction, given that fact that the relative influence of guests' perception of employees' CQ (β=0.507) is much significantly higher than guests' perception of employees' EI (β=0.287), which in a certain extent has echoed the complementary relationship between EI and CQ (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). The findings reveal that focusing purely on frontline employees' emotional intelligence undeniably could gain effects on positive guest satisfaction whereas emphasizing cultural intelligence itself could receive more significantly desirable guest satisfaction. Still, adhering to either one construct could not get the maximum control on the guest satisfaction. Considering the strong relationship between EI and CQ, it is suggested that the hospitality practitioners should reinforce both employees' EI and CQ and encourage them to put them into practice in hopes of maximising guest satisfaction in the end. Tsai and Lee (2014, p.863) and Scott-Halsell et al. (2007, p. 109) suggested that "EI could be instilled, nurtured, or taught" and "EI is teachable" respectively. Undoubtedly, the hotel practitioners could strengthen employees' EI, especially frontline employees, through continuous training and education (Lee, Kim & Jeon, 2013), for instance, workshop for equipping employees' emotional competence through the enhancement of emotional effort (Lee & Ok, 2012), employees' adaptability (Prentice & King, 2013), and deepening the employees' understanding of empathy and building customer relationships (Rozell, Pettijohn & Parker, 2004). Simultaneously, in view of the strong influence of CQ, it is more imperative for hotel practitioners to cultivate and develop frontline employees' CQ in the cross cultural setting of the hospitality industry under such a highly globalised environment. For example, the hotel practitioners could organise a culturally-specific class to teach customer-contact employees not only the languages of major source markets of the hotels, but also the norms and rituals of diverse cultures in order to equip employees with holistic understanding instead of just offering elementary language course. Admittedly, it is a continuous process which involves time and effort to drive individuals to learn, understand and possess new skills and knowledge. Apart from that, the hotel management should also motivate managers, supervisors, and employees to share their experience of EI and CQ at work in order for further progress (Lee & Ok, 2012). Of course, the frontline employees definitely can master EI and CQ better and feel inspired when appropriate reward system is available (Rozell et al., 2004; Lee & Ok, 2012), from compliments, recognitions to monetary incentives for example. Throughout the evolvement of EI, Wong and Law (2002) proposed to match an employee's EI level to the job requirements. Furthermore, a number of researchers recommended one after another to put EI (Rozell et al., 2004; Alon & Higgins, 2005; Kim & Agrusa, 2011; Lee & Ok, 2012; Lee et al., 2013; Prentice & King, 2013; Wolfe & Kim, 2013) or both EI and CQ (Moon, 2010; Rockstuhl et al., 2011) into employee recruitment and selection, like applying relevant EI and CQ test in an attempt to hire emotionally and culturally intelligent employees, especially leaders. Rozell et al., (2004) also suggested using EI as a criterion in employees' performance appraisal. All of these are ideal but may not be pragmatic and highly feasible options given the all-time high employee turnover rate in the hospitality industry across the world. Recognising the increasing importance of EI and CQ in a highly complex and culturally diverse business setting, the hospitality practitioners should be pragmatic enough to deploy sufficient resources to nurture the employees capabilities of EI and CQ at all levels, including managers, through organising a spectrum of EI and CQ training and workshops by considering the status quo of human capital in the hotels.

Regardless of the scholars' corroboration about the importance of EI and CQ towards the highly interactive cross-cultural setting in the hospitality industry, both constructs have been largely ignored by the hotel practitioners facing the highly competitive market. Indeed, the current study has done a breakthrough to explore the relative influence of frontline employees' EI and CQ on guests' overall satisfaction from hotel guests' perception. Based on the analysis of the data collected, it is statistically attested the high positive correlation between guests' perception of frontline employees' EI and CQ. Besides, non-Asian hotel guests tend to consistently rate the employees' EI and CQ higher than the Asian hotel guests. The finding may be possibly due to the cultural dissimilarity, the non-Asian hotel guests are fascinated by different culture which makes them impose lower expectation on the service employees than the Asian counterparts. More importantly, the influence of employees' EI and CQ on guest overall satisfaction has been proved in this study. Under the work setting with high interaction with customers of diverse culture, the frontline service employees need to capitalise their emotional intelligence, regulate their own emotions and perform appropriate behaviour by realising their own emotions and guests' emotions whilst exercising their cultural intelligence, the most influential factor on guests' satisfaction, through the consideration of the cultural background of the guests in terms of the values, beliefs, norms and taboos. Admittedly, the hotel practitioners are held responsible to put sufficient resources into trainings and workshops in an attempt to foster, develop and sharpen the EI and CQ of the employees at all levels to further sustain quality service delivery in the face of the highly globalised context. In this way, the ultimate guest satisfaction could be expected.

Although Kernbach and Schutte (2005) confirmed service provider's EI is related to customer satisfaction, but it was conducted through video presentation of a simulated service encounter only. By contrast, the current research has taken the first attempt to investigate and prove directly not only the positive influence of employees' EI on guest satisfaction, but also the influential role of employees' CQ play on guest satisfaction even if the study has concentrated on guests' evaluation of front office employees' EI and CQ, the findings is absolutely applicable to other operational departments in hotel, such as restaurants and housekeeping department. At the same time, this research study has implemented to explore the significant role of EI and CQ towards guest satisfaction in hotels, which has been seriously neglected in the hospitality industry, more relevant studies are expected to come. Admittedly, the research findings could arouse the attention of the hotel practitioners to recognise the importance of employees' EI and CQ based on its influence and impact towards the guests' satisfaction and let them realise to apply different EI and CQ skills corresponding to different scenarios of the service encounter, so that the hotel practitioners could develop a spectrum of EI and CQ training and workshops adequately according to their own needs instead of routine and superficial ones.

Owing to the exploratory nature of this study, it concentrated on examining the influence of the overall EI and CQ of front office employees from guests' perspectives, which preliminarily substantiated the encouraging and positive effects of both variables on guests' overall satisfaction. On the other hand, the front office employees' self-evaluation on their EI and CQ are not considered. Further studies could include the front office employees in the survey to analyse the EI and CQ difference between the service employees and hotel guests with dyadic data. In order to realise the full picture of the frontline employees' EI and CQ, researchers could also include the frontline employees of all operational departments like restaurants, housekeeping department in their study. Simultaneously, this research studied the employees' EI and CQ of all hotel types, interested researchers could explore the frontline employees' EI and CQ focusing on budget hotels or luxury hotels individually, or compare between the EI and CQ scores of two cohorts of employees.

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Apf1674 Examining the Impact of Negative and Positive Attribute Satisfaction on Overall Destination Satisfaction and Behavioral Intentions

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Abstract

The link between attribute satisfaction, overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions is critical to destination management. In an effort to understand attribute satisfaction in the destination setting, this study aimed to explore the asymmetric impact of negative and positive satisfaction on overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions. The study revealed that there are direct positive–negative as ymmetric effects of attribute satisfaction on overall satisfaction. Additionally, the results showed that attribute satisfaction has both indirect and direct influence on behavioral intentions. Moreover, the positive-negative asymmetry of attribute satisfaction was found on indirect relationship to behavior intentions. Both theoretical and practical implications were discussed.

Keywords: Attribute satisfaction, Negative attribute satisfaction, Positive attribute satisfaction, Overall satisfaction; Behavior intentions; Positive-negative asymmetry

Introduction

Image that when traveling in a destination, a visitor may be very satisfied with their trip to attractions but highly dissatisfied with food provided by local restaurants. Existing destination studies focused solely on the overall assessment of visitors on their destination experience. Such an approach toward examining destination satisfaction and behavioral intentions need to be revisited. Since customers may be satisfied with one attribute experience but dissatisfied with another, they may have mixed feelings towards a product or service (Oliver, 1993). The mixed feeling, including negative and positive feeling, leads to an asymmetric impact on their overall satisfaction and their behavioral intentions (Mittal, Ross, & Baldasare, 1998). For destination service providers, it is important to obtain an in-depth understanding of travelers' attribute experience. It should be noted that attribute experience cannot be compared at the level of "performance units." For example, the comfort level of a hotel stay is not comparable with the taste of local food. However, attribute satisfaction can be compared at the level of "satisfaction units" (Oliver, 1993). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the asymmetric impact of negative and positive attribute satisfaction on overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions in the context of destination marketing and management.

Literature Review

Overall satisfaction can be viewed as a function of all previous attribute experience (Oliver, 1993). Previously, the link between attribute satisfaction and overall satisfaction was thought to be symmetric. When examining the theoretical and analytic importance of the relationship between attribute-level performance and overall satisfaction, it is important to recognize that the relationship could be asymmetric (Oliva, Oliver, & Bearden, 1995). The asymmetrical impact of attribute satisfaction is based on the positive–negative asymmetry (Peeters & Czapinski, 1990), which suggests that events that are negatively valenced will have longer lasting and more intense consequences than positively valenced events of the same type (Peeters & Czapinski, 1990). This positive-negative asymmetric effect is closely aligned with the loss aversion described in prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). Based on previous theories and studies, the following hypothesis was drawn:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Negative evaluation on an attribute satisfaction will have a greater influence on overall destination satisfaction.

Since satisfied visitors are more likely to recommend the destination to others and intend to revisit the destination (Kozak, 2001; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), the relationship between satisfaction and tourist behavioral intentions has been well studied in the destination setting. However, most studies ignored the role of attribute satisfaction and only included overall satisfaction. Previous literature on satisfaction indicates that overall satisfaction mediates the relationship of attribute satisfaction and repurchase intentions and the asymmetric effects of negative and positive evaluation (Ostrom & Lacobucci, 1995; Mittal, Ross, & Baldasare, 1998), we proposed the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Attribute satisfaction has a direct impact on behavioral intentions to destination.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Attribute satisfaction has an indirect impact on behavioral intentions to destination.

Hypothesis 4 (H4): Negative evaluation on an attribute satisfaction will have a greater influence on behavioral intentions to destination

Methodology

Data were derived from the Macao Visitor Profile Study Annual Report in 2013. Eligible respondents were visitors (18 and older) completing at least 80% of their current trip to Macao. The Visitor Profile Survey was administered via street-intercept interviews at four major departure terminals of Macao, including the Macao-Hong Kong Ferry Terminal, Taipa Ferry Terminal, Macao International Airport, and Border Gate of Macao. A total of 5,853 questionnaires were collected.

The survey questions on “attribute satisfaction,” “overall trip satisfaction”, “word-of mouth (WOM) intention” and “return intention” from the survey were selected for analysis. Several items were excluded because they had low response rates (such as ‘‘satisfaction of meeting and exhibition facility’’ and “satisfaction of paid outside show”). Attribute satisfaction included satisfaction on gambling, dining, shopping, and visiting attractions. Two limitations must be noted. First, some attribute satisfaction is not included in the visitor profile survey such as attribute satisfaction of staying in the hotel and local transportation. Second, except for behavioral intentions that were measured by two items -- word-of-mouth intention and return intention, all other variables were measured with a single-item scale. However, according to previous studies (Yi, 1990; Lebarbera & Mazursky, 1983) single-item measure in large-scale survey research is acceptable.

Results

To test H_1, a dummy-variable regression was conducted using negative and positive satisfaction of the four attributes as the independent variables and overall satisfaction as thedependent variable. The model was significant (F=27.242, p<0.001), R^2=22.3. The different effects of positive and negative attribute satisfaction on overall satisfaction were estimated by comparing the absolute magnitude of the positive and negative satisfaction. As shown in Table 1, all other positively valenced attribute satisfaction had positive signs, while negatively valenced attribute satisfaction had negative signs. For the significant attributes, except for attractions satisfaction, negative attribute satisfaction was found to be greater than that of positive attribute satisfaction. Thus, H1 was partially supported.

Table 1
Asymmetric Impact on Overall Satisfaction

	Unstandardized Coefficients (B)	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t-statistic	*p*-value
(Constant)	3.537	.119		29.641	.000
Gambling negative satisfaction	-.510	.118	-.161	-4.330	.000
Gambling positive satisfaction	.172	.066	.095	2.601	.009
Dining negative satisfaction	-.691	.199	-.143	-3.466	.001
Dining positive satisfaction	.294	.083	.133	3.553	.000
Shopping negative satisfaction	-.585	.228	-.109	-2.568	.010
Shopping positive satisfaction	.246	.106	.090	2.328	.020
Attractions negative satisfaction	-.048	.149	-.012	-.324	.746
Attractions positive satisfaction	.132	.071	.068	1.846	.065

The other objective of this study was to determine whether negative and positive attribute satisfaction have different impacts on behavioral intentions. Before testing this asymmetric effect, we examined the existence of direct impact of both negative and positive satisfaction on behavioral intentions. Two models were proposed based on the previous studies. Model 1, presented in Figure 1, suggests that overall satisfaction completely mediates the relationship between attribute satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Anderson *et al.*, 1994; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1994; Oliver, 1997). In this model, attribute satisfaction is integrated into the customer's overall satisfaction and only has the indirect impact on behavioral intentions. Model 2 assumes partial mediation (Figure 2). This model hypothesizes that attribute satisfaction is an antecedent of both overall satisfaction and behavior intentions. In addition, attribute satisfaction has both indirect and direct impact on behavioral intentions.

The values of the goodness of fit suggest that both Model 1 (GFI = .991, AGFI = .986) and Model 2 (GFI = 1; AGFI = 1) established good fit. The proposed two models were evaluated by using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). AIC is a criterion for model selection among candidate models. It measures the relative quality of statistical models for a given set of data. The AIC value for Model 2 (AIC=49023.002) is smaller than Model 1 (AIC=49160.741). Since the model with the smallest AIC value is preferred (Burnham &Anderson, 2004), attribute satisfaction has both direct and indirect impact on the word-of-mouth. Therefore, H2 and H3 were supported.

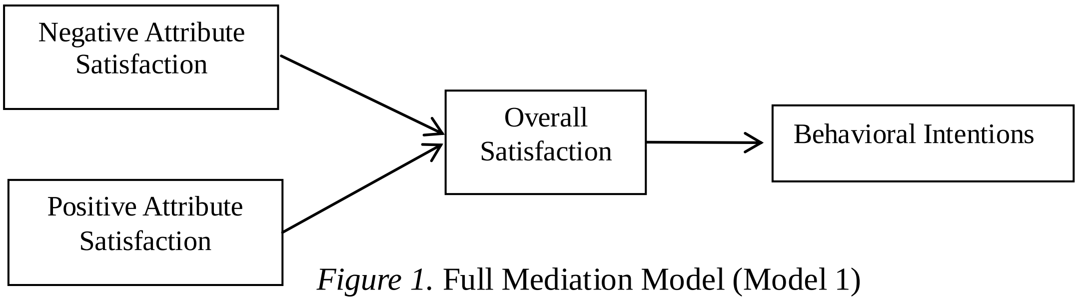

Figure 1. Full Mediation Model (Model 1)

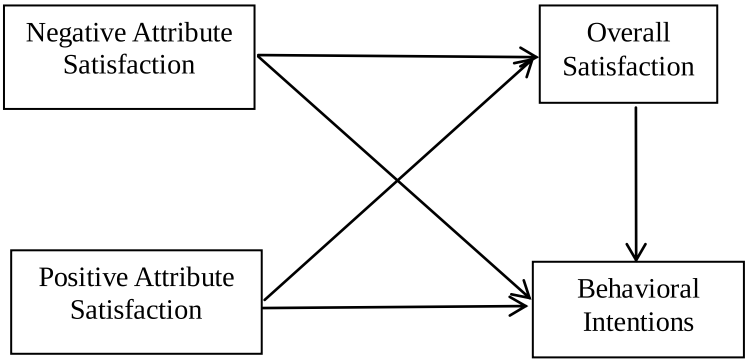

*Figure 2.*Partial Mediation Model (Model 2)

The next step was to evaluate the asymmetric direct effects of negative and positive attribute satisfaction on behavioral intentions. Based on Model 2, the coefficient of each attribute satisfaction variable was calculated by using LISREL 9.2. The absolute value of path coefficients was compared. Results show that except for shopping satisfaction (Negative= -.040, Positive= .090) and touristattractions satisfaction (Negative= -.003, Positive= .085), the coefficients of other two negative attribute satisfaction (Gambling: Negative= -.119, Positive= .105; Dining: Negative= -.066, Positive= .051) were greater than the positive ones. Therefore, among the direct relationship between attribute satisfaction and behavioral intentions, positive-negative asymmetric effect can not be confirmed.

Since the positive-negative asymmetry of attribute satisfaction on overall satisfaction was found as discussed above and overall satisfaction had a statistical significance on behavioral intentions (t=7.386, $p<.05$), H4 was partially supported that the positive-negative asymmetry of attribute satisfaction on indirect relationship to behavioral intentions exists.

Discussion

When tourists travel, they experience various activities in the destination. They have different levels of satisfaction towards diverse destination attributes. By using a large-scale secondary data set, our study examined the asymmetric effect of negative and positive attribute satisfaction on overall satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

First, overall satisfaction is found to be affected differently by negative and positive attribute satisfaction. In addition, negative satisfaction on an attribute has a greater impact than positive satisfaction. Second, In addition to the indirect impact mediated by overall satisfaction, attribute satisfaction has a direct impact on behavioral intentions. Third, the positive-negative asymmetry of attribute satisfaction on indirect relationship to behavior intentions is detected.

Theoretical implications

This study bridged the gap on attribute satisfaction research in the destination setting. Previous destination marketing models only included overall satisfaction and did not test tourists' satisfaction at the attribute level. Even for those studies that took the attribute-level satisfaction into consideration, they did not differentiate the asymmetric influence between the negative attribute satisfaction and positive attribute satisfaction. The finding that attribute satisfaction also has a direct effect on behavior intentions questions the existing models of destination studies, which assumed that attribute satisfaction affects tourist behavioral intentions only through the full mediation of overall satisfaction.

Practical implications

From a practical perspective, the discovery of this direct relationship between attribute satisfaction and behavioral intentions can improve destination managers' awareness of the important role of attribute satisfaction.

At the same time, keeping the asymmetric impact of negative and positive attribute satisfaction in mind can assist destination marketing organizations to arrange their work priority, which will lead to strategically maximize tourist overall satisfaction and indirectly influence tourists' behavioral intentions. Since the negative attribute satisfaction has a greater impact than the positive satisfaction does, destination managers are recommended to allocate more resources and energy on alleviating tourists' negative attribute satisfaction.

Limitations and future research

The findings from current study provide many opportunities for further research. Considering limitation of using secondary data, a well-designed survey with primary data collection is needed to improve the accuracy of research findings. First, future research should include more attributes to reflect the multi-dimensionality of destination characteristics. For example, hotel satisfaction was not available in the survey but should be added to reveal more meaningful results. The current study shows that both positive and negative evaluation on attribute satisfaction of tourist attractions was not found significant in the model. The reason might be that the question in the survey cannot accurately represent the attribute satisfaction of tourist attractions. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked "What is your satisfaction level of facilities of tourist attractions?" As a result, they were more likely to rate their satisfaction on facilities instead of their experience with these attractions. Second, future study need to include more indicators of each variable, which can improve the validity of measurement.

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Apf1675 The International Education Experience: a Tripartite Hospitality Master Program

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Introduction

As the process of globalization advances, it is evident that the education marketplace is expanding, travel between countries is becoming easier and more affordable and overseas educational mobility is growing (OECD, 2013). These global changes affect Higher Education Institutions (hereinafter HEIs). Firstly, HEIs are now competing internationally, therefore attracting new enrolments requires making it to the top of international university rankings to attain international reputation (Mok, 2007). Secondly, as the number of international students at the institution is an indicator of competitiveness in the international university leagues (Shin & Harman, 2009), HEIs strive to attract students from various countries, therefore creating a diverse group of consumers. Third, students want global educational experiences that can prepare them for international careers (Rodríguez, Martínez-Roget, & Pawlowska, 2012), hence the increase in mutual agreements between foreign institutions for exchange programs and joint degrees (Mok, 2007; Shin & Harman, 2009).

As the competitive environment changes, HEIs need to adapt the approach traditionally taken to evaluate their business success. This was normally achieved by measures of students' satisfaction or perceived quality of the services offered by the institution. Yet, where the consumers consist of students from different nationalities displaced from their home countries business success for HEIs can be hardly attributed solely to the quality of the services directly provided to students. The overall wellbeing and quality of life in the destination over the extended period of stay can play an important role in determining whether international students are satisfied, will recommend the study destination and the institution (Azevedo, Custódio, & Perna, 2013; Chen, Dwyer, & Firth, 2015; Rasmi, Safdar, & Lewis, 2009) and will be in the optimal conditions to fully appreciate and benefit from the institution's core services (educational).

The Asia-Pacific region is home to the fastest growing higher education market internationally (Shin & Harman, 2009). In this context Hong Kong has been leveraging on the international students preference for education delivered in English (UNESCO, 2013) and has established itself as a competitive country in the international student market (Paswan & Ganesh, 2009). The tripartite Master of Science in Global Hospitality Business (hereinafter GHB) offered by the School of Hotel and Tourism Management at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University is one example of Asian HEIs competing internationally, responding to student demand for global education and gathering a diverse group of international students. The GHB gathers students of several nationalities and brings them to three different Universities, countries and continents over the course of the study period (The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong SAR in China, Asia; Ecole Hotellier de Lausanne, Switzerland, Europe; University of Houston, USA, North America). By following this course of study students are exposed to three different cultures in proximity to the hospitality industries of three different countries, while also fulfilling the requirements of the program under three educational systems (EHS, 2016; SHTM, 2016). The program mirrors the multifaceted structure of international higher education, and it is here investigated as an instance of the evolving higher education system, whereby HEIs provide students with increasingly complex experiences rather than with services.

Literature review

HEIs Business Success

Education has been long referred to as a service sector by governments, with international education being regarded as a sector in international trade capable to generate revenues through international students enrolments (WTO, 2002). Accordingly, a review of the available academic literature shows that HEIs success is usually evaluated through more or less adjusted service quality measures, confirming that HEIs are widely regarded as service providers (Ahmad, 2015; Arambewela & Hall, 2006; Arambewela, Hall, & Zuhair, 2006; Chang & Chang, 2015; Cheng, Tsai, & Lin, 2013; Matthews & Lawley, 2011; Paswan & Ganesh, 2009). In particular, satisfaction stands out as the most common measure under the assumption that "incidents of satisfaction over time result in perceptions of service quality" (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988, p. 16). This can be seen as a consequence of higher education public funding steadily decreasing and HEIs relying on student enrolments to fund their operations. This triggered a process of marketization of higher education whereby institutions undertake a sales-oriented approach, therefore measuring their success primarily through student satisfaction (Judson & Taylor, 2014).

Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) developed an approach to evaluation of service quality based on satisfaction, understood as the difference between consumer expectations and perceptions. The relative instrument is a multiple-items scale called SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1988) that is widely applied. In the higher education context it has been administered to students with a view to identifying gaps between their desired expectations and post-choice perceptions of the institutions' service delivery (Arambewela & Hall, 2006; Arambewela et al., 2006). The SERVQUAL instrument was used also in the international education experience context, and uncovered that different dimensions of the scale are relevant to overall satisfaction to a different extent depending on students country of origin (Arambewela & Hall, 2006; Arambewela et al., 2006). Cheng et al. (2013) integrate a modified version of the SERVQUAL questionnaire into a three-tier model to identify the education service-quality attributes that are most in need of improvement in the context of tourism and hospitality education.

There are critics against measuring HEIs business success through a disconfirmation-based instrument such as SERVQUAL. For example, Ahmad (2015) choose to investigate student satisfaction at international branch campuses by administering a performance-only instrument (SERVPERF) which is deemed to outperform the disconfirmation based one. There are also critics to measuring HEIs business success based on satisfaction in general, arguing that there should be more focus on student outcomes rather than on their evaluations (Judson & Taylor, 2014).

Experience

This research argues that it is restrictive for HEIs to gauge their success in providing international education by thinking of their offering as if it were a mere service. Buying a service means for consumers to purchase activities that are carried out on their behalf (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Yet effective learning, particularly in the field of tourism and hospitality, is often achieved through a focus on hands-on experiential education (Cheng et al., 2013). This implies not only that a substantial component of the value perceived by the students is created outside the traditional service environment ("beyond the classroom") (Chang & Chang, 2015), but also that the students themselves play a fundamental role in the value creation process. The HEI process of marketization caused a shift in the understanding of "value" (Judson & Taylor, 2014). Value in marketization is defined by the producer and stems from meeting student, parent and stakeholders self-perceived goals, such as future job attainability. Therefore HEI markers of success have changed from intellectual considerations to employment related ones (Judson & Taylor, 2014). More appropriate markers of success entail an emphasis in marketing rather than marketization, whereby value is determined by the consumer as "value in use" and depends on the HEIs meeting student and society *developmental* goals (Judson & Taylor, 2014). This can be better understood by contextualizing higher education in the current value creation framework: the experience economy. "*Value*" is the personal meaning consumers attach to a personalized co-creation experience, which occurs through their involvement (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2003). A company is an experience stager, using its core service as the stage and its products as prompts to engage the consumer on an emotional, physical and intellectual level into a memorable event (I. I. B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The experience value lies within the consumers and lingers in their memory long afterwards (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999). A higher education institution is the stager of an educational experience. The provision of the educational product, i.e. teaching, represents the core service and the stage of the overall experience. The consumer (i.e. the student) not only plays an active role into determining the performance, but also will determine the meaningfulness attached to the experience through its previous state of mind and its own private interaction with the experience environment. The resulting experience is inherently personal and created within the consumer (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999). The biggest challenge for producers consists in providing an experience environment flexible enough to accommodate a "wide range of individual context-and-time specific needs and preferences", so that each consumer can establish his unique interaction with it (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2003). This is particularly important for HEIs that target diverse international students and/or provide their services across different countries.

The experience provider can better accommodate consumers' needs if it has clear what is the level and form of participation that the consumer prefers. B. J. Pine and Gilmore (1999) argue that on an ideal continuum an experience can require the consumer *active* participation on one end or *passive* participation at the other end. The second dimension that defines experiences refers to the environmental relationship that bonds the consumer with the event staged by the provider. *Immersion* occurs when the consumer is brought in the experience environment and is physically part of it, as opposed to *absorption,* which occurs when the experience is brought to the consumer's mind and occupies his attention (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999). This is how the "level and form of the customer involvement in business offerings" is defined (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Optimal experiences provide for different level and forms of customer involvement at the same time (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

The education experience requires the consumer's active participation, while in terms of the environmental relationship between the student and the educational context, B. J. Pine and Gilmore (1999) define education as an absorptive experience, occasionally even requiring less active participation from the student, as in the case of edutainment. Yet, education providers increasingly offer hands-on experiential learning that includes interaction with natural resources and living environments (Chang & Chang, 2015) and studying abroad is increasingly seen as an opportunity to foster students' development of skills related to global citizenship (Stoner et al., 2014). This increasingly common displacement of the students away from the familiar learning and living environment to a foreign one allows the student to learn from the specific context and settings. In the case of international education, emphasis is put on learning by living in a place, therefore highlighting the importance of being immersed in a foreign physical and human environment to better achieve educational aims (for example learning foreign languages). Therefore consumers in international education are more likely to derive value from an absorptive relationship with the environment where education takes place. In particular tourism and hospitality education providers strive to offer an immersive experience, where the student can get hands-on learning opportunities from contacts with the study destination and its industry.

The tourist experience

A similar interpretation of experience as discussed in the previous section with regard to the international education experience was used with respect to *tourist* destinations by Oh, Fiore, and Jeoung (2007). They stressed that the experience of a destination consists of all the events and activities that the tourists participate in during their stay, and that it is from the sum of such events and activities that they derive value and formulate evaluations about the destination.

The tourist experience framework represents a useful tool to interpret the international students experience in the study destination. In fact, it is argued that international students visit the city they are staying at and in many occasions they travel through the rest of the country or to the neighboring ones (Herrero, Martin, Garcia de los Salmones, & Rio Pena, 2015). Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010) view the tourist experience as composed by three dominant definitional elements, namely its phasic nature, an influential realm and a personal realm. The tourist experience is “all that happens during a tourist event” plus the anticipation before the trip and the recollection after the trip (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010, p. 9). The influential realm consists in those factors outside of the individual that influence the experience *during* its unfolding. These factors are grouped into the physical aspects of the destination, the various social influences on the experience and factors related to products and services available at the destination, such as service-quality, available leisure activities and tourist-related products (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). These factors permeate the experience and influence its evaluation (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). The personal realm involves elements within the individuals. Some of these elements are direct outcomes of the on-site experience, in particular knowledge, memory, perception, emotion and self-identity (as identified from findings and conclusions in the tourism literature). They influence the motivations and expectations related to future tourist experiences and are affected by the overall evaluation of the past tourist experiences.

The structure of tourist experience as proposed by Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010) is used in the current study to frame the international student experience and to identity its main definitional elements - being phasic and affected by an influential realm and a personal realm. In addition within this framework the experience economy lens is applied to interpret students accounts and to investigate their value creation process.

There are four realms of experience identified by I. I. B. J. Pine and Gilmore (1998) based on the different possible combinations of participation required from consumers and their relationship with the environment: entertainment, education, esthetics and escapism. Starting from this framework, Oh et al. (2007) find that these dimensions provide an appropriate measure of tourist experiences, as they all had implications towards the tourist experience potential outcomes, namely purchase-related arousal, memory, quality evaluation and satisfaction (Oh et al., 2007). Contrarily to the “sweet spot” proposition, according to which in the best experiences all the four realms should be available to the consumer (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999), Oh et al. (2007) find that the commingling of the four dimensions does not better explain variance in consumption-related judgments.

Mehmetoglu and Engen (2011) investigate tourists' satisfaction in two different tourism contexts through the four dimensions of experience (B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999). In line with Oh et al. (2007) they find that tourist satisfaction does not necessarily depend on the experience hitting the "sweet spot", but rather that different dimensions of experience have significant impacts on tourist satisfaction in different contexts (Mehmetoglu & Engen, 2011).

In summary these authors articulate that the framework of experience as proposed by B. J. Pine and Gilmore (1999) can be used to examine the business success in staging experiences and to identify the dimensions that are most crucial in determining customer satisfaction (Mehmetoglu & Engen, 2011).

The international student experience

In line with the shifting paradigm of value co-creation and economic competition towards the theories of experience economy, academic research on education quality is increasingly attributing relevance to aspects not strictly related to the core services.

Aspects of life "outside the classroom" can impact on the overall perceived quality of the experience. Chang and Chang (2015) found that the practice of extending indoor classrooms to the outdoors is significantly related to learning satisfaction and to learning effectiveness; and that learning satisfaction leads to learning effectiveness, by prompting more active and spontaneous thinking (Chang & Chang, 2015). Davidson, King, and Wang (2011) show that there are various dimensions to the perceived quality of international learning experiences, including students' need for cultural, learning and lifestyle adjustments, cross-cultural benefits of the experience and other factors external to both the student and the HEIs (Davidson et al., 2011). Ahmad (2015) investigates determinants of perceived quality at international branch campuses and finds that students place importance not only on the program quality, but also on the relationship with academic and administrative staff, on the experience of international culture and learning processes and on facilities directly and indirectly providing for better social life. Paswan and Ganesh (2009) recognize that there are interactions between students and educational institutions that are beyond the core content of education and yet crucial to compete in the international student market. These interactions are identified as service augmenters and fall into the domain of customer service (Paswan & Ganesh, 2009). According to their results financial augmenters, campus life augmenters and social interaction augmenters have significant impacts on loyalty towards the institution. International students in different countries may place more importance on to augmenters that are unique to their study destination. While the institutions can have significant control over internal augmenters that directly embellish the core education service, external augmenters such as the looks of the surrounding locality, the conditions of the nearby shops, etc., could also be taken into consideration and influence students satisfaction in evaluating a university (Paswan & Ganesh, 2009).

When it comes to international education the academic literature has carried out extensive research in supports of the idea that students' expectations and satisfaction about the experience go beyond considerations of the service delivered by the host institution. Student satisfaction about the assigned exchange destination before departure is influenced by the hosting institution image, which is in turn affected by the city's image, in turn positively related to the destination country reputation (Herrero et al., 2015). Students choose to embark on international education experiences driven by the desire for entertainment, travel, social experience and by escapist reasons such as taking a break from usual environments and experiencing something new (Juvan & Lesjak, 2011; Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap, & Axelsson, 2015; Llewellyn-Smith & McCabe, 2008; Teichler, 2004). Clearly, students place much importance on the destination's attractiveness, which has been interpreted as using study abroad programs to enjoy leisure activities and the lifelong unique experience of living abroad (Rodriguez Gonzalez, Bustillo Mesanza, & Mariel, 2011). The fact that in some cases destination pull factors were found to be more important than the University pull factors (Llewellyn-Smith & McCabe, 2008) underpins such interpretation. Among the factors significantly affecting the choice of a study destination, Mazzarol and Soutar (2002) found the perceived general environment, the lifestyle, its climate and perception of how studious (or not) it is. According to Cubillo, Sánchez, and Cerviño (2006) because the study destination represents the environment in which the educational service is provided, the students will take into consideration characteristics of the place when evaluating potential international educational experiences.

What international students consume in the study destination is a holistic experience in which the educational offerings of the host institutions represent only one part, and only one of the means through which the student creates the value of the experience. Therefore it is argued here that study destinations should be positioned as staged experiences rather than as the mere location of the core service provider, the HEI. Studying abroad responds to educational needs that cannot be as easily and efficiently satisfied in settings other than that of the study destination.

Conceptual Framework

The current research rests on the following ideas:

- like many other industries, higher education has entered the experience economy – value creation in the international education experience can be understood as a co-creation and interpreted through the four realms identified by B. J. Pine and Gilmore (1999);
- the international education experience is structured as a tourist experience of the study destination – it is phasic and affected by influential and personal realms (Quinlan Cutler & Carmichael, 2010);

The international education experience involves all the events and activities experienced by international students while in the study destination and the international student derives value from the whole international education experience. The student is a co-producer of the service and co-creators of value, which is perceived and determined as "value in use" (Judson & Taylor, 2014; B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1999; I. I. B. J. Pine & Gilmore, 1998). In this view, HEIs consumer value is not created merely by providing educational services, but rather by offering an educational experience *within* a destination experience. The international student will therefore co-create value and determine meaningfulness through the preferred form and level of interaction with the experience environment and according to existing influential and personal realms.

The current study focuses on the international education experience in the tourism and hospitality field. The researcher sets to uncover the dimensions it entails therefore laying the foundations for measuring perceived quality in the context of international higher education experiences. The purpose is to provide HEIs with information on relevant aspects to pay attention to in order to ensure international students a positive experience. Hospitality higher education institutions could benefit of this framework to interpret the international students experience based on dimensions common to students of different nationalities, inherent to international hospitality education experiences and that refer to study abroad in Asia, as opposed to the abundant literature on Asian students in western institutions.

2 The research gap

Because of economic imperatives research in international education focuses on whether international students are satisfied rather than well-educated, therefore failing to address other important aspects such as ethical relevance, transformative power and nature of the experience (Matthews & Lawley, 2011). As mentioned in the previous sections, satisfaction is often used as a measure to predict perceived quality. Yet, as Jennings (2010) points out, consumption and provision of experience are “niche-ing, tailorising, re-inventing and innovating” (p. 81), and “quality” increasingly acknowledges distinction. Existing research could benefit from more qualitative and holistic approaches to the study of experiences and their quality in order to better reflect their multidimensional and complex nature (Jennings, 2010).

The first limitation that the author intends to overcome with the present study is the understanding of international higher education as a service offering. This approach is not only outdated in light of the paradigm of the experience economy previously explained, but also constrains the investigation of students perceived quality by taking into consideration only one part of the whole experience and therefore only a small determinant of their satisfaction with the international education experience.

Secondly, previous research produced findings that refer to a generic perception of service quality in higher education but these may not be applicable to a specific international higher education experience such as that within a tripartite course that includes other two international educational experience besides the one under investigation. For example, in the context of a tripartite master like the GHB it is hard to investigate the motivation that brought students to Hong Kong, because the students sign up for the whole master, and therefore all the three pre-established and bundled destinations. It is more complicated to determine whether there was one destination that was more important (or the only one important) in determining the choice of the program.

Thirdly, there is a predominance of quantitative studies in the aforementioned corpus, which implies that, in most of the cases, respondents are asked to express their opinions about factors that the researchers have determined a priori as relevant to describe student satisfaction. The "*quality = satisfaction*" relationship works only whereby the service provider and consumer have the same goal in the exchange, but in the current higher education situation that is often not the case (Judson & Taylor, 2014). Where measures of HEI performance are based on transaction-specific student satisfaction there will be inconsistency with long term educational aims. In addition, when designing surveys for evaluation purposes often the items do not capture concepts that students cognitively relate to (Judson & Taylor, 2014). In the current study, instead, not only the researcher will let student list the most relevant aspects to the perceived quality of the experience, but also will let the students express their perception in their preferred manner, which may differ from the disconfirmation system.

2 Research question and research objectives

This paper investigates the consumption of international higher education in the context of a tripartite master in global hospitality business. Based on the experience economy framework of value co-creation proposed by I. I. B. J. Pine and Gilmore (1998) and on the structure of the tourist experience designed by Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010), the researcher's aims are:

- to investigate the international education experience definitional elements of a tripartite master in global hospitality business;
- to identify aspects of such international education experience that are considered relevant by international students when giving an evaluation of the master course.

To do so the researcher will make use of the structure of tourist experience proposed by Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010) to identify what students attribute to the influential and personal realm of experience. In addition, the in-depth interviews data collection method will allow the researcher to understand from the HEIs consumers their process of value co-creation during the international education experience. Finally, in the data analysis phase the researcher will identify the aspects of the international education experience that students account for in giving their evaluation.

The objectives and proposed research design will answer the following research question:
"*How does an international student evaluate an international higher education experience*?"
Therefore the results of this research will not only unearth what aspects of the international education experience convey value for the consumers, but also how does the individual engage in the value co-creation process in such context.

Methodology

Students were identified as the respondent population because their accounts of what contributes to the value of an international education experience can inform HEIs businesses on how to better satisfy their consumers and on how to better evaluate their business success.

Since the object of this study is a holistic experience and the students' personal value attached to it, a qualitative research approach is preferred. As mentioned above, as opposed to most of the existing research on student satisfaction whereby questionnaires were administered to test the significance of *a priori* hypothesized relationship between factors and satisfaction, the aim of this study is to let students voice what they believe makes their master course a good international education experience.

Data collection methods

Semi-structured in-depth interviews were chosen as data collection method. Interviews are often referred to as a form of conversation with a purpose (Ritchie, Lewis, McNaughton Nicholls, & Ormston, 2014). In the current case such conversations were aimed at obtaining students personal accounts of their international education experience. A general topic guide was developed in order for the interviewer to make sure that the main issues were covered by the respondents. The topic guide was preferred to a list of interview questions as the data collection was intended to let respondents spontaneously raise and discuss aspects of the international education experience that are important to them.

The respondents belong to the first cohort of students of the Master in Global Hospitality Business and at the moment of data collection they were carrying out their second semester in Hong Kong after having spent their first semester in Lausanne, Switzerland. Respondents were recruited by introducing the research project directly at the end of one of their classes at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management premises, after failed attempts to recruit them via institutional email. A total of 10 respondents were reached, with interviews being carried out in informal settings such as over lunch or a coffee break to accommodate their tight schedules. All the interviews were carried out between March 30th and April 8th 2016 in Hong Kong.

Data Analysis

Given the objectives of the study the researcher selected thematic analysis as the first step in the process of data analysis. This first step follows the approach suggested by Ritchie et al. (2014) whereby the theoretical background of the research informs the study design and the main topics to be covered by data collection (hence the topics guide), but at the beginning of the data analysis themes emerge from the data only. Thematic analysis aims at identifying and interpreting patterns and clusters of meaning in the data set (Ritchie et al., 2014). The researcher will carry out this first step of data analysis through the use of NVIVO 10 software based on the transcriptions of the interviews.

The second step of the qualitative data analysis follows a substantive orientation. The researcher focuses on "capturing and interpreting meanings in the data" (p. 272) through a systematic overview of the themes that are common and applied across the whole sample, hence developing conceptual categories (Ritchie et al., 2014).

Thirdly, the researcher will proceed with the interpretation of data: in this phase the researcher provides explanations of the meanings attributed by the respondents to the international education experience. To do so the interpretation will be based on the definitional elements identified by Quinlan Cutler and Carmichael (2010) (phasic, influential and personal realm) and the four realms of experience and value co-creation as proposed by B. J. Pine and Gilmore (1999).

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Apf1676 Developing Certification for Chinese Health and Wellness Tourism: An Explorary Study

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ABSTRACT

Travel for health and wellness has become a new trend in recent decades worldwide. As health has a broad meaning and is very much socially constructed, a wide range of health tourism products are promoted in China. In order to reach an agreement and set up a quality control of rising health and wellness tourism, CNTA currently proposes an industrial guidance to promote the health and wellness tourism. It is expected that this guidance would help to facilitate the health and wellness tourism to be developed in a sustainable way.

This study first examines related studies on certification programs in tourism. Certification programs have been widely used in tourism to ensure the quality of tourism service. Yet, there are also challenges due to the heterogeneous nature of tourism service. Secondly, studies on health and wellness are also reviewed. Since health and wellness is very much socially constructed, a wide spectrum of wellness and health tourism are developed, covering the medical tourism and the climate oriented tourism. Through the examination of the process on how the certification program on health and wellness tourism is developed and the key areas which program focus, the study reveals how these issues of concerns are addressed in the certification program.

Keywords: Health and wellness; certification; quality control

Apf1677 Attitudes Expressed by Hong Kong Newspapers towards Mainland Chinese Tourists a Use of Machine Learning in News Analysis

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Abstract

The conflicts between Hong Kong society and Mainland Chinese tourists (MCTs) have been increasingly sharp. The mass media can be a mirror and a moulder of public opinions. To better understand the attitudes of Hong Kong as a society towards MCTs, this study applied machine learning in identifying the attitudes expressed in Hong Kong newspaper articles. The results show that the average attitudes of news articles gradually became less positive since 2009 and reached a negative level in 2014. This decline is potentially associated with the increase in MCT arrivals to Hong Kong. Moreover, different Hong Kong newspapers, despite their original orientation of MCTs, have generally expressed more and more negative attitudes towards MCTs in the past few years. This research is limited in many perspectives due to the constraints of time and resource, yet implications from the worsening attitudes of the Hong Kong society towards MCTs should be recognised.

Keywords: Hong Kong newspaper, host community, machine learning, Mainland Chinese tourists, media attitude, news analysis

Introduction

Hong Kong tourism depends largely on tourists from Mainland China nowadays. Visitors from Mainland China accounted for 77% of total arrivals in 2015 (HKTB, 2016). However, the arrivals from Mainland China have dropped from 47.2 million in 2014 to 45.8 million in 2015 (HKTB, 2016). This first drop of Mainland Chinese tourists (MCTs) in the last decade (Arlt, 2016) is associated with the local hostility and negative attitude towards MCTs (Liu, 2015; Sun, 2015). Not every Hong Kong resident (HKR) has the chance to witness the antiMCTs protests in Sheung Shui (Lam, 2015) or Tsim Sha Tsui (Ng, 2014), but it is easy to know these events by reading newspapers. The frames of news may alter individual attitude towards certain issues and further trigger collective actions in the society (De Vreese, 2005). Local community is an essential stakeholder of tourism. How local newspapers are reflecting the image of MCTs and how the discussion topics on MCTs are framed should not be neglected if the tourist-host relationship in Hong Kong is to be better understood.

Literature Review

Print media can be both a mirror (Beniger, 1978) and a moulder (Chong & Druckman, 2007) of public opinions. Media studies of newspaper articles have been conducted in tourism context (Castelltort & Mäder, 2010; Lee, Gross, & Jung, 2010; Stepchenkova & Eales, 2011; Xiao & Mair, 2006) on how travel destinations were reported. Little research attention was paid to how the local newspapers of travel destinations report about a specific type of tourists. With the conflict between Hong Kong residents and MCTs being increasingly sharp, the attitudes of Hong Kong newspapers towards MCTs can be a valuable study object.

Machine learning has been widely applied in tourism research on hotel reviews (Kasper & Vela, 2011), destination reviews (Ye, Zhang, & Law, 2009), and restaurant comments (Zhang, Ye, Zhang, & Li, 2011). This method helps researchers identify attitudes conveyed by vast content from readily available data and is hence adopted in the present study.

This study aims at examining the attitudes expressed by Hong Kong newspaper reports towards MCTs. The specific objectives are: (1) to identify the changes in attitudes of Hong Kong newspaper reports when covering MCTs; (2) to examine the reporting frequency of MCTs in Hong Kong newspapers; and (3) to identify the differences and changes in attitudes among Hong Kong newspapers that reported MCTs most frequently in the last decade.

Methodology

About 111,000 news articles including any of the seven Chinese keywords (內地旅客，內地遊客，大陸旅客，大陸遊客，內地團，內地客，水貨客) referring to MCTs were extracted from *WiseNews*, a database of published media content. The time range was set from 2005 to 2014 so that 10 years of data were retrieved after the release of Individual Visit Scheme in 2003. In order to get insights with this large news dataset, an automatic attitude classifier was developed. To build the attitude classifier, a Hong Kong local researcher coded each of the 1,000 randomly selected articles as negative (-1), neutral (0) or positive (1) towards MCTs. These manually coded articles were used to train a Support Vector Machine (SVM)-based attitude classifier, with which we generated attitude labels for all the other news articles. To test the SVM classifier's effectiveness in identifying attitudes, a 10-fold cross validation (Kohavi, 1995) was performed on the 1,000 coded articles. The average accuracy in identifying negative, neutral and positive articles is 70%. And if we set aside the neutral cases, the accuracy reached 85%, which is comparable to the results reported by Kasper and Vela (2011). The trained classifier was then applied to label each of the 111,000 news articles with a negative (-1), neutral (0) or positive (1) attitude towards MCTs. The distribution of attitude scores through years and in different newspapers was analysed.

Results

As shown in Figure 1, the average attitude towards MCTs of 111,000 Hong Kong newspaper reports had been positive during 2005 to 2013. Starting from 2009, the average attitude declined steadily and reached a negative level in 2014. The arrivals of MCTs was increasing in the past ten years and the increasing rate became higher since 2009.

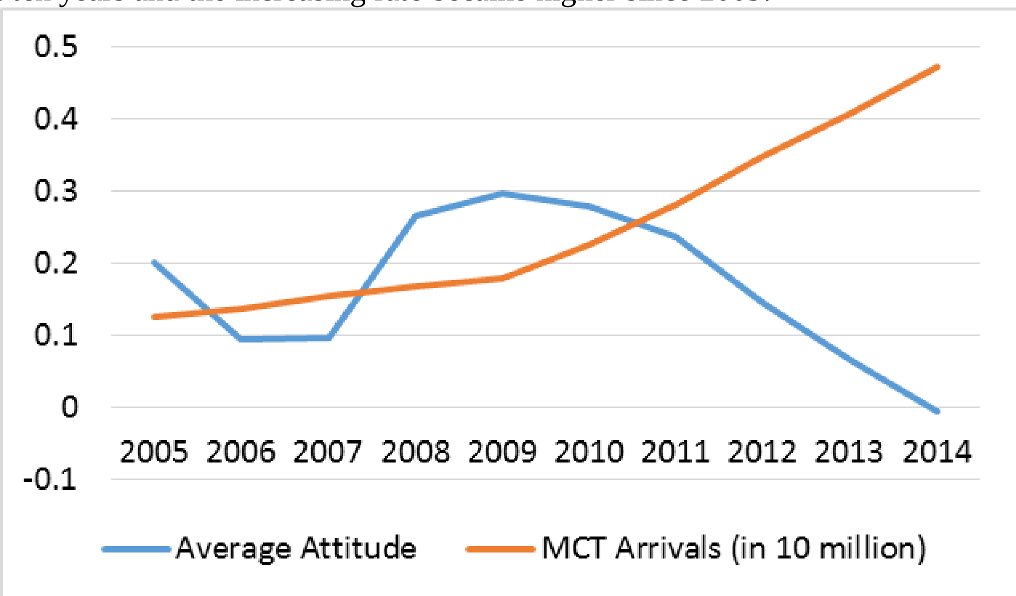

Figure 1. MCT arrivals and average media attitude towards MCTs

Five Hong Kong newspapers generated most of the 111,000 news articles containing MCT keywords: Wen Wei Po, Sing Tao Daily, Hong Kong Economic Times, Oriental Daily News, and The Sun. As shown in Figure 2, their reporting frequencies of MCTs all increased from 2005 to 2014. The increasing rate was higher during 2008 to 2011 compared to the period from 2011 to 2014.

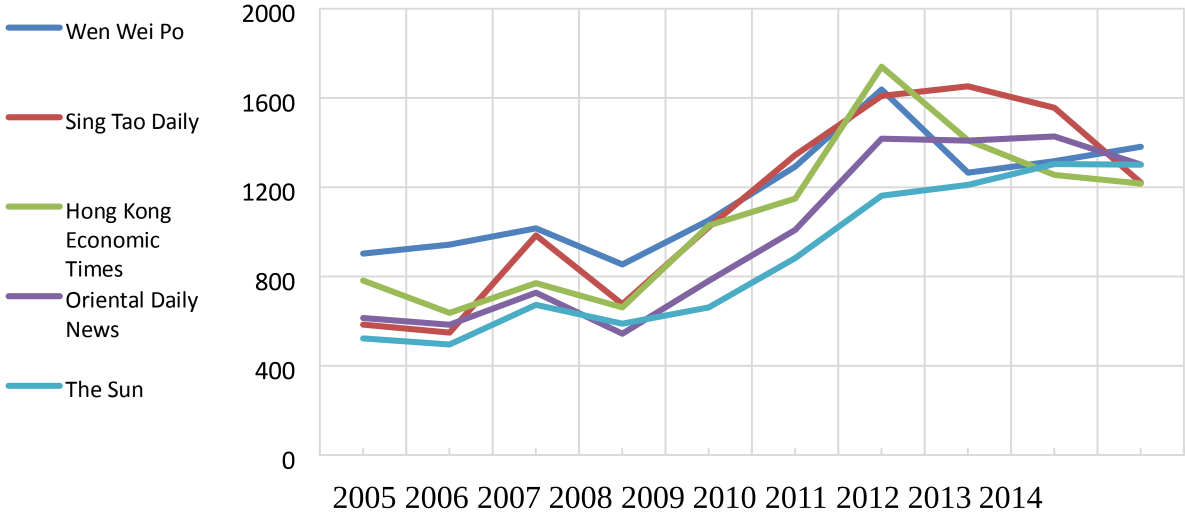

Figure 2. Number of news articles containing MCTs keywords by year

Each newspaper usually has its own orientation towards certain topics. In Table 1, we can clearly observe the general attitudes and the changes in attitudes expressed in the five newspapers that reported about MCTs most frequently from 2005 to 2014. While Wen Wei Po, Sing Tao Daily and Hong Kong Economic Times were generally positive, The Sun was rather negative and Oriental Daily News was extremely negative towards MCTs. The yearly average attitude scores of all these newspapers with different orientations on MCTs-related topics were decreasing from 2011 to 2014.

Table 1. Average attitude by year expressed in different Hong Kong newspapers

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Wen Wei Po	0.44	0.31	0.28	0.51	0.59	0.57	0.65	0.60	0.56	0.31
Sing Tao Daily	0.29	0.11	0.29	0.38	0.55	0.50	0.47	0.35	0.25	0.17
Hong Kong Economic Times	0.29	0.19	0.34	0.35	0.53	0.58	0.54	0.53	0.38	0.29
Oriental Daily News	-0.72	-0.77	-0.87	-0.63	-0.72	-0.74	-0.82	-0.84	-0.84	-0.88
The Sun	-0.03	-0.25	-0.47	-0.17	-0.17	-0.11	-0.16	-0.22	-0.32	-0.43

Discussion

The results have shown that the average media attitude towards MCTs expressed in Hong Kong newspapers was increasingly negative since 2009, when a boost in MCT arrivals was observed as the multiple-entry Individual Visit Endorsements was introduced, and dropped below the neutral point in 2014. These two phenomena could be associated. As the arrivals of MCTs increased rapidly, the media may begin to report the negative social and environmental impacts the huge number of tourists brought to the city. As the number of tourists increased, the number of unfortunate incidents in a city would also increase, which would lead to more negative reporting by the media. This finding provides an implication to further studies on the relationship between tourist arrival growth and media attitude towards certain groups of tourists.

Most of Hong Kong newspapers became more negative towards MCTs from 2011 to 2014 despite their different original orientations of MCTs. This finding further verified the downward trend in general media attitude. The attitude trend in print media should be an alert of the attitude of Hong Kong society towards MCTs.

This study is limited in many perspectives. The data were collected from a single database which might not comprehensively represent the print media in Hong Kong. Due to the constraints of time and resources, the primary coding was conducted by a single coder and hence the reliability of the scores can be vulnerable. This study can be regarded as an initial attempt in applying machine learning in news attitude analysis dealing with massive amount of data in order to understand the attitude towards tourists in the host community.

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Apf1678 Stability in Tourism: The Case of Hong Kong

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Abstract

Tourism movements are highly volatile due to a variety of factors affecting tourism demand. However, little is known about whether the underlying profiles, behaviors and attitudes of tourists are equally volatile or relatively stable in the volatile nature of the tourism industry. In order to see if there exists stability in tourism, the profiles of inbound tourists who had visited Hong Kong from 15 source markets (nine short-haul and six long-haul) were investigated, and push-pull theory were applied to draw the hypotheses. Secondary data provided by the Hong Kong Tourism Board was used, and the normal years (i.e., non-crisis years) were compared with the three crises years including 2001 of the September 11th terrorist attacks, 2003 of the SARS epidemic, and 2008 of the financial crisis. The results of Mann-Whitney U test analyses revealed that the profiles of the visitors, what they were doing, and how they feel about Hong Kong were relatively stable in most of the source markets. There existed certain stability in the profiles, behaviors, and attitudes of tourist cohorts visiting Hong Kong. Practical implications of findings as well as directions for future research are provided.

Keywords: Crisis, Hong Kong, Push-Pull Theory, Stability, Tourism, Tourist Profile

Introduction

Over the past few decades, world tourism industry went through a number of crises such as the Asian financial crisis in 1997, the 21 September 1999 earthquake, the 9-11 attacks in the United States in 2001, the outbreak of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in 2003 and the 2008 financial crisis. Research on tourism has shown that the industry suffered major losses due to a variety of such disasters including natural (e.g., epidemics and earthquakes) and man-made (e.g., terrorism and war), financial and economic crises. As a result, international tourism has become exceedingly volatile. However, little is known still about whether or not the underlying profiles, behaviors and attitudes of tourists themselves have turned equally volatile. In other words, while the number of tourists visiting might change owing to some crisis, is the underlying profile of the visitors, for example who visits, what they do, and how they feel relatively stable or more unstable? This study seeks to fill this gap in knowledge. In order to see if there exists stability in tourism, the profiles of inbound tourists who had visited Hong Kong from 15 source markets (nine short-haul and six long-haul markets) were investigated, and push-pull theory were applied to draw the hypotheses for this study. Literature on the volatility of tourism movements, the impact of crises, the underlying growth trends, and the stability in tourism are discussed in the following sections. Finally, the results from this empirical study are presented.

Literature Review

Volatility of Tourism Movements

Tourism movements are highly volatile owing to a variety of factors affecting tourism demand. The volatility can be explained through the interaction between tourism demand and various macroeconomic variables. A number of studies have revealed several effects from such variables. A meta-analysis of 70 empirical studies by Lim (1999) revealed that international tourism demand was positively related to income and negatively related to tourism prices. Vanegas and Croes (2000) examined the international tourism demand from the United States to Aruba using data in the period 1975–1996 and found that income was the main determinant of tourism demand. Lim and Mcaleer (2001) examined four leading macroeconomic variables—income of the origin country, tourism prices, transportation costs, and exchange rates—and used a co-integration analysis and an error correction model to investigate movements in long-run tourism demand from Hong Kong and Singapore to Australia. Dritsakis (2004) also investigated changes in the long-run demand for tourism to Greece from Germany and Great Britain by using incomes in the origin countries (Germany and Great Britain), tourism prices in Greece, transportation costs, and exchange rates between the three countries to explain tourist arrivals. Moreover, Ouerfelli (2008) examined the associated supply factors along with income and price factors to estimate the elasticity of long-run European tourism demand in Tunisia and found that the behavior of European tourists varied from one country to another.

In studies investigating tourism demand, the most frequently used explanatory variables are income, prices, exchange rates, and transportation costs. Among these income seems to be the most statistically significant (Dritsakis, 2004; Wang, 2009). In addition, the influences of special events such as political events (e.g., terrorist attacks and war), economic events (e.g., economic recessions and financial crises), large events (e.g., Olympics and exhibitions), and natural disasters (e.g., earthquakes and tsunamis) on tourism demand have also been subjected to a fair amount of scrutiny. There seems to be little doubt that international tourism demand can be significantly affected by external and internal shocks, resulting in drastic and unpredictable changes in tourism flows. The next section will discuss the impacts of different types of crises on tourism demand.

The Impact of Crises

Researchers examining tourism demand have investigated the impacts of various types of crises such as natural disasters, epidemics (e.g., SARS, swine flu, and Middle East respiratory syndrome), man-made disasters (e.g., terrorism and war), and financial and economic crises. Pizam and Fleischer (2002) revealed that terrorist attacks resulted in a drastic decline in international tourist arrivals in Israel during the period of May 1991 to May 2001. Tourism demand was more affected by the frequency of terrorist activities than the severity of such events. Basing on three consumer surveys conducted between December 2000 and May 2002, Mckercher and Hui (2004) investigated the immediate and medium term impacts of the 9–11 terrorist attacks on outbound tourism from Hong Kong. The study revealed that there was little or no effect on the overall travel participation rates six months after the terrorist event, although a dramatic weakening of intentions to travel was reported in the immediate aftermath of the incident. However, their findings indicated that consumers adopted shorter trips and expressed greater concerns about the safety of traveling after the event. Bassil (2014) examined the effects of domestic and transnational terrorism on tourism demand in the Middle East, focusing on Lebanon, Turkey, and Israel over the period 1995–2007. Their results showed that domestic and transnational terrorism significantly affected tourism demand and that the effect of terrorism on tourism depended on the intensity of the terrorist attack in question.

Tourism can also be affected significantly by epidemics. According to Pine and McKercher (2004), the SARS epidemic had a profound negative impact on the tourism industry of Hong Kong. Visitor arrivals and air passenger numbers plunged to 67.9 percent and 89.9 percent, respectively, in May 2003 as compared to the same month in the previous year. In addition, hotel occupancy rates dropped from around 90 percent to less than 10 percent in several cases. Kuo et al. (2008) assessed the impacts of SARS and avian flu on international tourism demand in Asian countries and pointed out that the numbers of affected cases had a significant impact on SARS-affected countries but not on avian flu-affected countries. In addition, a comparison of the impacts of these two crises indicated that Asian tourism demand had been significantly damaged by SARS, but not by avian flu.

Worldwide tourism industry had suffered by several financial and economic crises as well. Henderson (1999) investigated the impacts of the financial crisis on tourism in Indonesia and Thailand and suggested that both countries had experienced drops in visitor arrivals. However, they revealed that Thailand appeared to withstand periods of turmoil more successfully than Indonesia because of its strong image, good infrastructure, and aggressive marketing. Prideaux and Witt (2000) discussed the impact of the Asian financial crisis on the tourism industry in Australia and revealed that the crisis resulted in a significant decline in Asian inbound tourism. In addition, Page, Song, and Wu (2012) revealed that the global economic crisis that had begun in 2008 together with the swine flu pandemic had a significantly negative impact on the demand for inbound tourism in the United Kingdom from 14 major visitor source markets. According to Boukas and Ziakas (2013), the main impacts of the global economic crisis on tourism were found to be a lack of competitiveness, decreased visitation and revenues, inadequate quality and escalated pricing in the case of Cyprus.

It has been observed that various crises create drastic impacts on tourism demand. However, it is difficult to say whether the crises had negative impacts only. For instance, a study of the impact of the Asian tsunami on Chinese outbound tourism revealed that it had resulted in a redistribution of outbound tourists, e.g., a huge withdrawal from Southeast and South Asian countries and a rapid increase in other outbound destinations. In addition, tourist arrivals in some domestic destinations had also increased (Hanqin, 2005). It is important to note that the recovery times of crises varied. This may have shifted tourist movements as well. Huang and Min (2002) examined the impact of the 21 September 1999 earthquake in Taiwan, and indicated that the destination had not fully recovered from a sharp decrease in inbound arrivals even after 11 months from the occurrence of earthquake. Mendoza, Brida, and Garrido (2012) investigated the impacts of three earthquakes on the demand for inbound tourism, which occurred in Chile on 21 April 2007, 14 November 2007, and 27 February 2010. The results indicated that tourism demand was dependent upon the magnitude of the earthquake, the perception of the degree of safety generated by news coverage, and the type of tourism characterizing the region where the earthquake had occurred. In terms of damage recovery and restoring visitor arrivals, tourism to some regions recovered fully from the corresponding devastation after 4 months while other regions did not. Moreover, Min, Lim, and Kung (2011) found that Japanese inbound tourism to Taiwan was affected severely by the SARS epidemic, particularly during the first 5 months after the SARS outbreak, and the negative impact on tourism demand lasted for about a year.

Underlying Growth Trends

Historically, pleasure travel has been considered to be a discretionary item, since such travel decisions can only be indulged in after the basic necessities such as food, clothing, and shelter have been acquired (Gee, Makens, & Choy, 1989; Mckercher & Hui, 2004). The idea that pleasure travel is a discretionary activity has long been delivered as a core tourism doctrine (Bull, 1991 as cited in Mckercher & Hui, 2004, p. 103). This may still be true in some cases such as in the case of people who live in the developing countries and are earning low incomes in developed countries. However, nowadays, tourism has become an integral part of most people's lives and, therefore, pleasure travel is generally regarded as an essential rather than an alternative activity. According to Gee et al. (1989: 48), "in the developed countries of Europe, North America and some countries in Asia and the Pacific, the purchase of travel for vacation and leisure is not considered exceptional for many families." Mckercher and Hui (2004) further suggested that, for Hong Kong residents, travel represents a core activity, not a discretionary purchase.

Thus, it would be more appropriate to argue that tourists exercise discretion over travel planning, for example in the choices of destination, transportation, and accommodation, instead of travel purchase itself. For instance, rather than not taking trips abroad, domestic destinations or less expensive accommodation and transportation can be chosen as an alternative of more costly options. Similarly, safer regions can be substituted for riskier overseas countries during times of terrorism or epidemics. As mentioned earlier, the occurrence of the tsunami caused huge withdrawal of Chinese tourists from South Asia and Southeast Asia. However, this unexpected tragedy resulted in a rapid increase in several other outbound and domestic destinations (Hanqin, 2005). The travel plan also can be modified in terms of the duration of the trip and frequency of travel. Mckercher and Hui (2004) found that there was no notable change in the participation rate and frequency of travel among Hong Kong outbound tourists in the periods preceding and following 9-11, but rather, they chose to take shorter trips. Nonetheless, in extreme cases, people may postpone their travel plan (Sönmez, Apostolopoulos, & Tarlow, 1999). The tourists' discretion plays an important role in the shift or volatility in tourism movements, and this phenomenon ultimately leads the tourism industry to grow continuously.

Stability in Tourism

Travel motivation is one of the most important factors in understanding why people travel. Previous research has revealed that motivation to travel is influenced by push and pull factors. Push factors explain the needs and desires for people to travel, which in turn leads to deciding whether to go or not. Pull factors determine where to go (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Hsu & Lam, 2003; Kim, Lee, & Klenosky, 2003). In other words, people are pushed by their internal desires or emotional factors, and then pulled by external factors or tangible resources of destinations, resulting in personalized destination choices (Dann, 1977). Once the decision on destination choice is made, then it can be interpreted as a result of some properly matched set of push and pull factors. If the push and pull factors with a certain destination are not matched in times of crises, people will consider to visit other destinations which will eventually cause the shift of tourism movements. In the opposite case, even though there exist some risks due to crisis, if push and pull factors are well matched, then people will choose to visit that particular destination. Moreover, since the destination is chosen according to the fit between push and pull factors, the profiles of who is visiting, what they do, and how they feel about their vacation destination(s) will be similar to the profile, behavior, and attitude of tourists who visit the destinations during non-crisis period. Overall, by applying the push-pull theory, it can be hypothesized that, although the tourist numbers turn highly volatile, the underlying profile, behavior and attitude of tourists who visit a certain destination would remain relatively stable. Note examples of in-text referencing:

Methodology

The purpose of this study is to examine the stability of the profile, behavior, and attitude of tourists against the volatility of tourism movement. This study employs a quantitative research method and uses secondary data. More specifically, the longitudinal data with a yearly basis for vacation overnight visitors from 1997 to 2014, provided by the Hong Kong Tourism Board, was used for analyses. The normal years (i.e., non-crisis years) were compared with the three crises years including 2001 of the September 11th terrorist attacks, 2003 of the SARS epidemic, and 2008 of the financial crisis. Nine short-haul markets and six long-haul markets were selected. The short-haul markets included China, Taiwan, Japan, South Korea, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. The long haul markets included USA, Canada, UK, France, Germany, and Australia. Due to the small sizes of the data sets (three crises years and 15 normal years), non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test analyses were conducted using SPSS version 21 to see whether there were differences in the profiles of who visited, what they were doing, and how they felt about Hong Kong in normal versus crisis years.

An application of the push-pull theory resulted in the hypothesis that the underlying profiles, behaviors, and attitudes of tourists who visit Hong Kong will remain relatively stable during the crises years, although there would be a decrease in the tourist numbers. Specifically, the following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant difference in the profiles of tourists who visit Hong Kong between the normal years and the three crises years.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant difference in the behaviors of tourists who visit Hong Kong between the normal years and the three crises years.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant difference in the attitudes of tourists who visit Hong Kong between the normal years and the three crises years.

Results

The Volume of Visitors

As shown in Figure 1, the volume of vacationing overnight visitors in Hong Kong increased continuously, especially owing to the opening up of China. However, there were significant decreases in a few years due to the occurrence of crises. The impact of SARS seems to be the most significant in terms of the decrease in the number of inbound tourists, while the impact of financial crisis appeared to be slower and lasted longer than the other two crises. The growth trends of inbound tourism from the major source markets are shown in Figures 2 and 3.

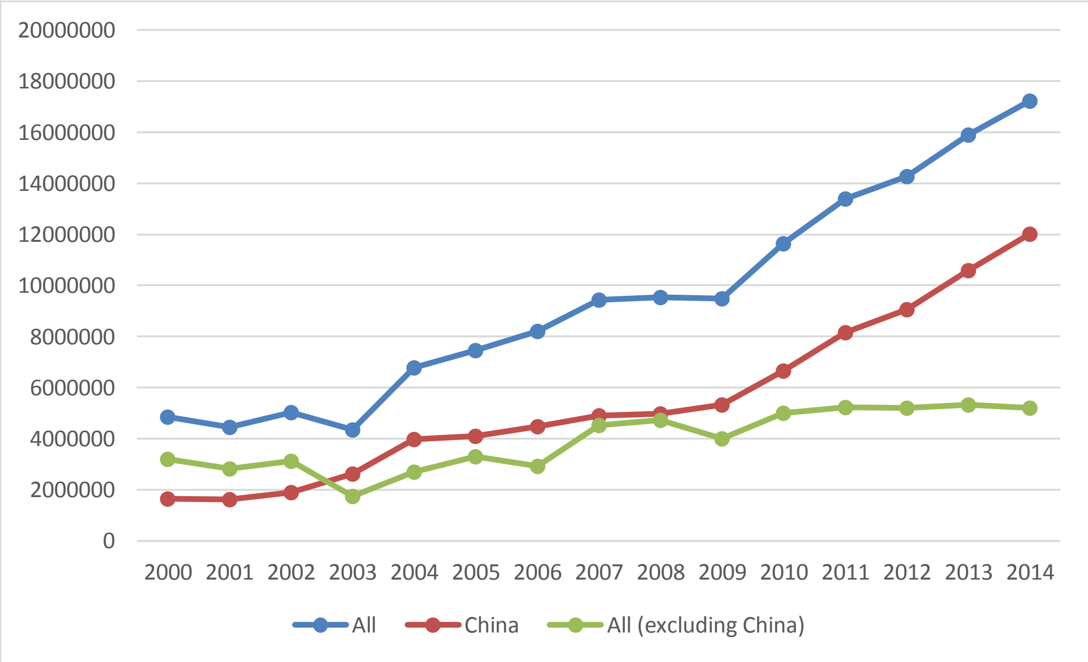

Figure 1 Growth of Tourist Arrivals from Overall and China Market.

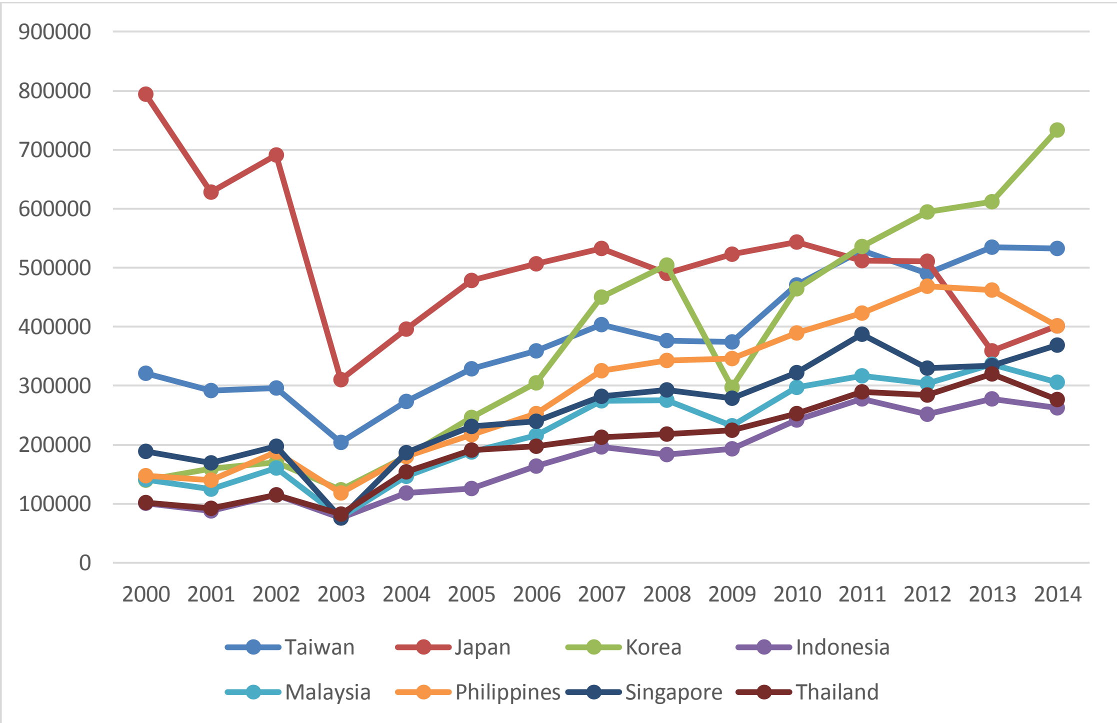

Figure 2 Growth of Tourist Arrivals from Short-haul Markets.

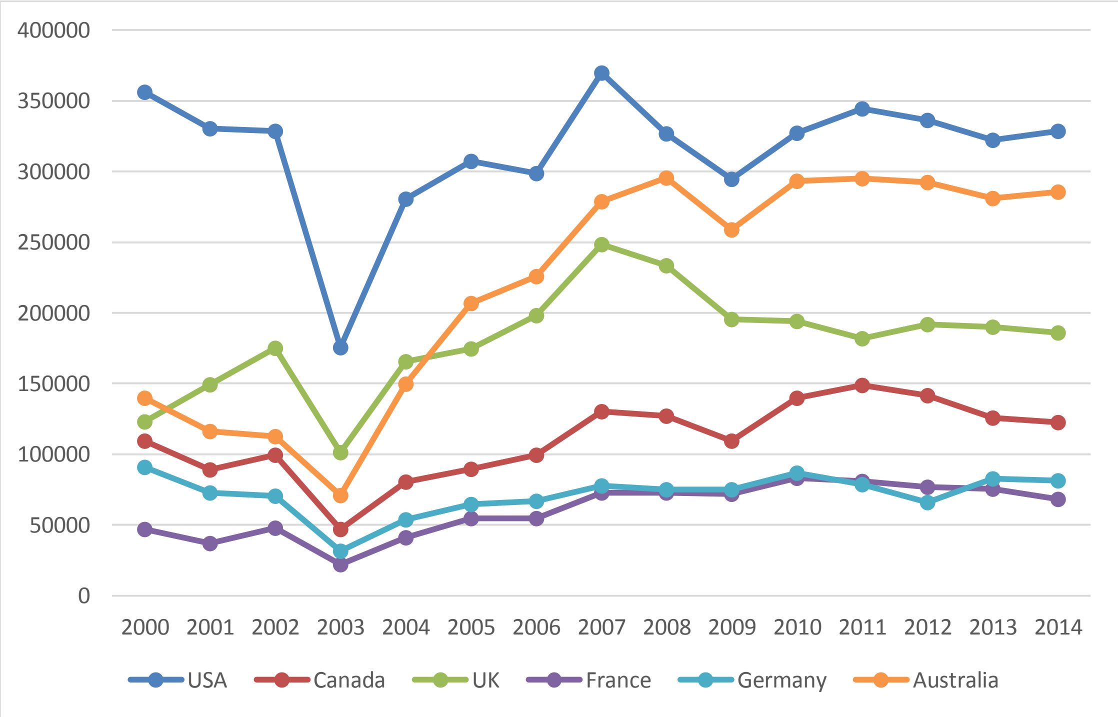

Figure 3 Growth of Tourist Arrivals from Long-haul Markets.

Tourist Profiles

The tourist profile of each market was investigated on the basis of the average age of tourists, the proportions of traveling males, married visitors, guided tour participants, and tourists who had visited Hong Kong in the past. The profile of the travel party, whether the tourists traveled alone or with children/grandchildren, was also examined. However, surprisingly, as shown in the Table 1-1, no significant differences were found for all variables of tourist profile between the years of crises (i.e., 2001, 2003, and 2008) and the normal periods among all nine short-haul markets. In addition, similar results were found for long-haul markets (Table 1-2). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Table 1-1 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Tourist Profile (Short-haul Markets)

	China		Taiwan		Japan		Korea		Indonesia		Malaysia		Philippines		Singapore		Thailand	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p
% male	-.655	.513	-.178	.858	-1.131	.258	-.119	.905	-.060	.952	-.120	.905	-.360	.719	-.239	.811	-.536	.592
Average age	-.237	.812	-.238	.812	-1.661	.097	-.357	.721	-.713	.476	-.476	.634	-1.789	.074	-.475	.635	-.059	.953
% married	-.298	.766	-.772	.440	-1.486	.137	-1.432	.152	-.482	.630	-.120	.905	-.713	.476	-.962	.336	-.596	.551
% travelling alone	.000	1.000	-1.085	.278	-.478	.632	-.429	.668	-.953	.340	-.301	.763	-.774	.439	-.061	.952	-1.428	.153
% with children	.000	1.000	-.255	.798	-.686	.493	-.256	.798	-.850	.395	-.342	.732	-.256	.798	-.342	.733	-.256	.798
% on guided tour	-.873	.383	-.354	.724	-.881	.378	-.873	.383	-.884	.377	-.529	.597	-1.576	.115	-.360	.719	-.529	.597
% repeat visitor	-.534	.593	-.596	.551	-.179	.858	-1.069	.285	-.416	.677	-.596	.551	-.415	.678	-.178	.859	-.837	.403

Table 1-2 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Tourist Profile (Long-haul Markets)

	USA		Canada		UK		France		Germany		Australia	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p
% male	-.427	.670	-.359	.720	-.420	.674	-.120	.904	-.060	.952	-.060	.952
Average age	-.142	.887	-.297	.767	-.237	.812	-.178	.859	-1.010	.313	-.059	.953
% married	-.496	.620	-.717	.473	-.716	.474	-.538	.591	-.833	.405	-.241	.809
% travelling alone	-.284	.777	-.060	.952	-.661	.509	-.775	.438	-.238	.812	-.535	.592
% with children	-.525	.600	-.343	.732	-1.445	.148	-1.224	.221	-.173	.863	-.257	.797
% on guided tour	-1.446	.148	-1.576	.115	-1.496	.135	-.177	.860	-1.581	.114	-1.414	.157
% repeat visitor	-.353	.724	-.891	.373	-.417	.677	-.298	.766	-.416	.677	-.298	.765

Travel Activity

Tourist behavior was examined through variables such as the length of stay, the proportion of tourists who visited only Hong Kong, who participated in day tours, and who had gone shopping during their trip. In addition, the proportions visiting several famous attractions such as the Hong Kong Disneyland, Ocean Park, Victoria Peak, etc. were compared to see if there were differences in travel activities. The results from the Mann-Whitney U test shown in Table 2-1 indicated that there were no significant differences in the tourist behaviors for all short-haul markets. Similarly, no significant differences were found between the normal years and crises years for long-haul markets (Table 2-2).

Table 2-1 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Travel Activity (Short-haul Markets)

	China		Taiwan		Japan		Korea		Indonesia		Malaysia		Philippines		Singapore		Thailand	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p
Length of Stay - average nights	-.536	.592	-.242	.809	-.181	.857	-1.667	.096	-.903	.366	-.540	.589	-.555	.579	-.309	.758	-.184	.854
Itinerary - % HK only	-.712	.477	-.891	.373	0.000	1.000	-.593	.553	-.713	.476	-.178	.859	-1.128	.259	-.775	.438	-.771	.441
% participating in day tours	-.846	.397	-.358	.720	-.237	.813	-.779	.436	-.654	.513	-.890	.373	-1.069	.285	-.238	.812	-.358	.721
% who went shopping	-.765	.445	-.203	.839	-.204	.839	-.203	.839	-.408	.683	-.475	.634	-1.425	.154	-.821	.412	-.758	.448
% visiting HK Disneyland	-1.226	.220	-.524	.600	-1.226	.220	-.177	.860	-1.061	.289	-.870	.384	-1.222	.222	-1.401	.161	-.350	.726
% visiting Ocean Park	-.712	.477	-.417	.677	-.245	.806	-1.245	.213	-1.434	.152	-.298	.766	0.000	1.000	-.119	.905	-.594	.553
% visiting open air markets	-.060	.953	-.475	.635	-.772	.440	-.534	.593	-.296	.767	-.297	.767	-.477	.633	-.534	.594	-.238	.812
% visiting Repulse Bay	-.949	.343	-.357	.721	-.476	.634	-1.365	.172	-.594	.553	-.415	.678	-.476	.634	-.534	.594	-1.191	.234
% visiting Victoria Peak	-.949	.343	-.957	.339	-.416	.678	-1.187	.235	-.951	.342	-.059	.953	-.479	.632	-.178	.858	-.358	.721
% visiting Lamma Island	-.427	.670	-1.139	.255	-.229	.819	-.694	.488	-1.130	.258	-.931	.352	-.389	.697	-.193	.847	-1.790	.073
% visiting Big Buddha	-.846	.397	-1.437	.151	-1.095	.273	-.298	.765	-1.071	.284	-.949	.343	-.774	.439	-.832	.405	-1.127	.260
% visiting Symphony of Lights	-1.008	.313	0.000	1.000	-.439	.661	-.889	.374	-.878	.380	-.221	.825	-.663	.508	-.659	.510	-1.098	.272
% visiting Star Ferry	-1.165	.244	-1.163	.245	-1.599	.110	-1.599	.110	-1.017	.309	-1.023	.306	-1.017	.309	-1.017	.309	-1.634	.102
% visiting Avenue of Stars	-.159	.874	-1.436	.151	-.478	.633	-.951	.342	-.317	.751	-.641	.521	-.477	.634	-.641	.521	-.317	.751

Table 2-2 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Travel Activity (Long-haul Markets)

	USA		Canada		UK		France		Germany		Australia	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p
Length of Stay - average nights	-.793	.428	-1.135	.256	-.180	.857	-.298	.766	-.180	.857	-.784	.433
Itinerary - % HK only	-.120	.905	-1.140	.254	-.060	.952	-.664	.506	-1.131	.258	-.537	.591
% participating in day tours	-.949	.343	-.417	.677	0.000	1.000	-.178	.859	-.535	.593	-.716	.474
% who went shopping	-.744	.457	-.541	.589	-1.080	.280	-.202	.840	-.540	.589	-.406	.685
% visiting HK Disneyland	-.535	.592	-.394	.694	-.360	.719	-1.253	.210	-1.095	.273	-.177	.859
% visiting Ocean Park	-1.048	.295	-.419	.675	-.845	.398	-.962	.336	-1.457	.145	-.060	.952
% visiting open air markets	-.416	.677	-.237	.812	-.119	.905	-.593	.553	-.379	.704	-.653	.514
% visiting Repulse Bay	-.238	.812	-.594	.552	-.772	.440	-.238	.812	-.178	.859	-1.010	.312
% visiting Victoria Peak	-.239	.811	-.776	.437	-.776	.437	-.594	.553	-.063	.950	-1.432	.152
% visiting Lamma Island	-.124	.901	-1.650	.099	-.748	.454	-.299	.765	-.913	.361	-.665	.506
% visiting Big Buddha	-.415	.678	-.416	.678	-.238	.812	-.237	.812	-.416	.677	-.060	.953
% visiting Symphony of Lights	-1.325	.185	-.883	.377	-1.098	.272	0.000	1.000	-1.528	.127	-1.091	.275
% visiting Star Ferry	-1.014	.311	-.725	.468	-.725	.468	-1.602	.109	-.874	.382	-.581	.561
% visiting Avenue of Stars	-.665	.506	-.321	.748	-.160	.873	-.949	.343	0.000	1.000	0.000	1.000

Tourist Expenditure

Tables 3-1 and 3-2 present the results from the Mann-Whitney U test for tourist expenditure. The average expenditure per night, the average per capita expenditure for the entire trip, and the proportion of expenditure on shopping, accommodation, dining, entertainment, and other activities were examined to see if any difference exists in tourist behavior in relation to their spending pattern. Among the nine short-haul markets, only tourists from Korea showed significant differences in two variables including the proportion of expenditure on hotels ($z = -2.066$, $p < .05$) and dining outside of hotels ($z = -2.066$, $p < .05$). On the other hand, as for the long-haul markets, no significant differences were found for all variables of tourist expenditure. Considering both travel activities and expenditures, it could be concluded that Hypothesis 2 was supported, even though a few exceptions were found in the case of Korea market.

Table 3-1 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Tourist Expenditure (Short-haul Markets)

	China		Taiwan		Japan		Korea		Indonesia		Malaysia		Philippines		Singapore		Thailand	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p
Ave expenditure per night	-.059	.953	-1.244	.214	-.652	.515	-.296	.767	-.059	.953	-1.007	.314	-1.125	.260	-.415	.678	-1.007	.314
Average per capita expenditure for whole trip	-.533	.594	-.415	.678	-.889	.374	-.889	.374	-.415	.678	-.770	.441	-1.481	.139	-.296	.767	-.770	.441
% of expenditure on shopping	-.318	.750	-.477	.633	-.636	.525	-1.905	.057	-.794	.427	-.557	.578	-.318	.750	-1.430	.153	-1.033	.302
% of expenditure on hotels	-1.271	.204	-.716	.474	-.476	.634	-2.066	.039*	-.953	.341	-.716	.474	-.954	.340	-1.037	.300	-1.429	.153
% of expenditure on dining outside of hotels	-.239	.811	-.318	.750	-.397	.691	-2.066	.039*	-.795	.427	0.000	1.000	-1.034	.301	-.318	.751	-1.749	.080
% of expenditure on entertainment	-.636	.525	-.239	.811	-.478	.633	-.160	.873	-.636	.525	-.318	.751	-.238	.812	-.797	.425	-1.034	.301
% of expenditure on tours	-.398	.691	-.162	.872	-.080	.936	-.080	.937	-.717	.473	0.000	1.000	-.880	.379	-.160	.873	0.000	1.000
% of expenditure on other	-1.275	.202	-.478	.633	0.000	1.000	-.159	.874	-1.035	.301	-.159	.873	-.159	.873	-.319	.750	-1.194	.232

Note. *p < .05

Table 3-2 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Tourist Expenditure (Long-haul Markets)

	USA		Canada		UK		France		Germany		Australia	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p
Ave expenditure per night	-.178	.859	-.178	.859	-1.362	.173	-.652	.515	-1.125	.260	-.889	.374
Average per capita expenditure for whole trip	-.415	.678	-.652	.515	-1.244	.214	-.770	.441	-1.362	.173	-1.007	.314
% of expenditure on shopping	-.636	.525	-1.111	.266	-.476	.634	-.794	.427	-.794	.427	-1.747	.081
% of expenditure on hotels	-.635	.525	-.953	.341	-.794	.427	-.954	.340	-.635	.525	-1.748	.080
% of expenditure on dining outside of hotels	-.953	.340	-.875	.381	-.159	.874	-.636	.525	-.159	.873	-.477	.633
% of expenditure on entertainment	-.636	.525	-.478	.633	-.398	.691	-.159	.874	-.477	.633	-.476	.634
% of expenditure on tours	-1.040	.298	-.080	.936	-.080	.937	-.476	.634	-.477	.634	-.160	.873
% of expenditure on other	0.000	1.000	-.160	.873	-.875	.381	-.477	.634	-.318	.750	-.080	.937

Tourist Attitude

Tourist attitudes related to satisfaction on various travel experiences such as shopping, hotel staying, dining, and sight seeing, were examined through the average score rating. The intention to recommend to others and to return in the future were also investigated. As shown in the Table 4-1 and 4-2, no significant differences were found with respect to all variables of tourist attitude between the crises years and the normal years among all nine short-haul markets as well as all six long-haul markets. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Table 4-1 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Tourist Attitude (Short-haul Markets)

	China		Taiwan		Japan		Korea		Indonesia		Malaysia		Philippines		Singapore		Thailand	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p
Ave score for Shopping Value for Money	0.000	1.000	-.373	.709	-.224	.823	-.298	.765	-.126	.900	-1.512	.131	-.252	.801	-.895	.371	-.447	.655
Ave score for Attitude of shop assistants	-.605	.545	-.337	.736	-.202	.840	-.067	.946	-.876	.381	-.135	.893	-1.414	.157	-.605	.545	-.811	.417
Ave score Overall rating for Shopping	-1.291	.197	-1.504	.133	-1.289	.197	-.430	.667	-.859	.390	-.646	.519	-1.289	.197	-.861	.389	-.867	.386
Ave score Overall rating for Hotels	-.415	.678	-.533	.594	-1.008	.314	-.474	.635	-.059	.953	-.178	.859	-.534	.594	-.237	.813	-.415	.678
Ave score Overall rating of Dining	-1.184	.236	-1.186	.236	0.000	1.000	-1.781	.075	-.988	.323	-.395	.693	-1.382	.167	-.396	.692	-.594	.553
Ave score Overall rating of Sightseeing	-1.186	.236	-.198	.843	-.395	.693	-1.482	.138	-.297	.767	-.197	.844	0.000	1.000	-.395	.693	-.198	.843
Overall rating	-.864	.387	-.667	.505	-.670	.503	-.172	.863	-.864	.387	-.482	.630	-.670	.503	-.672	.502	-.519	.604
% who will recommend HK	-.829	.407	-.414	.679	-.619	.536	-1.040	.299	-.635	.526	0.000	1.000	-.893	.372	-.689	.491	-.486	.627
% intending to return	-1.525	.127	-.544	.587	-.120	.904	-.238	.812	-.247	.805	0.000	1.000	-.248	.804	-.545	.586	-.367	.714

Table 4-2 Results of Mann-Whitney U Test for Tourist Attitude (Long-haul Markets)

	USA		Canada		UK		France		Germany		Australia	
	Z	p	Z	p	Z	p	Z	P	Z	p	Z	p
Ave score for Shopping Value for Money	-1.193	.233	-.895	.371	-1.386	.166	-.597	.551	-1.764	.078	-1.193	.233
Ave score for Attitude of shop assistants	-.407	.684	-.067	.946	-.606	.545	-1.145	.252	-.269	.788	-.202	.840
Ave score Overall rating for Shopping	-.217	.828	-1.074	.283	-.753	.451	-.645	.519	-1.289	.197	-1.289	.197
Ave score Overall rating for Hotels	-1.009	.313	-.830	.406	-1.067	.286	-.533	.594	-.238	.812	-.059	.953
Ave score Overall rating of Dining	0.000	1.000	-.595	.552	0.000	1.000	-.395	.693	-.988	.323	-.594	.553
Ave score Overall rating of Sightseeing	-.792	.429	-.198	.843	-.198	.843	-.198	.843	-.296	.767	0.000	1.000
Overall rating	-.201	.841	-.332	.740	-.520	.603	-1.021	.307	-1.496	.135	-.324	.746
% who will recommend HK	-.074	.941	-.145	.885	-.745	.457	-.482	.630	-.209	.835	-.870	.384
% intending to return	-.060	.952	-.892	.372	-1.136	.256	-.178	.859	-.416	.677	-.785	.433

Discussion

The three crises, including 9-11 terrorist attacks in 2001, the SARS epidemic in 2003, and the global financial crisis in 2008 affected inbound tourism demand in Hong Kong from all 15 major source markets. The push-and pull theory explains that people are pushed by internal desires or emotional factors, and then pulled by external factors or tangible resources of destinations, which may result in the choice of a particular destination (Dann, 1977). Therefore, among the inbound tourists who had visited Hong Kong in both normal years and crises years, it could be assumed that their push and pull motivations were well matched resulting in the visitation. As a result, by applying the push-pull theory, it could be hypothesized that stability exists in the underlying profiles, behaviors, and attitudes of tourists who visit Hong Kong, although the tourist numbers are highly volatile.

The results from the Mann-Whitney U test revealed that the profiles of the visitors, what they were doing, and how they feel about Hong Kong were relatively stable in most of the source markets. There existed certain stability in the profiles, behaviors, and attitudes of tourist cohorts visiting Hong Kong. Therefore, it is important for the Hong Kong Tourism Board and other tourism organizations and service providers to fully understand the major source markets as well as new markets in order to adopt proper strategies in different crisis situations. For instance, it would be more effective to provide a price discount during financial or economic crises, while tourism companies and DMOs may use advertisements focusing on safety aspects in times when a natural disaster or an epidemic occurs, to attract potential travelers who might consider alternate destinations. Furthermore, if the crisis significantly affects a certain region rather than entire source markets, Hong Kong tourism organizations may concentrate on promoting and attracting comparatively unaffected other regions. Nonetheless, significant differences were found with respect to a few variables in the case of Korea market. The differences found related mainly to the proportions of hotel and dining expenses among Korean tourists and seemed to have been mainly due to the impact of the global financial crisis in 2008. Interestingly, there was a huge increase in the demand for inbound tourism in 2008, the year of financial crisis, and the drastic decline in 2009, while most other short-haul markets experienced an opposite phenomenon. Further investigation is needed to understand why this distinctive pattern had occurred, compared to other source markets.

The findings from this study have furthered the understanding of the underlying stability in world tourism industry, the nature of which is highly volatile. In addition, the results have also helped in determining how big a role motivation plays in deciding travel destinations. However, this study has its limitations. First of all, the use of secondary data has led to limited control over the data and analysis process. In addition, the current study has used annual data, however, it would have been more appropriate to use quarterly or monthly data to examine the immediate and direct impacts on tourism. Moreover, simple Mann-Whitney U test analyses were conducted without considering the intervening effects or internal issues that each source market might have. Lastly, this study has not considered the impacts of the life cycles of crises or the life cycle of each of the source markets. Therefore, it would be good to consider such impacts for more accurate results. Future research comparing the profiles, behaviors, and attitudes in pre-crisis, the time of crisis, and post-crisis could possibly provide a more robust understanding of stability in tourism. In addition, future researchers may use much longer periods of monthly data to see if similar results can be derived. Furthermore, future research should be conducted in context of other destinations for global applicability, and different crises could be also considered. In conclusion, this study represents only a beginning stage of research on stability in tourism. Future research directed at improving the aforementioned limitations would certainly help tourism organizations in managing and handling unexpected situations of crises in the tourism industry better.

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Apf1679 Hong Kong Repeat Tourists to Taiwan: Their Motivations

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Abstract

The majority of Hong Kong tourists to Taiwan are repeat visitors, whose travel behaviors are different from first-timers. While current tour products are often standardized, price competition is a common strategy for travel agents in Hong Kong. This study investigates Hong Kong tourist's motivation on revisiting Taiwan in order to understand potential features for product differentiation.

Data were retrieved from online forums in Hong Kong and coded with QSR Nvivo 10 to explore these expressed revisiting intentions. Through web content analysis, this exploratory research confirmed that generic travel needs are desired including novelty, social interaction, relaxation, exploration, nostalgia, knowledge, escape, and relationship enhancement. In addition, there are also hybrid motivations including value-for-money, culinary, convenience, and shopping. Practical implications for product development are further discussed.

Keywords: Hong Kong, Taiwan, Repeat Tourists, Travel Motivation, Destination

Introduction

Taiwan has been one of the most popular destinations for residents in Hong Kong (Euromonitor International, 2015a; H. A. Lee, Guillet, Law, & Leung, 2012). In 2015, there were 1,513,597 visitor arrivals from Hong Kong and Macao (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2016) on the base of seven million Hong Kong residents (Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, 2012) and 646,800 Macao populations (Government of Macao Special Administrative Region, 2016). Such high market penetration implies that more than 60% Taiwan visitors from Hong Kong are repeat tourists (Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2012).

First-time and repeat visitors have shown diverse behaviors visiting the same destination. They have different travel motivations and needs to fulfill and look for various entertainment activities (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Oppermann, 1997). Tourist motivations are vital for destination marketing and travel product development (Crompton, 1979). Moreover, they evolve with tourist experiences (Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Pearce & Lee, 2005).

Taiwan, as a short-haul destination for Hong Kong residents, has enjoyed a robust influx of tourists for weekend getaways. Tourism stakeholders including airlines, travel agents, and destination marketing organizations (DMOs) have continually reinforced the tourism image with night markets, culture, street food, leisure activities, and Taiwanese hospitality as the main features of the island(Taiwan Tourism Bureau, 2015b). Specifically, night markets are highly associated with the brand image of Taiwan for Hong Kong residents (A.-T. Hsieh & Chang, 2006).

Hong Kong tourists traditionally prefer group all-inclusive package tours (GIT) (Wong & Kwong, 2004). However, H. A. Lee et al. (2012) argue that Hong Kong tourists' favored travel mode has shifted from GIT to independent trips, predominantly when visiting the top ten destinations, including Taiwan. The emergence of online travel agents (OTAs) has also impacted the consumption behaviors and intensified the market competition (Euromonitor International, 2015b).

Notably, the majority of Hong Kong tourists tend to visit Taiwan as free independent travelers (FIT), particularly repeat tourists. These experienced tourists are often reluctant to join local commercial tours (McKercher & Wong, 2004). However, S. Lee, Jeon, and Kim (2011) suggest that tour providers could adopt different elements of the destination to make the tourists get involved with the "culture, society, history and tradition (p.1122)" of the destination. These features would make visitors more motivated and engaged with the local community and distinguish the destination from competitors. They further propose that motivations would impact the perceived quality of tour services (S. Lee et al., 2011).

Therefore, it is critical for tourism stakeholders to investigate repeat visitors' travel motivations, which influence their degree of satisfaction and destination selection. By uncovering these motivations, tourism stakeholders in Taiwan and Hong Kong will have a better understanding of their customers and integrate the desired tour components. They can establish potential product features based on these intentions. Moreover, there are life cycles of destinations (Ivars i Baidal, Rodríguez Sánchez, & Vera Rebollo, 2013; Ma & Hassink, 2013; Sanz-Ibáñez & Anton Clavé, 2014). Tour companies should continually supplement product novelty, which stimulates mid-term to long-term revisit intention (Jang & Feng, 2007).

In all, as repeat tourists have a different set of expectations and behaviors from the first-timers, it is necessary to identify their motivations to offer the desired product features. Failure in understanding the motivations of target markets may result in a bad design of travel products and hence,lead to the waste of resources, including time and money.

There are two objectives of this research. First, the study aims to investigate Hong Kong tourists' motivations on revisiting Taiwan. Second, it attempts to recognize potential product development based on the findings.

Literature Review

This section aims to review existing literature associating with the motivation segmentation of Hong Kong outbound tourists revisiting Taiwan, including 1) tourist motivation; 2) market segmentation; 3) revisit intention; 4) Hong Kong outbound tourists; and 5) Taiwan as a destination in Hong Kong.

Tourist Motivation

The movement of motivations corresponds to the classic hierarchy of needs by Maslow (1943), including physiological, safety, love, esteem, and self-actualization needs. These underlying motivations of satisfaction are based on "preconditions", i.e. freedom to pursue and express one's ideas while the wish for knowledge as a "conative" approach to establishing the satisfaction of needs for safety and self-actualization. This desire to know is highly relevant to novelty, a chief motivation for the travel behavior. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983)further indicates that tourist motivations change with their experiences.

Visitorsgo on a tour for various reasons.Crompton (1979)proposes that destinations should develop marketing strategies by understanding travelers' cultural and socio-psychological motives while the latter could play as both "push" and "pull" factors for a destination to attract its visitors so as to affect the type and frequency of their travel behaviors. Motivation is considered as one of the most critical factors that influence tourists' behavior and their choices of destination(C. H. C. Hsu, Cai, & Li, 2009).

According to Crompton (1979), there are seven socio-psychological travel motivations. They are "escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, facilitation of social interaction (p.408)", and two cultural factors: "novelty and education (p.408)". These motivations are the fundamental reasons why people travel. The concept of "push" and "pull" forces are introduced to indicate that there are inner needs and outer lures that draw a customer to a specified destination(Lam & Hsu, 2006).

C. H. C. Hsu et al. (2009)indicate that motivation has a mediating effect on tourists' attitude and expectation towards the destination. They develop an "expectation, motivation, and attitude (EMA)" model and identify motivation as a significant factor in affecting tourists behavior and destination selection in the early stage of travel planning. They found that the pursuit of relaxation, novelty, and shopping was the primary composition of motivation and the desire for knowledge was not as significant for Mainland Chinese visiting Hong Kong. They suggested that there was a sequence of importance on the correlation between expectation and motivation, including novelty, relaxation, and shopping and concluded that motivations provided the foundation to the recognition of the long-term changing consumer behaviors.

Market Segmentation

After Kotler and Levy (1969)introduce the idea of market segmentation suggest that marketers could identify and divide the target market into different sects. They can then position their products to meet the needs of the focused customers for market success. The market can be divided based on features of geographic, demographic, socioeconomic, psychographic, consumption pattern, and consumer predispositions(Kotler, Saliba, & Wrenn, 1991).

S. Hsieh, O'Leary, and Morrison (1992) propose to divide market by activities and indicate that there are five sets of Hong Kong outbound travelers: "visiting friends and family," "outdoor sports," "sightseeing," "full-house activity", and "entertainment."Calantone and Mazanec (1991)suggest that there are "a priori" and "a posteriori" types of segmentation. The former indicate that there are distinct criteria to segment the market while the latter need to understand market psychographics more comprehensively.

Nevertheless, Kara and Kaynak (1997)show there is a tendency of mass customization after the developments of "normative segmentation, niche marketing, micromarketing, database marketing, and relationship marketing." They argued that this "even-finer segmentation" would be supported by the advancement of technology and its success would rely on the readiness of the overall marketing philosophy. Li, Law, and Wang (2010)adopt the "self-organizing map network" to categorize international travelers with their motivations and activities. They conclude that marketers should undermine the linkage between motivation, activities and tourist profile with their "demographic, trip, and expenditure" information and provide more creative products and solutions for their travel needs.

Nevertheless, while tour companies often adopt the concept of market segmentation for travel product developments, McKercher (2008) suggests that there is a transformation of these segments based on the distance decay theory (Tobler, 2004). Cannon and Yaprak

(2011)also propose a dynamic framework to predict how the markets evolve under the influences of globalization and its progression.

Revisit Intention

The tourist attachment to the particular location often implies more spending and motivations for repeat visit are driven by knowledge and quality of the destination(Alegre & Juaneda, 2006). Jang and Feng (2007)suggest that intentions vary in a different phase of time and indicate that "satisfaction" is more correlated to immediate revisit intention while "novelty-seeking" associated with a longer period. They further argue that there be diverse types of repeat tourists, i.e. continuous/ deferred; infrequent/ frequent/very frequent. Their finding implies that varieties of repeat visitors is a result from travel motivation and require a complex model to explain the consumer decision process. For example, deferred repeaters have a pro tendency on novelty while it may be unnecessary for continuous repeaters. Service providers should design their products according to these tourist traits.

Chi and Qu (2008)identify that there are linkages among destination image, satisfaction, and destination loyalty as the reasons why people revisit a destination. The brand image has a significant influence on the particular features for tourists to judge their overall experience. Moreover, the image and these traits highly impact the satisfaction level of their travel experiences. The degree of satisfactionbecomes the foundation of destination loyalty.Campo-Martínez, Garau-Vadell, and Martínez-Ruiz (2010)indicate that DMOs should develop their marketing strategy according to the latest events in the target markets in order to differentiate from their competitors. They conclude that overall satisfaction is the most important factor for destination loyalty, rather than the perceived image. Moreover, Assaker, Vinzi, and O'Connor (2011) suggest that a positive image of destinations will increase the opportunity for visitors to return while the novelty-seeking factor may decrease the repeat tourists' intention.

In addition, Qu, Kim, and Im (2011) suggest that destination brand image, comprised of cognitive, unique, and affective components, is influential to tourist's revisit intention. They identified the "cognitive and unique"imageshadhigh positions in the establishment of destination brand image and argued that DMOs should carefully choose the features they want to advertise while a fullrange of promoted characteristics of a destination may subsequently damage the formation of the image.

Therefore, tourists' revisit intention was dynamic and affected by the satisfaction level of previous travel experiences and the attributes of the destination image, which influence the promotional messages received by the target market.

Hong Kong Outbound Tourists

Wong and Kwong (2004)propose that Hong Kong tourists prefer the all-inclusive package tours. The travel agents often design identical itineraries for the same destinations. They argued that reasons might be the popularity of replication on the planned routes and the established relationship between Hong Kong outbound agents and Taiwan inbound tour operators. Moreover, they identified that the most important criteria of Hong Kong residents selecting group tour were safety, 'guarantees' of departure, and the quality of services as well as overall "customer loyalty scheme". They indicated that "time" was an important factor for time-cautious Hong Kong residents.

Researchers have attempted to identify the proper market segmentation for Hong Kong tourists. Law, Rong, Vu, Li, and Lee (2011)determine the trend of Hong Kong outbound tourists with a large-scale survey in 2005 and 2009. They concluded that outbound trips became more popular over the period with seven motivations: “family, meet people, relax, getaway, discovery, knowledge, and business”.

Legohérel, Daucé, Hsu, and Ranchhold (2009)propose that managers should pay attention to the cross-cultural setting as culture impacts the perception of time. In addition, Woodside, Hsu, and Marshall (2011) indicate that tourist behavior varies with their cultures and shopping for gifts is closely related to Asian culture.

McKercher (2008)suggest that Hong Kong outbound tourists could be segmented into six groups based on their age, household income, education, travel experiences, and a tendency on purchasing package tours (see Table 1). According to McKercher (2008), each category had its pattern and preference regarding travel. Segment 3,4, and 5 usually prefer FIT travel mode instead of group tours. Furthermore, Taipei, as an urban destination with competitive advantages, is the most attractive for young residents in Hong Kong. It is also the second most popular urban destination for the market though not be the top choice for the most affluent segment 5.

Group	Characteristics	Preferred Travel Mode	Main Travel Motivations
Segment 1	the youngest, low-income, high school educated, and with limited travel experiences	Marginally FIT	escape, novelty, social; exploration and knowledge
Segment 2	middle-class with low household income; high-school degree	GIT	escape from daily routine
Segment 3	well educated and with higher household income	FIT	escape, novelty, and knowledge
Segment 4	young professionals who “have high disposable income and extensive travel experiences”.	FIT	knowledge; novelty; escape from routine life
Segment 5	affluent, well-educated middle-class in their middle age	FIT	escape from routine life; novelty
Segment 6	seniors, who were less experienced in travel	GIT	escape; novelty; social

Table1: Hong Kong Market Segmentation (Modified from McKercher (2008))

Taiwan as a Destination in Hong Kong

McKercher and Wong (2004)indicate that short-haul destinations are often visited as the primary destination, generating more repeat tourists than their long-haul competitors. This proposition corresponds to the fact that repeat visitors have altered expectations and purchasing behaviors from first-time travelers. While Taiwan is a short-haul destination for Hong Kong residents, the majority of Hong Kong repeat tourists visit the big island as their primary destination. A.-T. Hsieh and Chang (2006)found “eating-out, everyday shopping and novelty-seeking” as the top three motives for Hong Kong tourists to visit Taiwan night markets. T.-K. Hsu, Tsai, and Wu (2009)indicate that there are many tourism appeals in Taiwan for its natural and cultural resources, fine cuisine, and the hospitality of its people.

According to Annual Survey Report on Visitors Expenditure and Trends in Taiwan by Taiwan Tourism Bureau (2015a), Hong Kong tourists prefer to travel as FIT when going to Taiwan. More half of the respondents indicated that their choices on visiting Taiwan were mainly word of mouth from friends and relatives, internet, TV or radio programs, and magazine and newspaper. Hong Kong tourists stayed three nights in Taiwan on average for scenery, food, and Taiwanese hospitality and culture. Nearly half of them came to Taiwan without any arrangement from Travel agents. Their principal activities are shopping, and visiting night markets.

Previous research supports current phenomena of Hong Kong tourists' behaviors when they visit Taiwan. In all, the majority of Hong Kong repeat tourists visit Taiwan because of the familiarity, the convenience of transportation, the partial common language, and previous satisfactory travel experiences. The characteristics of safety and the friendliness of Taiwanese people also attracted Hong Kong residents to visit Taiwan. However, to identify whether there are potential products for Hong Kong repeat tourists, it is vital to investigate what drives them to revisit Taiwan, what they are looking for, and the reasons why they build the destination loyalty.

Methodology

Secondary data, i.e. blog articles, inquiries, and collaborative comments, were obtained from the top interactive website forums in Hong Kong, including Hong Kong Discuss Forum, Hong Kong Golden Forum, and Baby Kingdom in December 2012 and in April 2016. Hong Kong repeat tourists' motivations to Taiwan were retrieved through these self-reported data. A total of 50 posts were recruited under the criteria "Hong Kong repeat travelers to Taiwan". Only posts written by those who indicated their previous travel experiences to the destination were considered, obtained, and coded with QSR Nvivo 10. The researcher grouped these motivation in an inductive way. Keywords relating to repeat visit intentions were identified by their concerns and experiences in revisiting Taiwan. Web content analysis, using content analysis techniques on web content (Herring, 2009), was adopted with simple counting method approach to categorizing tourists' motivations (Veal, 2011).

The acknowledged terminology of revisit motivations and the linking points of interest were cross-checked with literature to generate a comprehensive set of incentives that drive Hong Kong repeat tourists to Taiwan. Although forum users were anonymous with a reserved profile, they were found enthusiastic to share personal experience for personal reputation and to help one another. The findings were further stretched with previous literature to verify specific terms such as novelty, knowledge, social interaction, escape, self-development, status indication, and relaxation. Government publications are additionally referred to enrich the adequacy of the analysis.

Hong Kong Golden Forum (HKGolden.com)

According to website traffic analytics siteAlexa (2016), HKGolden Forum is one of the top online discussion boards in Hong Kong with more than 50,000 active members. The majority of its users are male with a college degree. Some members are hardcore enthusiasts of this virtual community and named themselves as "Golden Zai (高登仔)", meaning residents of Golden. The travel forum covers a broad range of topics for users to exchange experiences and information.

Baby Kingdom (Baby-Kingdom.com)
Baby Kingdom, a Hong Kong-based online company, was launched in 2002 with a strong focus on lifestyle and family topics. More than half of its members are female (Alexa, 2016). There is a particular discussion board for outbound travel, and there are more than 14,000 articles under the subcategory "Taiwan". (Baby Kingdom, 2016).

Hong Kong Discuss Forum (Discuss.com.hk)
Hong Kong Discuss Forum, one of the most popular forums in the city, was founded in 2003 with a comprehensive range of topics on its discussion boards. There is an individualpanel entitled as Taiwan under the category of travel information with more than 30,000 articles(Hong Kong Discuss, 2016).

Key Words Relating to Tourists' Motivation
The following topics and the relevant keywords were identified as the motives for Hong Kong repeat tourists to Taiwan.

- Novelty-Seeking: "This … is so famous, I must visit/ try"; "Finally, I have tasted/ visited…"; "What surprised me the most was…"; "It is so novel/ interesting/ awesome/ fantastic…".

- Social Interaction: "to interact with…."; "Taiwanese/ tour guide/…is so sweet/ kind/ passionate/ friendly"; "I hope to meet local…"; "I made a friend with…".

- Relaxation: "You should take it slow and experience…"; "I have released so much pressure in Taiwan"; "I feel so free"; "There is no need to plan an itinerary, just relax…".

- Exploration: "Comparing to Hong Kong, it is…"; "It is so different from…"; "to explore…, I decided to…".

- Nostalgia: "I felt that I was in the past"; "This historic…"; "How could I forget…?"; "It is so simple/ classic/ traditional."

- Knowledge: "This trip is intellectual"; "You can see the transition of …"; "This exhibition is about…"; "I hope to learn…".

- Escape: "I want to avoid work/ the crowd/ protesters…"; "I want to experience as a local, so I…".

- Relationship Enhancement: "I traveled with …".

- Value-For-Money: "I did not spend as much, Taiwan is value-for-money", " … is so economical/ inexpensive/ low-priced"; "Such a good deal!"; "The price is very reasonable".

- Food: "I am looking forward to the Taiwanese food/ beef noodles/…"; "…is so fresh/ delicious/ …"; " The overall taste is …"; "I wanted to eat…"; "After watching to TV program introducing Taiwanese food, my wife decided to go to Taiwan…".

According to the above descriptions, diverse motivations were identified based on their intentions and behaviors. The motivations were classified by the keywords that meet the research purpose. For example, the motivation of novelty-seeking was coded when there were plans to visit new places or try new food. In addition, the purpose of relaxation was marked when Hong Kong tourists visit Taiwan to pursue activities of interest.

Results

The user profiles of the selected articles are shown in Table 2.

	Value	Numbers	Percentage
Gender	Male	27	54%
	Female	12	24%
	n.a.	11	22%
Revisit Tendency	Continuous	27	54%
	Deferred	15	30%
	n.a.	8	16%
Frequency of Visitation	Very Frequent	2	4%
	Frequent	18	18%
	Infrequent	23	46%
	n.a.	7	14%
Group Segment	Segment 1	20	40%
	Segment 2	13	26%
	Segment 3	8	16%
	Segment 4	0	-
	Segment 5	0	-
	Segment 6	1	2%
	n.a.	8	16%

Table 2: User Profiles of Selected Articles

More than half of the authors are young males who has shown their interests to visit Taiwan continuously. In addition, Most of them are identified as working class in Hong Kong, who often have limited travel experiences. No users were determined from the segment 4 and 5 by the definition of previous research by McKercher (2008).

The identified motivations for Hong Kong repeat tourists are indicated in Table 3.

Name	References
Novelty-Seeking	163
Food	163
Value-for-Money	56
Facilitation of social interaction	40
Relaxation	35
Exploration and evaluation of self	30
Regression and Nostalgia	26
Convenience	26
Shopping	19
Education and Knowledge	12
Escape from a perceived mundane environment	11
Repeat	11
Internet	11
Comfort	9
Enhancement of kinship relationships	8
Service	8
Pop Culture	5
Efficiency	4
Planning	1
Prestige	0

Table 3: Motivations for Hong Kong Repeat Tourists to Taiwan

Novelty and Food

Novelty is widely sought by most Hong Kong repeat tourists to Taiwan. While first-time visitors often visit Urban areas such as Taipei, Taichung, and Kaohsiung, repeat tourists choose to visit suburbanregions such as Yilan, Qingjing Leisure Farm, Tainan, Hualien, and Kenting National Park. Moreover, a few young adults in Hong Kong consider round-the-island cycling as a self-actualization ceremony though safety remains their primary concern. Adventure is desired by limited numbers to explore different attractions. Taxi, driver-guides, and local tours are alternative services besides self-arranged tour experiences.

There is also a high frequency of food-related keywords, including restaurants, night markets, local snacks, and fine cuisine. There is a strong desire for distinguished Taiwanese flavors. Hong Kong tourists find it unique experiences to visit famous restaurants and to try fresh specialties at various night markets. The foodwas found as one of the most common items that motivate Hong Kong tourists to revisit Taiwan.

Social interaction

Tourists from Hong Kong appreciate Taiwanese hospitality, politeness, and the human touch. Some desire to establish a friendship with residents. [Case A07] expressed his appreciation by stating “the most beautiful things in Taiwan are not scenery attractions but its people”. [Case A36] said that “it is challenging for me to communicate with my poor Mandarin but Taiwanese are so kind and patient to listen to me”. “Taiwanese are so willing to help”. Some Hong Kong tourists even fancy a romance in Taiwan and look for love encounters with “hot” and “spicy” Taiwanese girls in the destination [Case A01, A41].

Relaxation

Hong Kong tourists visit Taiwan to release their physical and mental stress. Some mentioned that Taiwan is much more slow-paced than Hong Kong, and visitors can just relax [Case A22]. In addition, some regard relaxation as a simplistic lifestyle while others look for non-stop entertainments, i.e. karaoke, movie theaters, Wi-Fi, 24-hour bookstores, and clubbing. While the former would spend hours exploring scenery attractions, the latter group are impatient with the "boredom" of nature. This is echoed by Wong and Kwong (2004), indicating that Hong Kong residents are often time cautious and hope to complete things within a limited frame of time.

Exploration and Evaluation of Self

Through exploring the experiences in Taiwan, repeat visitors started to compare and evaluate their daily life in Hong Kong. Some hoped to preserve the traditional heritage and to enjoy the same service quality in Hong Kong at a parallel reasonable price. Conversely, some started to appreciate the night view of Victoria Harbor, architecture, and efficiency in the metropolitan.

Regression and Nostalgia

A few Hong Kong tourists fall into the nostalgic mood in the Taiwanese atmosphere and overall setting. They would like to visit old streets and even aboriginal tribes for authentic travel experiences. [Case A15] said "I love the old style in Tainan so much! I feel like I have returned to the late 1970s in the past century." Another said, "When I walk into the peaceful environment, I feel that time has stopped! [Case A37]"

Education and Knowledge

Festivals, museums, and theaters are also points of interest for some repeat tourists. Experienced travelers design their itinerary to discover new places for self-improvement and intellectual stimulation. They are active opinion leaders, and often share information with others.

Escape

According to the self-reported comments, some Hong Kong tourists desire to flee from the intense urban life and a crowded street full of mainland Chinese tourists. Taiwan is a perfect destination for a temporary leave as a short-haul destination. Tourists with such motivation tend to travel as solo tourists. They have no specific travel plans and only want to take a break. Sometimes they returned to the same places where they had satisfactory travel experiences.

Relationship Enhancement

There are also family trips. Parents desire to have quality time with their children. They hope to ensure that everything is arranged and under good supervision.

Value-for-Money and Shopping

Hong Kong tourists are often cost-savvy customers, who like to spend their money wisely. They find the price level in Taiwan is reasonable for the quality of products. Tourists usually go to the recommended street food stalls and restaurants with value-for-money features. All-you-can-eat buffet, localcuisine, and fresh ingredients are extensively desired. High-end restaurants in Taiwan are also considered to be good deals while the same quality of food will cost higher in Hong Kong. It has become popular for Hong Kong tourists to make bookings before their visits.

Hong Kong tourists tend to stay in general hotels with suitable locations for the convenience, i.e. Ximending is the most popular area of accommodation for Hong Kong tourists. The majority are reluctant to spend money on international chain hotels for leisure purpose in Taiwan while they prefer to spend money on tangible goods such as souvenirs and food. Souvenir and local snack shops were often on the shopping list.

Convenience

Hong Kong tourists mentioned that they would revisit Taiwan as long as there are promotions from airlines or travel agents. While there is no need to prepare for the journey, they can visit Taiwan for a long weekend. Also, convenience is desired for the whole trip. They would only give up or pay the service charge to avoid potential inconvenience.

Discussion

Hong Kong repeat tourists to Taiwan, despite diverse motivations, are concerned with novelty and looking for value-for-money experiences. While public transportation is comprehensive in urban areas, there are also remote attractions in Taiwan which are not as convenient for tourists to travel around. While solo tourists and young couples may enjoy the isolation and adventurous journey, they take railways, buses, taxies, and High-Speed Rail within Taiwan with the supplement of electric motorcycles, car rentals, and bicycle. In addition, they looked for social interaction with the local community.

While Hong Kong repeat tourists often make impromptu trips to visit Taiwan, more innovative local tours would solve the inconvenience issues of traditional GIT products. With technology advances, tour companies can directly reach overseas tourists. It is important to provide the modular tour products with self-improvement and knowledge elements for young professionals and well-educated middle class, who tend to travel independently. There seemed a lack of in-destination tour products for the needs of relationship enhancement and social interaction.

While traditional tour participants are often those who are looking for convenience, safety, and comfort, it is complex for the tour company to serve tourists with different motivations. Customized tours are usually expensive due to the smaller size of the group. Conversely, there is driver guide service provided by Taiwan Taxi Corp., which increases the convenience of transportation and impacts the market competition.

After investigating Hong Kong repeat tourists' motivation to visit Taiwan, there are emerging needs to visit destinations such as Hualien and Taitung in the Eastern part of Taiwan. For those with high relaxation motivation, one-day leisure tour with a relaxed itinerary and reasonable price may be of their interests. For knowledge seekers, they may prefer to have personal autonomy and look for unique experiences. Special interest tours such as photo-taking, hiking, and culinary may bring their curiosity.

For groups with social interaction purpose, local activity participation including Do-It-Yourself in the farms, tourism factory and some museums of particular interest, bookstores, nightclubs, may be of their interests. For parents who would like to spend time with their children for educational or growth purpose, the arrangement of parent-child activities in a safe environment would encourage their second revisit. In addition, a wider environmental scan on the competitiveness of Taiwan as a destination for a family is necessary. While Taiwan is deemed as a place full of Chinese culture, it is, therefore, important for Taiwan to position itself as a destination of the relaxing and slow-paced environment.

Some tourists from Hong Kong hope to complete their once in a lifetime round-the-island cycling. Members shared their know-how on the overall preparation, suggested routes, facility and so on. It seemed to become a process of self-actualization as a mitzvah for the young generation in Hong Kong.

There are always trade-offs between traditional group tour participants and independent tourists. Tour participants share the economic cost of cheaper transportation and tour services but sacrifice the autonomy. Tour companies may consider providing in-destination local tours for cost-savvy tourists with the above purposes. It will be a strategic move if the travel agent wishes to establish its brand for foreign customers, however due to the size of the market segment.

Limitation

This research aims at studying the motivation of Hong Kong repeat tourists to Taiwan and provide suggestions to product attributes of existing tour products for potential market needs. While secondary data were retrieved from Hong Kong online forums, the author acknowledged the limitation of the sample profile regarding age, tour experience, and income level. Users sharing their travel experiences in Taiwan at these interactive forums are often young with limited tour experiences. Most cases were solo travelers in early twenties and middle-aged couples without children. The potential market size is also unattainable in this study. Future researchers may conduct a large-scale survey to investigate the market size and significance of the identified motivations to ensure an economic return on investment.

Motivation is a complex system. The incentives to visit a particular destination change over time. These defined motivations intertwine with one another as tourists usually visit a destination with multiple motives. This study proposes that the development of products should correspond to the segmented market to meet the needs. A more sophisticated product design process is expected to satisfy these motivations.

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Apf1682 Pansiteria de Lipa: An Analysis on the Significance and Integrity of Lomi as a Culinary Tourism Identity of Lipa City, Batangas - A Statement of Significance Approach

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Abstract
Heritage is the identity of the community. One of the important heritages of the community is food (in literature studies, it is also called culinary or gastronomic heritage). This qualitative study aims to document and identify the significance and integrity of *Lomi*, a traditional Chinese-inspired soup noodle of *Lipa City, Batangas*; a provincial city in the Philippines, based from the UNESCO, ICOMOS and GCI's heritage charters and conventions. The researcher traced the significance and integrity based from physical (visiting noodle houses and observing the preparation of the food), oral (focus group discussion and interview from the locals) and archival (published journals and books) evidences. This kind of research will determine proper procedures on how to use heritage resources to balance conservation and development. The research documentation will be the basis for any development plans to be implemented related to the food especially for tourism purposes.

Keywords: Culinary Tourism, Heritage, Integrity, Lipa City, Lomi, Statement of Significance

Introduction
Food (culinary or gastronomy in other terms) is one of the basic needs of society. It sustains the capacity of a person to move, act, grow and think. Also, it is considered as the identity of the community if food is being studied in its socio-cultural importance. From the raw materials and ingredients used; to the process of cooking; the plating and presentation; and the way on how it is being given to the people, all of these can define and describe a community's history, tradition and culture.

In the Philippine context, "the land in which it was born shaped Philippine food, and so were its cooking processes, ingredients, meal patterns, flavor principles, ways of serving, and social functions" (Fernandez 2000). Food is affected by historical and cultural development of the society and then passed down through generations. In that sense, it contributes to the uniqueness and differences of food as it is compared from one place to another. Food is considered to be a heritage of the community. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) defines heritage as "legacies from the past, what we live with today, and what we individually or collectively pass on to future generations" (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007). Culinary traditions come from the influences and changes of history of a certain place; then continues to use it from an individual, to the family then to the community; and conserves, preserves and shares it to future generation. That is why in the perspective of the UNESCO, culinary tradition is considered to be part of the main domains of the intangible cultural heritage under social practices, rituals and festive events (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003).

As an identity of the people, food shows integrity and significance that contributes to its uniqueness and difference. This significance is based on historical, cultural, aesthetic, social and symbolical aspects. It is important to analyze these details as it contributes to the story and importance of the community and how it evolves and develops as the heritage of the people. The researcher will analyze the culinary tradition's significance and integrity using the different international frameworks.

People are now looking for new motivations to travel in their recreational and leisure time. Most of them are expecting for something different and at somehow related to cultural and heritage identity of the place. According to Reynolds and Richards, tourists are now looking for cultural oriented attractions and it is now a growing resource for tourism (Reynolds, 1993; Richards, 1996). From heritage and cultural tourism, food is considered as a motivator for tourist to visit the sites. It is also known as food tourism, gastronomic tourism or culinary tourism. In literature studies, this definition "applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry out activities related to gastronomy" (Herrera, 2012). Tourists seek these attractions to know not only the local food but also its origin and production processes, making it an expression of cultural and heritage tourism (Arilla, 2012). It contributes to the economic growth and development of an area. Local community will offer food that is very unique in the perspective of the tourists but for them, it is a normal part of their everyday diet. As culinary traditions are used for economic development of a place, at some point, the integrity and significance start to deteriorate. Details regarding sustainable development must be considered. This is where development for economic reasons and conservation for heritage and culture must be balanced. It also means that any development plans for certain heritage properties or tradition must be based from its significance and integrity.

From the province of *Batangas*, *Lipa* City is rich in history and heritage. Based from history, it is considered as the world's top producer of coffee during the Spanish era and given the title, "*La villa de Lipa*". Lipa is also known for its culinary treasures. Some of these are *kapeng barako* (native coffee), *bulanglang* (vegetable soup), *sinaing na tulingan* (simmered salted fish), Pan de Agua (a native bread) and the dish that is influenced by the Chinese, *Lomi*.

This research paper analyzes *Lomi* as a culinary resource of the city of *Lipa* in the province of *Batangas*, Philippines. *Lomi*, a Chinese-inspired noodle, is one of the trademarks of *Lipa* City that also contributes to the economic development by means of tourism. A lot of *pansiterias* or *lomians* were developed especially located near the major roads and highways of the city like *Lomi* King and *Pansiteria de Lipa*. It was a Chinese influenced food given to the *Lipeños* then developed through time. As it is used for tourism, some aspects of its integrity and significance start to deteriorate because of modernization, current trends, and immediate demands of the customers; and the perspective of the "fast food" ideology.

Statement of the Problem

The research paper seeks to analyze the heritage integrity and significance of Lomi as a culinary tourism identity of Lipa City, Batangas, Philippines using the Statement of Significance Approach. From the main idea, the following are the questions for consideration that the researcher wants to determine at the end of the research paper:

- What are the different significances of Lomi based from the historical, cultural, aesthetic, social, symbolical and educational aspects?;
- Are the Lipeños and the tourists aware on the integrity and significance of the traditional Lomi?;

- How the culinary tradition transmitted from one generation to another?; and
- What are the efforts of the different stakeholders (local government of Lipa, non-government heritage, culture and tourism organizations; owners of the lomians, tourists and the Lipeños) in conserving this culinary tradition and developing it in a sustainable manner?

Objectives of the Study

At the end of the research study, the researcher determines to achieve the following objectives:

- To understand the integrity and the different significances of *Lomi* as a socio-cultural identity to the city of *Lipa* based from historical, cultural, aesthetic, social, symbolical and educational aspects;
- To determine how Lipeños transmitted the culinary tradition from one generation to another;
- To verify if the owners of the *lomians* still practicing the traditional way of the reason why the community preparing it, the significance of it the community, raw ingredients and materials (tangible); the process of cooking, preparation, presentation and how it is transmitted from generation to generation; and on how it is given to the customers based from its culinary heritage integrity and significance; and
- To identify the efforts of the different stakeholders (local government of *Lipa*, non-government heritage, culture and tourism organizations; owners of the *lomians*, tourists and the *Lipeños*) in conserving this culinary tradition and developing it in a sustainable manner.

Theoretical Research Framework

The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) is an inter-governmental body under the umbrella group of the United Nations that concentrates on mobilizing for education, building intercultural understanding, pursuing scientific cooperation and protecting freedom of expression (UNESCO, n.d.). Under culture and heritage, the organization is expected to create plans and programs through conventions and charters to deliver conservation and sustainable development from the state parties.

One of the conventions administered by the UNESCO is the Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH). It was ratified during the 32nd session of the UNESCO in Paris from September 29 to October 17, 2003. The convention identifies the importance of ICH in the international setting especially related to conservation and development. It constitutes for acknowledging highly significant ICH by determining the *representative list of intangible cultural heritage of the humanity* and the *list of intangible cultural heritage in need of urgent safeguarding*. One of the main importance also of the convention is to provide the different domains of ICH, which is considered as the categories or a general identification of the ICH based from the standards of the UNESCO World Heritage Centre (WHC). Specifically, these are as follows (UNESCO, 2003):

- *Oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage;*
- *Performing arts;*
- *Social practices, rituals and festive events;*
- *Knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe; and*
- *Traditional craftsmanship.*

It also determines the importance of proper identification and inventory of the ICH based from the international and national perspectives. The convention clearly specifies rules and policies on documenting ICH especially coordination with the different stakeholders and the proposed outline of identifying and inventorying to determine specific details of the ICH. For the research study, the researcher used the details of the conventions, which is related on stakeholders' involvement and the proper documentation of the culinary tradition as an ICH of the city.

The International Council of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) is a non-government group that primarily concerned with the philosophy, terminology, methodology and techniques of cultural heritage conservation (Australia ICOMOS, 2000). The organization is also a primary adviser of the UNESCO WHC on analyzing and determining UNESCO World Heritage Sites (WHS) under the cultural heritage category. One of the highly renowned methodologies on cultural heritage conservation and development created by ICOMOS, specifically by the Australia chapter, is the Burra Charter for Places of Cultural Significance.

The Burra Charter provides guidance for the conservation and management of places of cultural significance (cultural heritage places) (Australia ICOMOS, 2000). It determines the importance of identifying the cultural significance of a site using different evidences (physical, oral and documentary or archival) then summarizing it by creating a statement of significance (SOS) and creating policies and plans for management and development using the SOS. The concept of cultural significance is based from different values such as historical, aesthetic, architectural, scientific, social, symbolical, technological, archaeological and landscape and setting. Details regarding the current management and development are also identified and analyzed based from the specifications and standards of the charter. This is being done to assess if the current practices are suitable to the current situation of the site or in general, the cultural heritage resource. It is expected that after understanding the significance and develop policies; an implementation and evaluation must be considered.

The Getty Conservation Institute (GCI) works internationally to advance conservation and to enhance and encourage the preservation and understanding of the visual arts in all of their dimensions – objects, collections, architecture and sites (The J. Paul Getty Trust, 2002). The organization provides techniques, processes and methodologies on how to conserve and develop cultural heritage properties by means of research reports, meetings, conferences and conventions. One of their research reports is focused on determining the different values and its relation to economics of the cultural heritage property. The title of the report is *Assessing the Values of Cultural Heritage;* edited by Marta de la Torre. This was published in 2002. The researcher focuses on the standards and frameworks from the two essays: *Assessing Values in Conservation Planning: Methodological Issues and Choices* by Randall Mason; and the *Economic Valuation of Cultural Heritage: Evidence and Prospects* by Susana Mourato and Massimiliano Mazzanti.

The essays introduced the Planning Process Methodology framework and the economic valuation of cultural heritage. The framework is divided into three parts: (1) identification and description, wherein it determines the cultural heritage being studied; (2) assessments and analysis, which discusses the details regarding the cultural heritage properties by means of its physical condition, cultural significance and the management context. The details are being integrated to determine the (3) response of the management body that identifies policies, plans and projects on conservation and sustainable development of the cultural heritage properties.

Under cultural significance / value assessment, it is divided into three part models: (1) identification, wherein the different values and significances must be identified using different typologies given by specific researchers and organizations (e.g.: The Australia ICOMOS Burra Charter); (2) elicitation and elaboration, these are where the management must determine the socio-cultural and economic aspects of the cultural heritage using different research tools. These can determine the connection of the cultural heritage to the different stakeholders especially to the local community; and the (3) statement of significance that will summarizes the researched values and importance of the cultural heritage then makes it as a basis to propose policies, plans and projects for cultural heritage management and development.

Conceptual Research Framework

Based from the theoretical frameworks used by the researcher, a conceptual framework was formulated to analyze the integrity and significance of a culinary tradition that can be used as a basis for sustainable development. The framework is generally based from the ratified convention from the UNESCO *(see 1.4.1 bullet one)*. From the convention, the researcher focused on the importance and involvement of the different stakeholders, as it is a driving tool for sustainable development. Sustainable development, for heritage properties, balances the importance of conservation (heritage identity of the local community) and development (resource for culinary tourism).

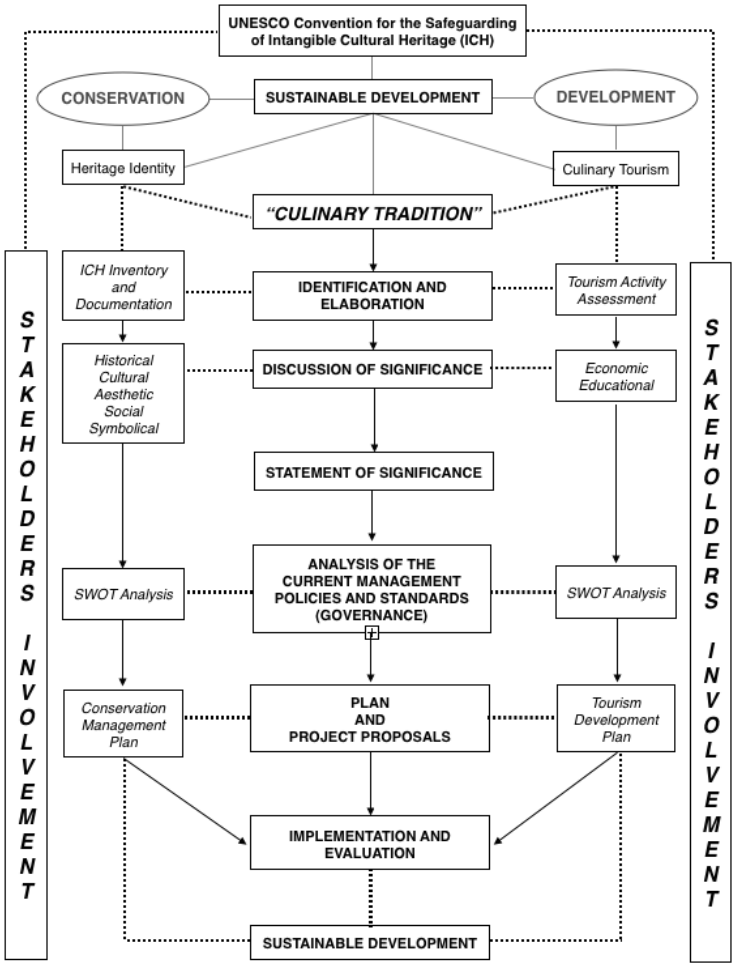

Figure 1. The Culinary Heritage Tourism Significance and Sustainable Development Conceptual Framework (Mercado, 2015)

The framework is divided into six different parts; each has a distinctive procedure for conserving and developing ICH (culinary tradition) for tourism. The first step is identification and elaboration, which determines the culinary tradition by means of ICH inventory and documentation (or cultural heritage mapping) and the tourism activity assessment. ICH inventory and documentation will determine the ICH and its details. The tourism activity assessment will identify the current tourism situation of the locality especially focused on the tourism arrivals, motivations, etc researched by the current management body. This assessment must be based from the target ICH. The second step is to discuss the significance based from different aspects, generally on the socio-cultural and economic. From the details regarding the significances, a summarized statement must be formulated. This statement will be the basis for any conservation and development plans and projects for the culinary tradition. Then an analysis of the current management policies and standards or the current governance from a certain group must be done through SWOT Analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats). The procedure will examine the internal and external environment that can affect the management and development of the ICH. The assessment is being done to understand the positive and the negative details of the management so that any changes and possible recommendations must be implemented. After determining the resources and the current practices from the management body, different plans and projects will be formulated, which identifies conservation (Conservation Management Plan – CMP) and development for tourism (Tourism Development Plan – TDP). These projects must be sustainable especially that it affects the socio-cultural, economic and even environmental aspects of the community.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the research study is to understand and apply on how to properly assess and analyze culinary tradition, by means of identifying the integrity and significance (historical, cultural, economic, social, aesthetic and symbolical) based from the different research frameworks given by international heritage organizations (statement of significance approach). From the research, it will be the basis of the developers (local government sector/non-government organizations/private investors) in developing and conserving the heritage properties in a sustainable manner. Balancing conservation and development will benefit the different stakeholders especially the local community. As developers use the culinary tradition for tourism, it may affect the significance and integrity especially on the reason why the community preparing it, the significance of it the community, raw ingredients and materials (tangible); the process of cooking, preparation, presentation and how it is transmitted from generation to generation. That is why developers of ICH especially culinary traditions must consider knowing and understanding the significance and integrity.

Scope and Limitations

From the analysis of the researcher for the research study, the following are considered to be the scope and limitation:

- The study is only focus in *Lipa* City, *Batangas* (geographical scope) in terms of identifying and assessing the culinary tradition even the dish is prominent in the different municipalities and cities of the province;
- Criteria for selecting the *pansiteria* as one of the subjects: (1) it offers *Lomi* as the main/as one of their products; (2) the *pansiteria* must be located in the Poblacion area or known for them as the Urban Barangays (Barangay 1-11); and (3) the *pansiteria* is still existing and at least twenty (20) years old from the time it was established
- Other related food (e.g.: Pan de Agua) to the main topic of the study is considered as secondary information. These are added information that can identify and prove the integrity and significance of the food;
- The research will identify the integrity and significance based from different evidences (physical, oral and documentary) that can be available through the perspective of the local government, the local community and from the culinary, heritage and tourism experts from the area;
- The researcher only focuses in the integrity and significance of Lomi to the city of Lipa. From its conceptual framework, the first three parts will be used (identification and elaboration; discussion of the significance and the statement of significance); and
- The economic valuation as a quantitative type of research will not be part of the paper. Economic valuation will only based from the perspective of the owners or any representative of the *pansiterias* using an in-depth interview.

Literature Review

Pamana: Heritage of the Community

People normally recognize culture and heritage the same with regards to its definition and significance to the community. But based from theoretical and conceptual researches and studies from the academic field, these two are different but related to each other. There are a lot of definitions of heritage based from different researchers (Edson, 2004; Roland, 2013; Devallon, 2013; Bessiere, 2013) and from international and Philippine-based organizations (ICOMOS, 1976; ICCROM, 1976; NEDA, n.d.). The same with the definition of heritage, researchers and academicians identified and presented different definitions and explanations (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1963; Barnouw, 1973; Rajchman, 1995; Nasaa-art, 2004). But the most valuable and universally approved definition of heritage is coming from the United Nations Educations, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). Based from the UNESCO Universal Declaration on Cultural Diversity, “culture is a way of living that include behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions and all other products of human work and thought shared that reflect the identity of a group” (Random House Webster’s Dictionary, 2001; American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 2000; UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2002, 12). Then according to the UNESCO World Heritage Centre, “heritage is a legacy from the past, what people live with today, and what an individually or collectively pass on to future generations” (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2007; LeBlanc, 1993). In the definition of heritage, legacy would pertain to what a particular person or community inherit from other person or from other community; or adapted from one race to another. The important is that it must be continuously transferred from one generation to another generation (Bessiere, 2013). And as it continuously practiced by a person or the community, it became their identity or represents and characterizes them (Bessiere, 2013).

A personal or communal heritage can be tangible or intangible in nature. Based from the UNESCO Convention for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage of 1972, tangible heritage encompasses cultural heritage such as works of man like craft, monuments, buildings and sites, and natural heritage, which are works of nature such as physical, biological, geological and physiographical formations, and natural sites (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 1972). Examples of this heritage here in the Philippines are ancestral houses (Bahay Nakpil-Bautista in Quiapo District, Manila), furniture (UST Seminary Collections); churches (San Agustin Church in Intramuros, Manila), statues (Rizal Statue at Luneta) and the like. This needs scientific conservation procedures to continuously pass it to future generations. While intangible cultural heritage (ICH) encompasses practices, representations, expressions, knowledge and skills of communities, groups, or in some cases individuals (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003) based from the UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage of 2003. Intangible heritages in the Philippines can be tradition, customs (farming in Ifugao), events, festivals (Sinulog Festival) and ceremonies (death ceremony of the Ilokanos); values (*pagmamano*), practices (culinary) and the like. People conserve intangible heritage by continuously practicing it by the community and tediously documenting it based from proper procedures, methods and process (International and National Charters and Legislation).

Cultural Expressions: Intangible Cultural Heritage (ICH) in an International and National Setting

Intangible cultural heritage encompasses practices, representations, expressions, knowledge and skills of communities, groups, or in some cases individuals (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2003). This translates to what and how the community expresses their tradition, customary and beliefs then become an ordinary or considered as a basic part of their lifestyle.

An individual or a community transmitted these heritages from one generation to another orally or by gesture. The transmission of intangible heritage is an indication of giving respect and honor to the cultural significances and human creativity of the community (UNESCO, 2003). At some point, when these are transmitted, an individual or the community changes some of the details of the intangible heritage. The heritage is modified based from how people understand its significance, the complexity of the heritage practice, availability of the needed materials and other related things; the human creativity and skills development; the documentation of the heritage and the influence of modern information and technology. For instance, the well-known appetizer of the Filipinos, *Sisig* from the province of Pampanga, Central Luzon.*Sisig* is a Filipino appetizer made-out of pig's skinhead, onions, vinegar, chili and some seasonings and spices. Etymologically, *Sisig* is a *kapampangan* word, which means "to put vinegar" or "to put a sour ingredient". Originally, based from the tradition of the *Kapampangans* (term of the people living in Pampanga), the pig's skinhead is boiled until tender then grilled it in a hot charcoal until it browns and become crispy. The grilled pig's skinhead is chopped into smaller pieces until it become like ground meat. Seasoned with salt and pepper and mixed with chopped onions, bird's eye chili and vinegar. But when this dish was transmitted (from an individual to another, from one family to another or from one city to another), there are modifications being practiced. If a tourist will try *Sisig* in Manila, the capital city of the Philippines, there are variations of this dish that the pig's skinhead is being deep-fried or putting additional ingredients like egg, pig's brain and even mayonnaise. In the example, there is a traditional practice on how *Sisig* is being cooked but when it was transmitted, there are changes being implemented in the dish that for most of the people, this will make the dish more delicious and appetizing. The significance and integrity of the culinary tradition are deteriorated, disrespected.

From the part of the UNESCO, a convention was ratified to safeguard the different intangible heritage of humanity, ensure respect the human creativity of the community, raise awareness in the part of the national government and non-government institutions regarding the significance of the ICH; and provide international assistance in the conservation and protection of the ICH (UNESCO, 2003). This convention is the 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage. The UNESCO adopted this convention in 2003 to ensure an international recognition from the different member states and guarantee to ratify their own national legislation regarding the contents of the convention. The 2003 Convention aims at safeguarding intangible cultural heritage that is in step with international agreements on human rights and that meets requirements of mutual respect among communities and of sustainable development (UNESCO 2003). And from the part of the member states, especially those who ratified the convention, they are ask to identify the different ICH in their own national territory, conduct proper documentation and inventory; and implement conservation efforts to sustain the community's identity and value. The convention also recognizes outstanding ICH that delivers a universal value (Representative List of Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity) and ICH that needs an urgent need for conservation (List of Intangible Cultural Heritage in Need of Urgent Safeguarding). The convention determines the proper documentation of the ICH and creates a concrete action plan on ICH conservation and sustainable development coming from the government and the community.

- Oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage – encompasses an enormous variety of spoken forms including proverbs, riddles, tales, nursery rhymes, legends, myths, epic songs and poems, charms, prayers, chants, songs, dramatic performances and more;

- Performing arts – range from vocal and instrumental music, dance and theatre to pantomime, sung verse and beyond;
- Social practices, rituals and festive events – are habitual activities that structure the lives of communities and groups and that are shared by and relevant to many of their members;
- Knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe – include knowledge, know- how, skills, practices and representations developed by communities by interacting with the natural environment; and
- Traditional craftsmanship – concerned with the skills and knowledge involved in craftsmanship rather than the craft products themselves.

As part of the Convention, state parties are required to safeguard their own ICH by identifying and documenting it. Identification is a process of describing one or more specific elements of intangible cultural heritage in their own context and distinguishing them from others (UNESCO, 2003). Then after determining the different ICH within the national territory, it will lead to inventorying or making a master list. This is being done to monitor the available ICH and to set priorities for ICH that needs an immediate conservation procedure. This will also determine research and study about the nation's ICH and its significance.

In the part of the Philippines, a law was ratified and amended under the Philippine Constitution that represents as the government's reply from the amended UNESCO 2003 Convention, the Republic Act No. 10066 or also known as the National Cultural Heritage Act of 2009. This law focuses on the conservation and promotion of nation's cultural heritage; to completely establish the National Commission for Culture and the Arts; and to protect the welfare of the cultural workers in the country (Congress of the Philippines, 2009). Under the law, the government protects the significance and value of ICH by creating the National Inventory of Intangible Cultural Heritage in collaboration with the UNESCO National Commission of the Philippines (UNACOM) specifically the Philippine Intangible Cultural Heritage Committee (Art. 5 Sec. 19). The government is responsible for documenting and inventorying the ICH of the Philippines and to secure that it is continuously practiced by the community and interpreted properly. This also assures proper information dissemination of ICH to the community by all means such as integration to the curricula from the basic education to the postgraduate studies; and tourism.

Pangkabuoan at Kahalagahan: Heritage Integrity and the Statement of Significance

Integrity, in heritage context, is a measure of the wholeness and intactness of a heritage resource and its attributes to secure, sustain and convey its significance (Andrus and Shrimpton 2002 in Stovel 2007, 23). It identifies every detail of a heritage resource that contributes to its significance and value. These details will tell the story of a certain heritage and how it is important in the community. In built heritage, the integrity includes the materials, forms, process of its construction and usage. For intangible heritage, the integrity will depend on the reason why it was performed or practiced; the tangible used, the process of doing, presentation, significance to the community and how it is being transmitted from one generation to another (Horng & Tsai, 2012). For instance, one of the culinary traditions from the Southern *Tagalog* region of the Philippines, *sinukmani*.*Sinukmani* (or rice cake) is being prepared for some special occasions like birthdays, *Undas* (all soul's day) or New Year ***(reason)***. It was believed that preparing sticky food, like *sinukmani*, would bind relationships especially in a family or prosperity in life will come ***(significance to the community)***. This food is a mixture of glutinous rice, coconut milk, brown sugar (or for others, they use muscovado sugar) and pandan leaves ***(tangible used)***. The rice will first cooked in a local casserole with water until it becomes soft and tender. Then in a wok, simmer coconut milk together with brown sugar and pandan leaves then mixed with cooked rice. Continuously mix it until it thickens ***(process)***. Then served it in a *bilao* with banana leaves ***(presentation)***. Locals traditionally cook it before the day of the event. Most of them, especially the elders, share this tradition to their siblings and even to their grandchildren during the day they cook the dish. They show how it is being prepared until it is being cooked and served ***(how it was being transmitted)***. If any of these details of a heritage will be changed, the value or the significance of the heritage will be deteriorated.

Heritage integrity is co-related with heritage value or significance. Significance pertains to the importance, relevance and meaning of a heritage resource to an individual or a group of people (LeBlanc, 1993). This will make a heritage resource distinct from other heritage resource. It will discuss why it is important in certain aspect and why the community must conserve for its future usage. There are numerous frameworks that determine the significance of a heritage resource based from international conventions and charters. For this research, two important frameworks will be used to identify the significance: the Australia ICOMOS Burra Charter of Places of Cultural Significance (Australia ICOMOS, 1999) and Assessing the Value of the Cultural Heritage (The J. Paul Getty Trust, 2002).

The Australia ICOMOS Burra Charter of Places of Cultural Significance is an Australia based charter ratified by the International Council of Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS) Australia that determines the significance of the heritage from the different evidences available specifically coming from the physical, oral and archival or documentary. In the end of the process, a statement of significance will be created that will be considered as the foundation of all developments and projects to be implemented.

Another framework is coming from the Getty Conservation Institute based from the group discussion of the different specialist in conservation in March 2000. An official research report was released entitled *"Assessing the Value of Cultural Heritage"* edited by Marta de la Torre. In the report, discussions related on heritage value and significance was included especially highlights the significance of heritage in the economic, socio-cultural and environmental aspects. The report also includes different frameworks on how to determine the significance of a heritage resource. One of the frameworks was created by Randall Mason named as the Planning Process Methodology. In the framework, researchers must first identify and describe the heritage resource being studied then the assessment and analysis will be done by studying the physical condition, cultural significance setting and the management context (Mason, 2002). The last part of the framework is the response or certain plans and projects to be implemented.

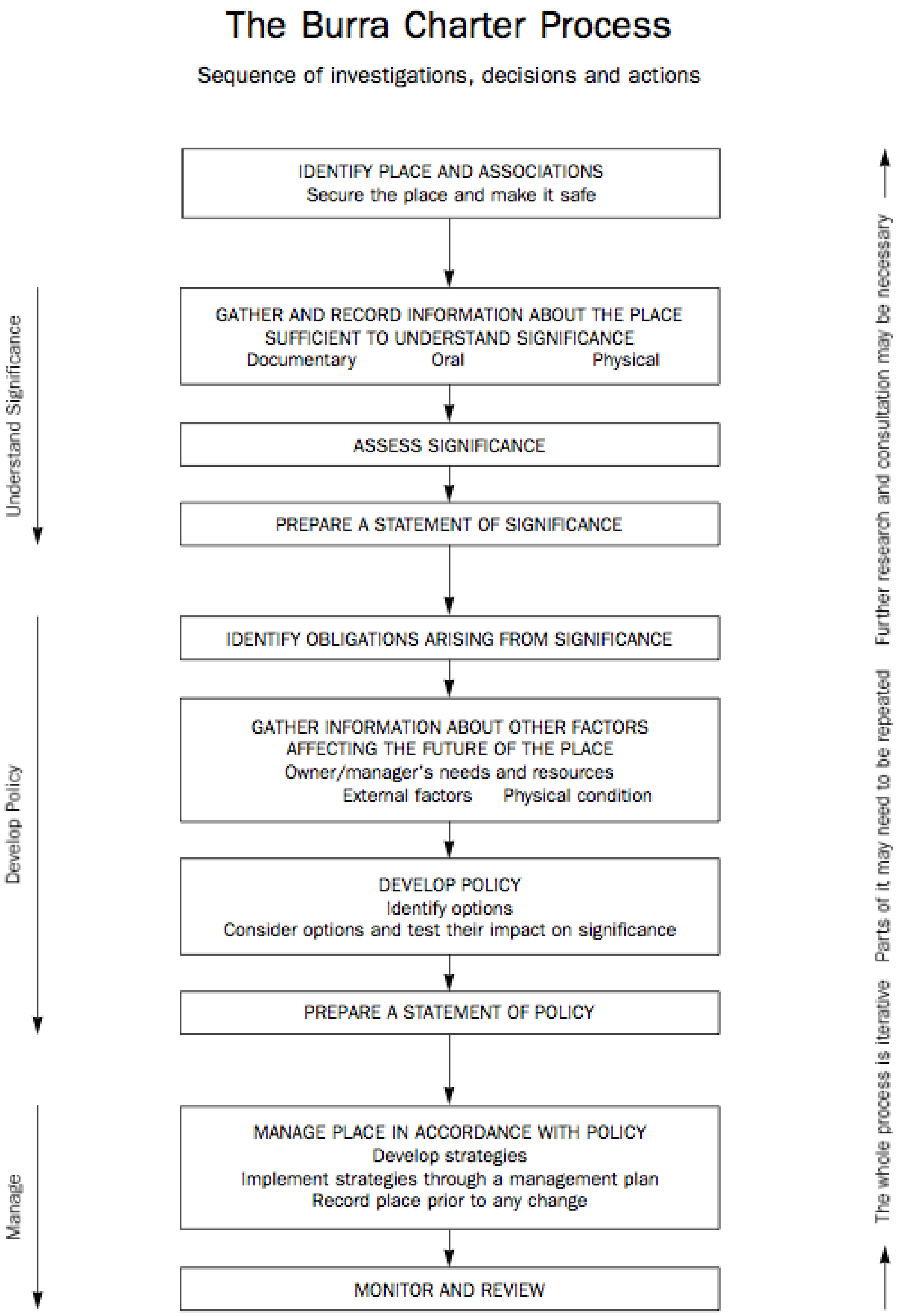

Figure 2. The Burra Charter Process under the Australia ICOMOS Burra Charter of Places of Cultural Significance (Australia ICOMOS, 2000)

Kulinarya: Heritage from the Sense of Taste
Culinary tradition is an essential identity of the community (Reynolds, 1993; Lucin, 2013; Council on International Education Exchange, n.d.; Westering, 1999; Di Mauro, Vanni, Trampetti, Raschi & Cinelli-Columbini, 2011). It is because all aspects that describe food are connected to the historical, anthropological and cultural dimensions of the community (Visser, 1991). These aspects are related to the reason why the community preparing the food, the significance of food, raw ingredients and materials used (tangible); the process of cooking, preparation, presentation and how it is transmitted from generation to generation (Kivela & Crotts, 2006). It all started from why it is being prepared and why food is important socio-culturally. Like the common belief of the Filipinos that cooking and preparing noodles during birthdays will give a person long life or preparing sticky *kakanins* (traditional rice cakes) to bind family ties and friendship. It also explains how it was all started and how it affects the history of the community. For instance, hunting and eating *tugak* (*Kapampangan* term for frogs) was started during the pre-Hispanic period. This is where farmers are dependent on water irrigation. Their children will catch the frogs around the field while their parents are planting (Borromeo, 2014). These mean that every food has a story that contributes or connected to the identity of the community.

It is also important to know how raw materials were produced and gathered (Alvina, 2009). Agricultural, fishing and husbandry are common industries of the community that produce raw materials such as rice, grains, vegetables, fruits, animal meats and the like. These are part of the community's everyday lifestyle and considered to be their culture. When people cook *Suman* (rice cake), a person needs rice; *Menudo* (pork cubes stew), a person needs pork meat; *Rellenong Bangus* (stuffed milk fish), a person needs milk fish from the ponds. It is very significant to know how rice was gathered and the process on how it was cultivated; on how fisherman caught big amount fish just to help his family; or on how the butcher kill the pigs and cut every parts of it. Culinary identity also pertains on where the ingredients come from and the process on how it was being gathered.

It is also important to study the materials being used for cooking. As Filipino cook *Sinigang* (sour-based soup), traditionally, people tend to use *palayok* (clay pot), which is handmade and undergone to a traditional process. Another example is the *Kudkuran* (traditional Filipino coconut meat shredder), which is used to shred the meat of a mature coconut to produce coconut cream and the milk. One of the dishes of the Philippines that uses coconut cream and milk is *Laing*, Bicol dish made of the stalks and leaves of *gabi* (taro plant) (Fernandez, 1988).

Using traditional and local ingredients and materials are vital components for the integrity and identity of the dish (Horng & Tsai, 2012; Mora, 1998). These will show respect on the integrity of the food and it contributes to the conservation and preservation of the culinary tradition. The *lolos* and *lolas* (grandfather and grandmother) of the family will definitely be strict in the selection of ingredients and materials; and preferably they want to use the traditional. The traditionalist would say *"Lalabas ang tunay na sarap kung gagamitin ang sariling atin"* (True taste of the food can be experienced if we will use the traditional ingredients). For instance, to make the *Ilokano* empanada, *Ilokanos* (people from the Ilocos region) uses their traditional *longganisa* (traditional meat sausage). *Pangasinenses* (people from the provinces of Pangasinan) will use their own grown *bangus* (milk fish) to cook their grilled fish or pair it with *dinengdeng* (traditional vegetable stew). *Pinangat na gabi* of the *Bikolanos* (people from the Bicol region) will be cooked in a *palayok* to make it more traditional.

Food also explains an important event that happens to a person or to the community (Alejandro, Reyes & Santos, 2008; Lee, 2015). For instance, if a person cooks *pansit* (Filipino noodles) or the Filipino style spaghetti (cooked in tomato sauce), some would think they are celebrating a birthday of a person. *Litson* (roasted pig) is prepared for a very special occasion such as *piesta* (fiesta). As people smell the traditional *kakanins* of *puto bibingka* and *puto bumbong* with hot *tsokolate* (hot chocolate) or *tanglad* (lemon grass) tea; it means that Christmas season started. Even for unusual events, people, especially in the Philippines, has there own food to be match. In a *lamay* (dead's wake), people will prepare biscuits, kape (hot coffee), roasted nuts, different kinds of *chichiria* (junk foods) for the guests. For some provinces, people prefer to serve traditional kakanins like *sinukmani* or *puto*. People can recognize a *sabongero* (person who joins a cockfight) loses a fight if he served Chicken *talunan* to his family. The dish is a soy stew with salted bean cakes herbed with oregano, clove, star anise and cinnamon stick. The star of the dish is the chicken that was loss from the fight. It also mixed with *pata* (pig's feet) (Roces & Fernando, 1976).

Travel for Identity, Travel for Food: Culinary Tourism

People travel for so many reasons and motivations. People tend to travel because of their work, migration, to commute and for recreation and leisure (Goeldner, 2006). Travel for recreation and leisure is also known as Tourism. Based from the definition of the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), an inter-governmental agency under the United Nations that concentrates to the development of tourism in the international setting, "Tourism comprises the activities of a person travelling to and staying on places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for business, leisure and other purposes" (UNWTO, n.d.). And from the general definition of tourism, different forms of tourism were formed. "Forms of Tourism are defined by the existence of a sovereign motive that makes people travel as long as by infrastructure in tourism areas" (Dusit Thani College & LPU, n.d.). Tourists dictate what will be the different forms based from their needs and desires. Some of those are nature-based tourism, which concentrates to areas under natural resources (land and water forms, climatic effect); industrial tourism, which is travelling to modern cities and areas with technological advancement; heritage and cultural tourism, which focuses on areas and activities that are related to the lifestyle of the community and its related properties; and culinary tourism (or also known as gastronomic or food tourism), which uses food of the community as tourism resource. Culinary tourism is interrelated with heritage and cultural tourism because for both forms, it represents the identity of the community and how it is being used for economic, socio-cultural and environmental development.

There are many definitions of food tourism based from different researchers (Quan & Wang, 2004; Hall & Sharples, 2003). According to Hall and Sharples (2003), food tourism concentrates "to regions with unique gastronomic features and to experience its related entertainment and activities, which includes food festival, expositions and exhibitions; food tasting activity, etc" (Hall & Sharples, 2003 in Herrera, Harranz & Arilla, 2012). Food tourism also focuses on experiencing different culture of the host community by means of cooking and tasting their traditional food and beverages to complete the community encounter (Westering, 1999; Molz, 2007; Long, 2004; Hagarty & O'Mahony, 2001; Roland, 2013). A clear example of a culinary tour is in the province of Pampanga, considered as the Philippines' culinary capital. One of the important culinary sites in Pampanga is the Ancestral House of *Atching Lilian Borromeo* in the municipality of Mexico (Borromeo, 2014). When tourists visit the place, people can taste authentic *Kapampangan* food and also, by request, *Atching Lilian* (the owner) can show how food is being prepared and even experience it in actual by the tourists. But based from the researches of Herrera, Harranz & Arilla (2012), tourist actually travels for other motivations and not to focus on their food (Herrera et.al., 2012). Food is only a part of the total experience of a tourist travel in an area (Fields, 2002; Quan & Wang, 2004). It also plays a critical role in a tourist experience in an area (Roland, 2013). If that will be the case and if people focus in the definition given by Hall & Sharples, then the motivation for tourism travel is not gastronomic in general. That is why Herrera, Harranz & Arilla come-up with a new definition which is, "Gastronomic tourism applies to tourists and visitors who plan their trips partially or totally in order to taste the cuisine of the place or to carry our activities related to gastronomy" (Herrera et.al, 2012). Gastronomic provides total enjoyment of the tourists especially experience the authentic and unique dishes (Cañizares & Guzman, 2012)

There are numerous researches about the importance of local food for a sustainable development especially using tourism (Di Mauro et.al., 2011; Sims, 2009; Okech, 2014; Renko et.al., 2010; Telfer & Wall, 1996; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Everett & Slocum, 2013; Montanari & Staniscia, 2009). When a unique food is being served to foreign or even to local tourists, they can experience and literally taste the cultural significance of the community. People tend to experience the hard work of the community to produce the local and traditional ingredients and even to understand the process of preparation of the food. It can help the economic development by means of producing local restaurants that will serve traditional food, creation and opportunities for job; income generation for both private and government sectors; infrastructure and superstructure development; and priority of government and non-government expenditures (Greffe, 1990).

In the socio-cultural aspect of gastronomic sustainable tourism development, it highlights the conservation and protection of the culinary tradition; helps the community to work and have their own job; and to understand their own tradition and heritage (Lee, 2015; Gaztelumendi, 2012). As development will highlight the tradition, then the local community will give more importance to it.

But in every development, there are certain aspects that contribute to the deterioration of the community's tradition and practices. Some of these are introduction of new technology in the production of food, food processing and preservatives; new trends on food service, needs and demands of the customers; fusion cuisine, introduction of new methods in cooking and the preference of choosing foreign cuisines (Chuang, 2009). These aspects can diminish the integrity of the culinary tradition of the local community.

The Taste of the World: Culinary Tourism Identity in the International Setting

Every nation has its culinary tradition and identity based from their culture and heritage. And there are tourists that travel to experience and taste a unique and authentic feature of the country's culinary tradition (Westering, 1999). Food represents a part of the community's identity and can lead to the appreciation and experience. Culinary tourism allows tourists to explore the cultural significance of the local community (UNWTO, 2012). Some of the food tourism products and activities are related to food festival, food tours, cookery workshop, food fairs, visiting different markets and local products; and even visiting museums that interprets the culinary tradition of the community (UNWTO, 2012).

Tourism is generally an economic development strategy of a certain nation. Tourism contributes to the World's 10% of the gross domestic product (GDP) and US$ 1.5 trillon in export earnings coming from international tourists in 2014 (UNWTO, 2015). For culinary tourism, it is still an emerging form of tourism and a strategic factor for branding and marketing a destination (UNWTO, 2015). As it is still an emerging resource, the target market is still the regional community then as it evolves, initially; local, national and international markets are being developed. It also transpires from the economic contribution of culinary tourism alone that it still connected from other tourism resources / form of tourism.

To highlight outstanding intangible heritage, UNESCO established the representative list of intangible cultural heritage of the humanity. This list highlights the most significant intangible cultural heritage of the humanity based from the UNESCO 2003 Convention for the Safeguarding of Intangible Cultural Heritage and its domains. Culinary tradition is one of many intangible heritages that are included in the list.

One of the most important culinary traditions in the international setting and most known tourism resource of France is the French cuisine. French cuisine or the gastronomic meal of the French is considered as the mother cuisines for most of the cuisines in the world. Most of the culinary practices, terminologies and services methods used internationally are based from the French culinary tradition. The term "gastronomic" came from France and popularized it as enjoying food and drink (UNESCO, 2010). French cuisine is under the domain of social practices, rituals and festive events because food is part of the lifestyle of every French as an individual and in a group. In 2009, an annual survey on eating habits of the French revealed that 95.2% of the French respondents considered gastronomic meal as an element of the French cultural heritage and humanity (UNESCO, 2010). The French are also preparing food for important events, personal or community-based, such as birthdays, anniversaries and the like. And it is continuously preserving the tradition coming from the efforts of the government and the community. Providing an inventory especially for French culinary tradition (*Inventaire du patrimoine culinaire de la France*) and the "Taste Week" for schools are some of the projects of the government for the preservation of the French culinary tradition (UNESCO, 2010). Some of the famous dishes of the French are baguette, croissants, boeuf bourguignon (beef stew), pates and terrines (Child & Beck, 1983). Based from the 2013 tourism statistics of France, it remains as the global leader for tourism in terms of tourist arrivals, which are almost 83 million foreign tourists (France Diplomatie, 2013). Culinary and wine tourism are considered as one of the main sectors that contribute to the increasing tourist arrivals of France aside from ski tourism, business and cultural tourism.

In the Asian context, another example of intangible heritage of the humanity is the making and sharing of *Kimchi* in South Korea. *Kimchi* or *Kimjang* is a preserved vegetable using different local spices and fermented seafood that was recorded as early as 760 years ago (UNESCO, 2013). According to history, *Kimchi* is being prepared to sustain Koreans through the long winter months because of its spiciness (UNESCO, 2013). It is considered as Korean's basic and staple food as it is always served during the mealtime. *Kimchi* is under the domains of social practices, rituals and festive events; and knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe. The natural environment is a factor in making *Kimchi* especially the season. In every season, ingredients and the process of making are developing. Every household is practicing the tradition and the family secures the transmission of it from generation to generation. Today, not only Koreans appreciate to eat *Kimchi* but also the tradition was transmitted and shared to other countries. To comprehensively disseminate the tradition of preparing and eating *Kimchi*, Korea provided a museum and even local museums specifically interpret the tradition of making *Kimchi* (Cho, 2013). There are now specialized tours offered to foreign tourists so to understand and experience *Kimchi* making. Korean Tourism Organization (KTO) provided some promotional strategy to commercialize the tradition even though it is being conserved (UNWTO, 2012).

Some of the culinary traditions that were listed under the intangible cultural heritage of humanity; and considered as tourism resources are: Lavash, traditional Armenian bread from Armenia (UNESCO, 2014); Mediterranean Diet, a transnational ICH from Cyprus, Croatia, Spain, Greece, Italy, Morocco and Portugal (UNESCO, 2013); Traditional Mexican cuisine from Mexico (UNESCO, 2010); Turkish coffee culture and tradition from Turkey (UNESCO, 2013); and Washoku, traditional dietary cultures of the Japanese, notably for the celebration of New Year (UNESCO, 2013).

Pagkain, Pamana, Turismo: Culinary Tourism in the Philippine Setting
Culinary identity of the Philippines is very individualistic (Barreto, 2008) and regionalist (Alvina, 2005) in nature. It is developed through the influence of the Philippine geographical structure wherein every province are divided and separated by different bodies of water. Other factors that contribute to the differences are the scientific compositions of soils and seas; plants and animals and most especially the regional character of the different peoples (Alvina, 2005). There are also considerations of foreign influences from the pre-Hispanic period until today in the development of Philippine culinary identity (Sta. Maria, 2008). There are the influences of the Malays, Chinese, Indians, Spaniards, American and Japanese.

Archaeologically, *Kinilaw* (vinegar-cured meat) is considered as one of the most ancient food of the Philippines and methods of food preparation (Alegre & Fernandez, 1991). It was confirmed by several artifacts excavated in the Balangay site in Butuan City (Sitio Ambangan, Libertad), Agusan del Norte; such as tabon-tabon (*Hydrophytune orbiculatum*), a citrus fruit together with fish bones (Alegre & Fernandez, 1991). *Kinilaw* is a dish and considered as a method of cooking that uses vinegar or any juice from a citrus fruit to cook meat such as fish and seafood.

In every province in the Philippines, there are certain foods that represent their identity and taste. *Ilocos* region of the northern Philippines has *papaitan*, offal stew, which has its strong bitterness coming from different internal organs of an animal. This represents the definitive character of the Ilokanos (Tayag, 2012). *Kapampangans* has *sisig*, grilled pig's head. It represents the historical value of Pampanga during the American period. It was said that the head was being given to the locals of Angeles (town in Pampanga) because Americans do not want to eat it. People came up with different variety of dishes from it but one dish remains supreme. The province of Batangas in the southern Philippines has *bulalo*, a beef shank soup with vegetables. It signifies the lifestyle of the common *Batangueños* (people in Batangas) as the center for cattle industry in the Luzon island (Barreto et.al., 2008). The island of Cebu in the Visayas area has its own version of *lechon*, a roasted suckling pig, which was acclaimed as the "best pig in town" from the famous Chef Anthony Bourdain (ABS-CBN News, 2009).
But even though each area in the Philippines differs from its preference on food, there are several dishes that may consider as the "national" culinary identity because it is being cooked not only in one specific province but most of the parts of the archipelago. Based from the research of Corazon S. Alvina, a Philippine culinary expert, in 2005, there are five distinct dishes that may represent the Philippines. The first is *Bistek* (beef and onion rings braised in soy sauce) that is generally popularized by the *tagalogs*(people from the southern *tagalog* region). The meat is being pan-fried in a little amount of oil then adding up with onion rings and minced garlic. For its flavor, soy sauce and sometimes *calamansi* (a local citrus fruit) juice are being added. Another significant dish is *lumpia* (spring rolls). It is a dish that contributes to the influence of the Chinese in the country. It may be fried or fresh. It can be concentrated to meat, vegetable or mixed based from the preference.

The next three dishes are considered to be the best in Philippine cuisine: *adobo* (meat stewed in soy sauce and vinegar), *sinigang* (sour soup) and *lechon*. *Adobo* is considered as the best and internationally known among other foods of the Philippines. It is a meat stew; Filipinos typically use pork, chicken and beef; cooked in soy sauce and vinegar. Basically, *adobo* is a method of cooking, which means to braise meat or vegetable; or stewed in vinegar. The Spaniards introduce it to the Filipinos, first calling it from the Spanish word *adobar*. But before the Spaniards introduced *adobar*, it was practiced during the pre-colonial period especially the *taga-ilog* (people loving near the river). Because there is no available refrigeration during the pre-colonial period, to preserve the meat cuts, people cooked it in salt, *salitre* (curing salt) (Enriquez, 1993) and vinegar (Soho, 2014). Then when the Chinese came here for trading, they introduced soy sauce as a substitute for salt (Soho, 2014). As the Spaniards saw the dish, they first call it *adobo de los naturales* as stated in the 1613 *Vocabulario de la Lengua Tagala* by a Franciscan priest, Fr. Pedro de San Buenaventura (Buenaventura, 1613). Today, there are a lot of cooking varieties for adobo. The *Bicol* region added *gata* (coconut milk) to make it creamier. *Bulacan*, a province in the central Luzon, has *Adobong Puti* or stewed in white vinegar especially their *Sukang Paombong*. From the Cavite province, instead of meat, Caviteños are using the *puso ng saging* (banana flower) (Barreto et.al., 2008). Other vegetables can be cooked by means of adobo such as *kangkong* (water spinach), and *sitaw* (string beans). In an interview with Chef Allain Ducasse of the Michelin Guide by the renowned Philippine newscaster, Ms. Jessica Soho, Chef Ducasse considered adobo by having an edge to be known worldwide compare with other dishes of the Philippines (Soho, 2014). Because of its nationwide popularity, it is considered as the Philippine national dish (Sta. Maria, 2006).

Sinigang is also an important and one of the basic dishes of the Filipinos. It is meat soup with a specific natural souring agent such as *sampalok* (*Tamarindus indica*) *kamias* (*Averrhoa bilimbi*), *batuan* (*Garcinia morella*) and any soar fruit or vegetable that is seasonal. It was said that *sinigang* is a pre-colonial food that was influenced by the Malays (Barretto et.al., 2008). Like with *adobo*, *sinigang* is rampantly cooked in the Philippines and each province or area has its own version of cooking it. Meats that can be used for cooking *sinigang* are pork, chicken and beef. In most of the areas with bodies of water, they introduced of using fish and seafood for cooking *sinigang*, which are *bangus* (milk fish) and *sugpo* (tiger prawns). Even the national hero of the Philippines, Dr. Jose P. Rizal, used *sinigang* (*sinigang na ayungin*) in his novel, *Noli Me Tangere* (Sta. Maria, 2012).

The last dish is *Lechon*. *Lechon* or roasted suckling pig is a popular dish of the Filipinos especially during important occasions like fiestas, birthdays and even during the holidays. It is a dish wherein a whole pig (or even cow or chicken) is roasted in a hot coal for eight (8) to twelve (12) hours. Then it is paired with liver sauce, which is a mixture of ground liver, vinegar, brown sugar and different spices (Barretto et.al., 2008). It is being prepared all over the Philippines and basically has their own version on how to cook it based from their resources and traditions. It was said that during the Spanish period, *lechon* is the sign of luxury and wealth because only the rich people can afford to eat it (Sarthon, 2014). It is also believed that it is the way that the friars could identify a community if they already converted as Catholic Christians (Sarthon, 2014). Some parts of the Philippines are very well known for *lechon* such as *La Loma* in *Quezon* City, considered as the *Lechon* Capital of the Philippines; *Balayan* in *Batangas*, which the community also introduced the *Balayan Lechon* Festival as part of their celebration during the feast day of their patron, Saint John the Baptist; and in the province of *Cebu*.

Culinary resources are considered as one of the top tourism products of the Philippines (Buenavente, 2009). It is because of its uniqueness and definitely the taste that most of the foreign tourists really love. And to make the Philippines as the next culinary destination, during the stewardship of Secretary Joseph Ace Durano of the Department of Tourism, the Department launched *Kulinarya Filipina*. This is a project by providing culinary tour packages for both foreign and local tourists. Travel agencies and tour operators will offer the packages especially members of the Philippine Tour Operators Association (PHILTOA) and the Philippine Travel Agencies Association (PTAA) (Buenavente, 2009). Highlighted destinations for the *Kulinarya* Food Trips are based from the present top destinations, considering the tourist inflows for both domestic and international; or a destination, which is well known because of its food and related attractions. The following are the culinary destinations for the *Kulinarya* Food Trips (Department of Tourism, 2009):

- Ilocandia Culinary Tour – Ilocos Norte and Ilocos Sur (Vigan as the UNESCO World Heritage City);
- Pampanga/Bulacan Kulinarya – Pampanga as the "Culinary Capital of the Philippines" and Bulacan as the "Center for Desserts and Pastries";
- Binondo Food Trip – Flavors and Culture of China;
- Batangas/Cavite Kulinarya – "Coffee Capitals of the Philippines";
- Kulinarya Tagala – Quezon (known for its Pahiyas Festival) and Laguna Provinces;
- Boracay Food Trip – One of the Best Islands in the World;
- Iloilo Kulinarya – "La Paz Batchoy" and "Pancit Molo";
- Negrenese Kulinarya – "Home of the Hacenderos and Azucareras";
- Cebu Kulinarya – "Country's Oldest City";
- Bohol Kulinarya – known for its Chocolate Hills;
- Kulinarya Dabaw – "Home of the Durian Fruit"; and
- Kulinarya Dakak

There are a lot of researches and book publications concentrated on Philippine cuisine identity (Fernando et.al., 1976; Barretto, 2006; Besa & Dorotan, 2006; Fenix, 2014; Fenix et.al., 2012; Panlilio & Sta. Maria, 2005; Tayag, 2006; Tayag & Quioc, 2012; Fernando, 1992; Besa & Dorotan, 2006; Alejandro, 2005; Fernandez, 2000; Koh, 2013; Tayag, 2006; Uy & Orillos, 2015; Cabotaje, 1976; Alejandro et.al., 2008; Sta. Maria, 2006). In 2008, the Asia Society Philippine Foundation Inc. in partnership with the Philippine Department of Tourism researched and published a book that will highlight Philippine cuisine and will be used as a resource for international tourism. The book was entitled "*Kulinarya*: A Guidebook to Philippine Cuisine". The book features the different foods and dishes that will represent the totality of Philippine cuisine. The main objective of the book project is to determine what dishes must be offered to foreign tourists and sets as the representation of Philippine cuisine. The authors are considered to be experts on Philippine cuisine such as Glenda Rosales Barretto, Conrad Calalang, Margarita Fores, Myrna Segismundo, Jessie Sincioco and Claude Tayag. The book is divided into eight parts. These are *pulutan* (appetizer), *sabaw* (soup), *gulay at ensalada* (vegetable and salad); *ulam* (main dish), *adobo* (vinegar braised), *pancit* (noodles), *merienda* (snacks) and *minatamis* (desserts) (Barretto et.al, 2008). These parts are based from the tradition and ordinary food lifestyle of the Filipinos with some aspect of foreign appetite.

Pancit: Influence of the Chinese in Philippine Noodles

Pansit (or spelled as *pancit*) is a Filipino version of a noodle dish that was contributed by the Chinese traders during the pre-Hispanic times of the Philippines. Every part of the Philippine archipelago has its own version on how to cook *pansit*. But the basic is that it is composed of the following: a kind of noodle (*bihon*, *canton*, *miki*, etc.), vegetables (carrots, cabbage, baguio beans and the like) and meat then seasoned with soy sauce (as a substitute of salt) and pepper. But how this dish started in an international setting? Then how it was been transferred to the Philippines? Why is it an important culinary identity of the Filipinos?

Most of the records show that noodles started from the east especially in China then Marco Polo introduced it to the west (Italy to be exact) in the 8th century (International Pasta Organization, n.d.). But based from the International Pasta Organization (IPO), it was believed that noodles were dated way back during the Etruscan civilization, which made pasta by grinding several cereals and grains and then mixed them with water, a blend that was later on cooked producing tasty and nutritious food product (International Pasta Organization, n.d.). There are also accounts that in the ancient Roman Empire, pasta was already a food especially eaten by the monarchy. In fact, the Roman emperor Cicero himself speaks about his passion for the "*Laganum*", the "*Laganas*", which are strips of long pasta (wheat-flour pasta shaped as wide and flat sheets) (International Pasta Organization, n.d.).

Archaeologically, there are findings that it started in the central part of Asia specifically in China. The beautifully preserved, long, thin yellow noodles were found inside an overturned sealed bowl at the Lajia archaeological site in northwestern China (Roach, 2005). The bowl was buried under ten feet (three meters) of sediment (Roach, 2005). Archaeologist dated the artifacts 4,000 years ago and the grain used from the pasta was dated 7,000 years ago. Based from Mr. Houyuan Lu of the Institute of Geology and Geophysics at Beijing's Chinese Academy of Sciences, this discovery is the earliest evidence of having this kind of food ever found. There are also accounts during the China's East Han Dynasty that the earliest record of noodles was written in the books between the A.D. 25 to 220 (Roach, 2005).

Before the Spaniards arrived in the Philippines, many historians believed that early Filipinos already started to create small communities and there were a well-established coordination with different countries for maritime trade and commerce (De Zuniga, 1803; Blair & Robertson, 1903; Fox, 1967; Wernstedt & Spencer, 1967; Wang, 2003, Go, 2005; Chu, 2010). Different products and services were introduced to the *Indios* (early Filipinos) and as a return; they also exchanged some local products. As it was continued, there is also a positive impact of cross-cultural exchange; foreign traders learned something from the native culture and vice-versa. Those cultural exchange could be related to arts, sciences, linguistics, design, belief, methodologies, religion, governance and even in culinary.

One of the most influential traders is the Chinese or the Spaniards called them *Sangleyes* – came from the words *hiang* and *lay*, which means "travelling merchants" (De Zuniga, 1803). Other accounts would say that it came from *chiang* and *lai*, which means "regularly come" (Scott, 1994). Trading with China started in the 10th century (Fox, 1967; Wang, 2003; Go, 2005) or in the 11th century but "it is conjectured that undocumented trade may have started even two centuries earlier" (Fernandez, 2000). To prove it, trade pottery excavated in Laguna, for example, includes pieces dating to the Tang Dynasty (A.D. 618-907) (Fernandez, 2000) that came from the Fujian province (Bahay Tsinoy, n.d.).

It is believed that the early Chinese traders came from the Southern part of Mainland China based from the archaeological findings discovered by Dr. Arturo de Santos and Dr. Henry Otley Beyer (Fox, 1967). It was also believed that the first area where the Chinese set foot in the Philippines were in *Ma'I* (Go, 2005). This was based from Vol. 186 of the Song Dynasty Annals wherein it was mentioned that it is part of the "luxurious Chinese foreign trade in the tenth century" (Go, 2005). Today, it is known as the Northern Mindoro (Wang, 2003) but there are certain research and opinions that it is not Mindoro but it is located in the province of Laguna (Ba'I) (Go, 2005). When it comes to trade and commerce, the Chinese established regular contact with Sulu (Wernstedt & Spencer, 1967) in the southern part of the Philippines then also penetrated the northern part especially Tondo and Ylocos (De Zuniga, 1803).

Some of the goods and products brought by the Chinese are: coriander, chili, lemon grass, turmeric, shrimp paste, peanut, scallions, soy sauce, cumin, basil, carom seed, tamarind pulp, cinnamon and black pepper. There are also*anglit* (small Chinese clay cooking pot) and *banga* (low earthen jar for storage or cooking). They also contributed some cooking tools and materials for cooking *pansit* such as *karajay*, *kawali* and *kawa* (all metal wok-like cooking pans); *kalan* (stove) and *siyansi* (kitchen turners). Most of those goods and products were used for cooking.

From the Chinese traders, one of there major contributions were the Filipino's style of noodles, *pansit*; and the terminology used for the place where people can purchase it, *pansiteria*. *Pansit* came from two words; *pan* which means "to cook rice or make noodles" and *sit*, referring to "food" or a "meal" (Sta. Maria, 2006). *Pansit* is a noodle dish flavored with seafood and/or meat and/or vegetables (Fernandez, 2000). Most of those well-known *pansiterias* in the country during the trade and colonization periods were located in the district of Binondo and Tondo in Manila (Sta. Maria, 2006). The place is also known as the location of the oldest Chinatown in the World dated 1594 (unformal type). There are some evidences of this historical culinary contribution from China. One of this is a testimony appearing in the docketed papers as a consequence of a Royal Resolution in the re-admission of the Chinese to the Philippine islands dated October 25-29, 1779 (Trechuelo, 1969); and the researcher quote:

> "In 1779, 898 Chinese Christians arrived and joined earlier immigrants to the Philippines. Among them were 66 sugar manufacturers, 47 oil manufacturers, 25 pork dealers, 19 wine traders, 15 NOODLE MAKERS, 13 vegetable dealers, 9 PANSIT MAKERS, 6 tahu-makers, 3 milk dealers, 3 sweet-shop dealers, 2 butchers, 2 water carriers, 1 baker, 1 confectioner, 1 keeper of eating house."

Another evidence of *pansit* in the Philippine's historical records is from Jose Rizal's *El Filibusterismo*. In *Kabanata* 25: *Tawanan at Iyakan*, the setting of the story was in *Panciteris Macanista de Buen Gusto* (Macao Good Taste Restaurant) in Binondo. It was *pansit* which the characters are eating and it was described by Rizal as a soup "made with mushrooms, prawns or shrimp, beaten egg, rice noodles, chicken and God knows what else!" (Rizal, 1891).

Pansit in the Philippines has a lot of variety based from its regional identity. Same with the western foreigners in terms of their pastas, *pansit* is a general term for the noodles to be used. Then different places have their different style of cooking and the ingredients. There is a typical *pansit* that is stir-fried with the choice of meat or seafood, vegetables and with its seasonings and flavorings. Typically, Filipinos have *Pansit Bihon-Guisado*, *Pansit* Canton or *Pansit Sotanghon*. There is also a *pansit* with a sauce such as *Pansit Luglog* and *Pansit Malabon* wherein it is flavored with *katas ng hipon* (shrimp juice) and *tinapa* (dried fish).

There are also noodles that are soup-based. It is cooked in a stock or broth just like *Mami* or *Lomi*. And the same with the pasta, it doesn't mean that the noodles must be on its desirable shapes just like *Pansit Molo* from the municipality of Molo in Iloilo. Most of the noodles (as the raw ingredient) available in the market were dried but for other areas like in the Cagayan region, they are using fresh noodles like *Pansit Batil-Patong* and *Pansit Cabagan*. The process of making the fresh noodles of the Filipinos is likely the same with what the Chinese are using.

Generally, the variations of *pansit* will based from the indigenous or available raw materials (e.g.: meats and vegetables) of an area. In Malabon wherein the community relies on its fishing industry that is why *Pansit Malabon* has a rich flavor of seafood.

The Chinese also introduced on how noodles can be a source of income for the people by means of *pansiterias*. *Pansit* were first brought to the commercial market by means of the different Chinese chow-chow vendors (small time stores) (Sta. Maria, 2006). Then it came out with *pansiteria*, which the term was Spanish-influenced. The suffix *-ria*, which means a place where one, can have such an item. For example: *cervezeria*, *panaderia*, *chocolateria* or noodle houses (Quioc & Tayag, 2012). A typical *pansiteria* was described in *Filipinas y sus habitants* by R. Gonzalez y Martin and the researcher quote:

> *"I could not overcome the repugnance caused by the odor and appearance of the various mincemeats. Orders arrived in an infinity of small plates of porcelain or china similar to demitasse saucers; all food was set out at once on the table or on the floor – usually eight, twelve or more kinds per table."*

It only indicates that the establishments are small, filthy and unpretentious (Sta. Maria, 2006).

Some of the most famous *pansiterias* in the Philippines are *Pansiteria Antigua*, which is one of the first in the country; *Nueva*, *Ilang-ilang*, *Rice Bowl*, *Siki* and *San Jacinto* then followed by other *pansiterias* during the American period (Sta. Maria, 2006). Until today, a lot of *pansiterias* are continuously developed in every parts of the archipelago especially to those areas with prominent type of *pansit* to offer. Some of those areas are *Binondo,* Tuguegarao City in Cagayan for *Pansit Batil-Patong,* Cabagan in Isabela for *Pansit Cabagan*, Lipa City in Batangas for *Lomi*, Malabon for *Pansit Malabon*, Cavite City in Cavite for *Pansit choko en su tinta*, Quezon Province for *Pansit Habhab*, Bicol region for *Pansit Bato*, La Paz in Iloilo for *La Paz Batchoy* and Molo in Iloilo for *Pansit Molo* (Quioc & Tayag, 2012).

Over commercialized style of *pansit* was also offered to the market. The producers are now offering instant Filipino-style noodles that are also practiced in other Asian countries like in China, Japan and South Korea. Brands like "Lucky Me", "Nissin Yakisoba" and "Quickchow" are some of the examples of today's Filipino-style instant *pansit* canton. Because of this, different flavors of instant *pansit* were now introduced to the market that makes the dish more experimental to taste. This is also very affordable which is around PhP 10-12.00 based from the standard retail proce (Department of Trade and Industry,). But in eating this kind of instant noodles, issues in terms of its health benefits must be considered. Research shows that it has high content of sodium that is not good for people with hypertension and with kidney problems (Shin et.al., 2014).

There are also new innovations of Filipino *pansit*. People didn't use the common noodles but an alternative like vegetables and even fruits. They are now using strips of coconut. They call it as *Pansit Buko* offered in Coconut House in Quezon City. There is also green papaya and call it as *Pansit Kinilaw* offered in Rosario, Cavite or *puso ng saging* as *Pansit Puso* offered in Cavite City, Cavite.

There are also changes with regards to the flavors of the noodles (the raw material). People now are incorporating various healthy ingredients in a form of a flour or powder like pumpkin, *malunggay* or seaweeds especially in Tiwi, Albay.

La villa de Lipa: The City of Elegance and Prosperity
Geographically, Lipa City in the province of Batangas is considered as the center of the country from Batangas to Sulu and from the eastern side of Surigao province to the western part of Palawan (Lipa City Government, 2015). It has a total land area of 20,940 hectares with latitude of 13 degrees 56 minutes north and a longitude of 121 degrees, 10 minutes east of the meridian (Lipa City Government, 2015). In terms of its land topography, the city is a mountainous area that has an elevation of 310 meters above sea level (Lipa City Government, 2015). Some mountains that surround the city are Mt. Malarayat with its *Susong Dalaga* Peak and Mt. Makulot in Cuenca (Villa et.al., 2012). That is why it is relatively cool place especially in the months of December to February (Villa et.al., 2012).

In terms of its agricultural resources, Lipa City is known for its *"Lipa Loam"* (Bureau of Soils, n.d.). This soil is very fertile and considered having the best characteristics of soil compare with other soils. Some agricultural crops of the city are coffee, corn, lanzones, coconut and black pepper (Lipa City Government, 2015).

In Lipa's pre-Hispanic history, it was started when the ten Borneo *datus* migrated in the Philippines. Two of the great datus, *Datu Dumangsil* and *Balcasusa* settled along the coastline of Batangas and *Bombon* Lake, which is known today as *Taal* Lake (Villa et.al., 2012). That is why it is believed that the first races of Batangas specifically in Lipa were come from the two datus and their constituents.

Then when the Spaniards came in Lipa specifically the Augustinian friars (who in fact, evangelized the people (Galende, 1987)), it leads to the establishment of a church that is named as *Tigbakin* or *Tagbakin* (Villa et.al., 2012). From *Tagbakin*, it was renamed as San Sebastian. It was also the first patron saint of the town. When the church was established, an image of San Sebastian was also enthroned. There are accounts that it is miraculous because it transfers from one place to another. There are numerous times that the image is always present in a *Lipa* tree. The community thought of transferring the church to the area where the image is always found. From that time, the church was transferred to the area where the tree is located. People call it as *Lipa* (*Lumang Lipa*) until it was used as the present name of the city (Villa et.al., 2012).

But the most important historical part of Lipa was in the 19th century wherein coffee production emerges and honored to receive the title of *"La villa de Lipa"*. This title is equivalent to an urban city nowadays during the Spanish era. There are a lot of accounts that would tell about the history of coffee production in Lipa. Based from the Bureau of Plan Industry (BPI), the coffee production in Lipa started when the Franciscan friars introduced it in the Philippines. The coffee seeds came from the Manila-Acapulco Galleon trade (Villa et.al., 2012). Most of the seeds were planted in *Barangay Pinagtung-olan* in Lipa (Villa et.al., 2012). Another account would tell that the *Macasaet* clan, considered as the fits settlers of the area, claimed that there forefathers are the first people who cultivated the coffee plant (Villa et.al., 2012). There is also an account from a local historian that the town's captain in 1784, Francisco Mantuano purchased the first coffee seeds (Villa et.al., 2012). But among all the accounts on Lipa coffee history, the account of the Augustinian friars is mostly considered. Based from the marker in the San Sebastian Cathedral that "the Augustinians encouraged the extensive cultivation of cacao and coffee (Villa et.al., 2012).

Because of the emergence of coffee production in Lipa, exportation of the product flourishes. It all started when the American west was opened for trading specifically in San Francisco. Based from records, it was cheaper to trade with the Philippines compare to Brazil and other parts of South America. The coffee is cheap in South America but because of transportation cost, it became expensive. In fact, in 1865, California alone bought half of the total production of coffee (Tinio in Villegas, 2002). After the opening of the Suez Canal in Europe at the year 1869, Europeans also penetrated to purchase coffee from the Philippines specifically in Lipa. And by that, England became the biggest buyer of the Philippine's local coffee (Tinio in Villegas, 2002). In 1870, it reached 3,370 metric tons of coffee produced and sold to different countries (Tinio in Villegas, 2002). This is also the time when Brazil, which is considered as the world's biggest coffee producer, experienced a viral disease for coffee plants. That's why the Philippines became the sole producer of coffee specifically Lipa. Because of this success, the Queen Regent of Spain, Maria Christina, proclaimed to convert the area from a simple municipality to *"La villa de Lipa"* under the Royal Decree on October 21, 1887 (Villa et.al., 2012).

Because of Lipa's coffee industry during the Spanish period, the area's economic aspect continuously developing and even the ordinary people can feel its growth. The lifestyle of the Lipeños during that time, especially the coffee producers, is like the European and Spanish style. One of the accounts that could prove it Teodoro M. Kalaw's book entitled *Aide de Camp to Freedom*. The researcher quote:

> *"Its language was Spanish; Spanish was its customs, manners and social forms, Spanish was its dances, its music. The social atmosphere was an importation from Spain and included its peculiar faults and vices. Money was splurged on clothes, interior decoration and pictures; on rare crystals and china ordered from Europe; on curtains of the finest silk, on stuffed chairs from Vienna, on exquisite table wines and foods. Lipa society sought to equal the halls and banquets of Spain herself, the Metropolis, the Guiding Star, the Ideal."*

But in 1889, the same disease that penetrated Brazil in their coffee plants, it was also experienced by the Lipeños. From that, it decreased the production of coffee. Profitability from the coffee industry also diminished (Tinio in Villegas, 2002).

Other than the coffee industry, another important aspect in the development of Lipa is the migration of the Chinese community. Chinese in Lipa started to work in the simplest way like selling bottles, Chinese noodles, textiles in carts, etc (Villa et.al., 2012). Then rented small area where they can put their stores and considered to be their houses. From then, the Chinese community strived hard until they become one of the millionaires of the area. The community provides businesses like large hardware stores and groceries (Villa et.al., 2012).

Lomi: The Hot Soup Noodle of Batangas

Most of the Chinese migrated in the Philippines came from the Quanzhou region, which is in the southeast part of Mainland China (Palanca, 2015). And one of the popular cuisines in Quanzhou region is the Fujian cuisine, which influences some of the Philippine food and dishes (Palanca, 2015). Some proofs are the Chinese porcelain that is currently interpreted in the Bahay Tsinoy Museum: Ching Ban Lee Porcelain Gallery (Bahay Tsinoy, n.d.). Characteristics of Fujian cuisine (China Internet Information Center, n.d.) are: (1) it emphasizes in seafood, river fish and shrimp; (2) it also uses bird's nest, cuttlefish and sturgeon; (3) most of the dishes are served in soup; (4) it uses different cooking methods like stewing, boiling, braising, quick-boiling and steaming; (5) cutting techniques are important for cooking; and (6) it is slightly sweet and sour; and less salty. The Filipinos adopted most of the characteristics of Fujian cuisines especially the usage of seafood, cooking soups, the methods of cooking and most especially the taste preference.

Lomi is considered as a foreign influenced dish, specifically coming from the Fujian cuisine that is completely embraced by the Batangueños especially in Lipa. Lomi is a thick egg noodle soup that is a mixture of egg noodles, vegetable and different kinds of meat toppings such as kikiam, pork, chicken, beef, liver, shrimp and squid. The soup base is a meat stock that a combination of pork belly and/or whole chicken (Palanca, 2015). In Fujian cuisine, *Lo Mi* is a breakfast dish that most of the head of the family is requesting (Palanca, 2015). But in Batangas, Lomi doesn't have any vegetables. It is only the meat, noodles and the thick stock or people also call it as the gravy. Another unique characteristic of Lomi in Batangas is that it has a dipping sauce (*sawsawan*), which is a mixture of soy sauce, calamansi juice and chopped red onions; and sometimes with birds eye chili (siling labuyo) based from the preference of the person eating it. This *sawsawan* is not mixed automatically to Lomi but it must be mixed in a separate saucer. As a person eats the Lomi, they put a little of the *sawsawan* in one part of the soup then mixed it a little and get the part where there is the *sawsawan*.

Lomi also has its food partner just like *puto-dinuguan* (rice cake and pork blood stew) and; *tuyo* and *champorado* (dried fish with chocolate rice porridge). For Lomi, the best partner for this is bread specifically in Cuenca; they call it as Pan de Agua (bread of water) (Uy & Orillos, 2015)

Lomian is present to most of the municipalities and cities of Batangas especially in San Jose, Ibaan, Rosario, Batangas City and Cuenca; and in Lipa City, known to be the home of the first lomi. *Panciteria de Lipa*, established in 1968, is considered as the first lomian in Lipa and in Batangas that introduces Lomi to the community. A pure Chinese and the owner, To Kim Eng, at first, cooks lomi for his mahjong friends as a *merienda* (snack) (Tayag & Quioc, 2012). Then when Kim Eng and his wife noticed that there are a lot of people requesting for Lomi, they decided to put up a restaurant or *pansiteria* to cater those request and make it as a business. They first provide some tables and chairs outside their house. Then as the number of customers increased, they decided to put up a restaurant structure located at Kapitan Simeon Luz Street near the public market (Tayag & Quioc, 2012).

But how the culture of Lomi spreads all over Batangas? The reason: To Kim Eng, the owner of *Pansiteria de Lipa*, is very willing to tell every single detail of the process of cooking it if there would be people who will be asking. To Kim Eng's philosophy for this is that he wants to help other people. As he always say, "It is good to share the know-how of cooking lomi so that others may have a source of income, as well" (Tayag & Quioc, 2012). To continue the tradition of his family, it was also shared to their siblings and even to the grandchildren.

Methodology

Research Design
The research is a qualitative type wherein the results will be based from three major evidences for determining heritage significance and integrity: physical, oral and documentary / archival (Australia ICOMOS, 2000). The researcher will use the following:

Table 1. Selected research designs

Major Evidences in Heritage Significance and Integrity Research	Research Design
Physical (Examination of the Heritage Subject)	Cultural Heritage Mapping
Oral (Determining factual and insight information from the people / stakeholders)	In-depth Interview and Focus Group Discussion (FGD)
Documentary / Archival	Published Journal Articles, Books and Other Reading References related to Culinary Heritage, Tourism and Community Identity

Meaning, Selection/Subjects and Study Site
To understand fully the research design that will be used by the researcher, the following the descriptions:

- Cultural Heritage Mapping (CHM) – is the process of identifying natural and cultural heritage resources of a specific locality of the purpose of conservation and development (Commonwealth Department of Communication and the Arts, 1995). For CHM, there are available templates (Zerrudo, 2008) that can be use for a specific cultural and heritage resource. For the research, the researcher will only use the Intangible Cultural Heritage Template (see Appendix) as to determine a comprehensive detail of *Lomi* for every *panciteria*.

- In-depth Interview – is a qualitative type of research that seeks to determine a comprehensive in-sight from a person with a consideration of having only a small group of respondents (Boyce & Neale, 2006). People to be asked are owners or representatives from the *panciterias* to answer the following questions:
    - What are the different kinds of *Lomi* that you offer?;
    - How did you learn cooking/preparing *Lomi*?;
    - Why did you choose *Lomi* as your main/one of your sources of income?; and
    - Are there any changes/substitutions that you implement in preparing Lomi if we compare it from the time you started the business? If there are, why did you implement it?

- Focus Group Discussion (FGD) – it is composed of six to ten people and facilitated by a moderator who are related/expert to the topic being discussed (Eliot & Associate, 2005). The major topics to be discussed for the FGD will focus on the following points (specific questions: see Appendix):
    - Lipa City as a Culinary Heritage Tourism Destination;
    - Lomi as the new Culinary Identity of Lipa: Its Significance and Identity; and

- Conservation and Sustainable Development of Lomi's Culinary Heritage Significance

Invited guests for the FGD are considered to be the stakeholders of the project. For the research, the following are the invited guests:

- At least two owners of *panciterias* in Lipa City, Batangas;
- City Tourism Officer or any representative from the City Tourism Office;
- City Planning and Development Officer or any representative from the City Planning and Development Office;
- City Heritage and Cultural Officer or any representative from the City Heritage and Cultural Office;
- Representative from any NGO related to Lipa City Culture and Heritage;
- Representative from the Academe Industry in Lipa City, preferably from the Tourism or Hotel and Restaurant Management Area; and
- Philippine Culinary Heritage Expert

- Reading and Analyzing Published Journal Articles and Books – as part of any heritage and cultural research, tedious archival and documentary are required. Published articles came from reputable and ISI indexed journals (see Bibliography). Published books and other related references are focused on culinary heritage, culinary tourism and community identity (see Bibliography).

The study site will focus in *Lipa* City, Batangas specifically examining the different *pansiterias* that passes the criteria needed: (1) it offers *Lomi* as the main/as one of their products; (2) the *pansiteria* must be located in the Poblacion area or known for them as the Urban Barangays (Barangay 1-11); and (3) the *pansiteria* is still existing and at least twenty (20) years old from the time it was established. The FGD will be facilitated also in *Lipa* City provided with a spacious area that can cater at least twenty (20) pax.

Data Measure/Instrumentation

The following are the considerations on how the researcher measures the data based from what the researcher wants to answer the statement of the problem and the objectives of the study:

- Cultural Heritage Mapping would determine the physical aspect of the subject to be studied (*Lomi*). It will discuss the differences on what the ingredients and materials being used; the process of cooking; the preparation, presentation and serving from one *pansiteria* to another. This will also examines the integrity of the present-day *Lomi* from the first *Lomi* introduced to the community;
- The in-depth interview will establish the perspective of the owners or any representative of the *pansiterias* in terms of *Lomi's* heritage significance as an intangible cultural property of the community and how it helps in them to in their very lifestyle of living;
- Focus Group Discussion (FGD) will determine the insights of the different stakeholders and showcase the impacts of Lomi as a culinary heritage identity of the city. It will also highlight the participation and even future plans and projects for the selected heritage resource especially for culinary tourism; and

- Archival and documentary evidences will be the basis and set as the theoretical framework of the research that determines the standard on how to implement the research.

Data Gathering Procedure
The flowchart will represent the research procedures for each selected research designs:

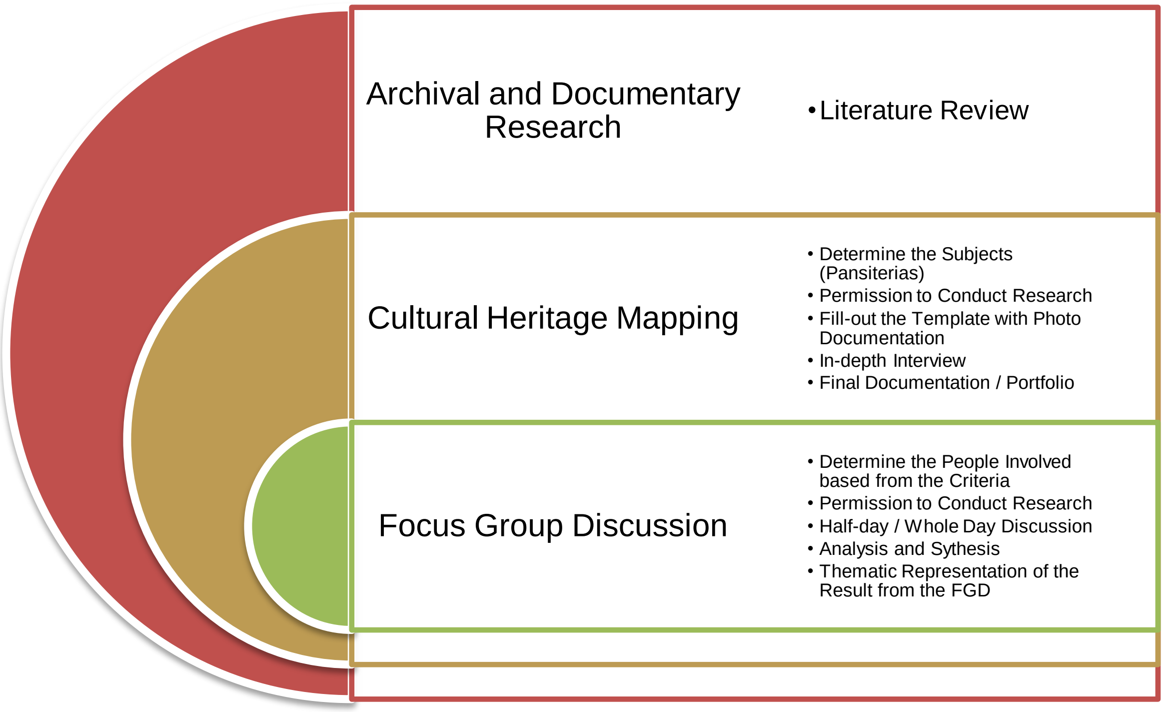

Figure 3. Data Gathering Procedure based from the Selected Research Design

In the representation, the archival and documentary research is having the biggest part because it examines the theoretical and set as the basis for any heritage and cultural research. Then the cultural heritage mapping sets as the second largest part of the research. The mapping project will start by determining the subjects (*pansiterias*) based from the criteria given by the researcher. Then an official letter will be released to the City Business and Investment Office of *Lipa* (to serve as an assistant in gathering the data needed) and to the different *pansiterias* for their consent to participate in the research process. If the *pansiterias* agree, then the researcher will observe and document on how they cook and present the dish using the template; and implement the in-depth interview afterwards. To finalize the second research design, a final portfolio will be needed wherein all the answered templates, photo documentation and the transcript interview will be attached.

For the last research design and considered as the specifics of the research paper, the focus group discussion, first is to determine the people that must be involved based from the criteria given by the researcher. An official invitation letter will be sent to their respective offices for proper communication. Attached in the letter are the main topics that will be discussed and the specific questions so that they can internalize and study it. A scheduled half-day or whole day discussion will be implemented based from the availability of the invited guests. To make it more accessible for them, the venue will be in *Lipa* City. Then gathered information will be analyzed and synthesized. At the last part, to represent clearly the result of the FGD, a thematic representation will be released.

Specifically for the cultural heritage mapping, *Lomi* from different *pansiterias* will be the main test materials for the research. The *Lomi* will be purchased from each *pansiteria*. Other associated food or condiments to Lomi will be considered as a test materials but it must support the total or a part of the significance of the dish.

Ethical Considerations

As the research is dealing with private ownership especially in the recipe and process of cooking; and the perspective of the people that will be used for the in-depth interview and for the focus group discussion, the researcher assures that: (1) properly released any communication letters with proper attachments including the template and questions to be asked to respective offices/people before conducting any research, (2) after releasing the letters, the researcher identifies immediately their response. If they accept the invitation, then they will be included as a subject or guests. If they regret it, then the researcher openly accepts it. (3) Before conducting the research, an instruction/s will be given. (4) Any people or group of people, even the researcher, does not control certain answers for any questions. Documented answers will be based from the perspective of the subject or from the invited guests. And (5) the results are strictly confidential. All outputs and results will be used for academic purposes. Each subject or invited guests will be given a copy of the result for validation.

Mode of Analysis

As a qualitative research, the research's discussion, findings and recommendations will be based from the output of the cultural heritage mapping and from the output of the focus group discussion, which are all based from the theoretical frameworks and literature studies identified.

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Apf1684 Women in Tourism and Ctps in Tanzania: Cultural Tourism and Poverty Alleviation in the Rural Southern Highlands

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Abstract

The objective of this article is to investigate the impact of Women in Tourism and Cultural tourism on welfare as perceived by communities in the rural Iringa region of Southern Tanzania. The survey, which involved CBT projects selected in Tungamalenga during summer of 2013 to March 2016, was quantitatively analysed through long term anthropological fieldwork in rural Tanzania and narratology. The research findings predicted to confirm that cultural based tourism contributes significantly to improving the livelihoods of people as a similar study was conducted in the northern circuit, Kilimanjaro region in 2013 which is famous for tourism due to having Mount Kilimanjaro. The first cultural based tourism initiatives were also started in the northern region. It was predicted that its impact shall differ from one village to another but what they shall all have in common will be their ability to get a reliable source of income, unlike in the past when solely depended on selling their livestock or seasonal crops. After the introduction of cultural tourism in the area 13 years ago, local people in the northern circuit noticed significant social progress, ranging from a arise in household income to gaining access to education and health facilities. However, a good number of residents have limited skills and professional knowledge coupled with negative attitude to the industry. Therefore, this study shall underline the importance of instituting training programmes at community level in Iringa that will ultimately provide opportunities for local people to be employed in various tourist businesses. Findings reveal multiple complex issues of power with the ‘other’ are show to be central and that the role of professional intermediaries in facilitating this experience of cultural contact is crucial. Tour guides are often the only locals with whom tourists spend considerable time: they have considerable agency in the image – building process of the peoples and places visited (re) shaping tourist destination images and indirectly influencing the self-image of those visited too.

Keywords: cultural tourism; poverty alleviation; rural communities; Iringa, Tanzania

Introduction

The role of tourism as a development tool, particularly in developing countries, has been cast into doubt by such problems as the industry’s foreign domination and dependency, socio-economic and spatial polarization of the activity, environmental degradation, and cultural alienation or erosion of social control and identity of host communities.

The extent of these problems and the performance of the tourism industry in the developing countries, more so in sub-Sahara Africa, are influenced to a large extent by the quality of the countries’ policies and their implementation.

Nowadays, because of the discoveries and experiences of developed countries with environmental protection it has become easy even to argue that tourism cannot be blamed for environmental deterioration caused by bad decisions rather than real visitor impacts. The implication of this is that ‘managed tourism’ is at the interface of policy and practical considerations for a healthy economic, social, political and environmental development.

There has recently been a growing interest with nature and heritage which has witnessed the buoyancy of special-interest tourism e.g CBT in rural areas of the developing world, turning their countryside into a key part in the recreation and tourism scene. Locals and foreigners disenchanted with the huge amounts charged by conventional tourist facilities-parks, reserves and 5-star hotels-have turned to some of these projects for an alternative source of natural, cultural and environmental education. Nothing has contributed to their mushrooming in all areas than their recognition and promotion by governments and international development organizations as a remedy to the environmental problems from poorly-planned, often mass tourism.

As a consequence several of these projects have sprung up in almost every rural community settlements beside major national parks and game reserves in Tanzania. On account of their independent and private operational nature they have become somewhat of a relief to a government burdened with the demands of providing amenities such as clean water, security and employment to communities near wildlife attraction country side.

Moreover, increasing demand for tourism and recreation in the countryside has meant that rural communities are through such initiatives using the countryside environment as an economic development tool, particularly on account of its quick returns.

The danger in this lies with their abrupt, duplicating and unplanned nature especially because the frenzy they have generated has attracted a lot of investment interest by people and organizations hitherto operating in the national, 'mass-visitation' realm. Because the nature of this industry is one of small players using natural resources as their selling point there is an inherent danger for the country due to the fact that natural resources are available free of charge and visitors are hard to control, which in turn means that the environment can pay a high price for short-term economic benefits (WTO, 1996).

Is the government blind to these developments? Why is this case? Is the support these projects are receiving commensurate with their actual value to the economy and the communities or is it another 'blind rush' for everything championed by environmentalists? To answer these questions this research was conceived to make observations on the area and the community based tourism around one of these National Parks, a renowned Park in the Southern Circuit which has been hailed as the wake-up call to the direction countryside tourism should take in Tanzania.

The study begins with an examination of the key concepts and arguments in the tourism and development debate particularly as this relates to the environment and traces the major developments on the world stage which serves as some background to the presentation and evaluation of the nature and development of Tanzania's organization of policy and activity. The study investigates countryside cultural based tourism and recreation near Ruaha National Park (RUNAPA) in Tanzania and what they mean to the development prospects for the country, at Tungamalenga village where by Chogela camp is located.

Environment and development argued.

In it is explored the major arguments in the interactions between the environment and development. It also lays theoretical foundation with which to synthesize the findings of the primary and research in a subsequent methodology section.

There is increasing recognition of the importance of ensuring that tourism does not threaten the natural and human resources available for present and future generations. This has been marked by unprecedented development in academia and policy circles in the form of action plans, policy papers, round-table discussions and the like. What has however not been given similar attention is the policy-practice interface of the suggestions for ‘good tourism’ and the real acts by poor governments and peoples in the face of pressing economic and political demands.

Indeed this study, concerns itself with the cultural tourism and activity in a country that has almost total reliance on tourism for its economic growth and finding itself, as it were, in the face of quickly changing local and global perceptions and attitudes to the tourism industry and the environment.

It reviews some of the concepts underlining the thematic focus representing sustainable tourism side of the research: cultural tourism and poverty alleviation in Southern Tanzania. It explores the debate on the environment and development particularly as this relates to tourism in the international and local context highlighting the overarching concerns of the academics and policy makers and, in this manner, laying a foundation for the methodology where an introduction to primary research is attempted specifically focusing on Tanzania. A model is, furthermore, developed for evaluating sustainability and unsustainability in environmental use, which is the prime attraction to the majority of visitors to Tanzania.

Tourism concerns in Tanzania and the developing world.
Tanzania lies along the East coast of Africa covering an area of 945,203 km^2
(364,898 sq meters) with an estimated population of 45 million - 2012 Census
(Refer to the map below of Tanzania to show the location of National Parks to where CTPs are located in close proximity).

Source: Tanzania National Parks (Ruaha GIS Centre)

Agriculture is the mainstay of the economy. In the past decade the country has been experimenting with various alternatives to establish an industrial base; hitherto this has involved import substitution and processing industries mainly for raw materials needed in the industrialized countries of Western Europe and Northern America. The overall ambition of the country, according to national development reports, is to have a fledgling and a well-balanced industrialization by the year 2020. Tourism[1] is currently the country's second largest contributor to the economy after agriculture.

Pre-independence Tanzania had relatively well developed but limited tourism infrastructure. The available accommodation, for instance, was Spartan but ideal for both the visitors as well as the settler community. After political transition, however, the new administration aware of the enormous potential of nascent tourism industry began an upgrade of the physical and human infrastructure and superstructure. One such move was to encourage both local and foreign investment in the industry.

Tourism in Tanzania is based on natural attractions which include wildlife in its natural

[1] Tourism in Tanzania dates back to pre- independence days and history has it recorded that as early as the 1930s, overseas visitors and explorers had started coming to East Africa mainly for big game hunting expeditions while others came in search of a calming experience. These expeditions were locally referred to as '*safaris*'- Swahili for journey. This bequeathed the travel world literature with a new and oft most used vocabulary. It is recorded that some of the early visitors included earnest Hemingway, Queen Elizabeth II, and Theodore Roosevelt among others.

habitats as well as idyllic beaches. Approximately 15% of the country has been set aside for conservation of wildlife *flora* and *fauna*. On account of the global interest in seeing the 'big five' namely, the elephant, Rhino, Lion, Buffalo and the Leopard, Kenya & Tanzania are hugely remained one of the most visited countries in Africa in spite of the stiff competition mainly from South Africa since the collapse of *Apartheid* in the latter.

On account of the global trends in tourism product consumption and management-mainly in line with agenda 21[2] on sustainable development Tanzania has shifted its policy focus from over-reliance on high- volume low- yield tourism toward the development of other alternative forms of tourism which mainly contribute toward the conservation of the environment. Recently, the policy attention has focused on tourism segments in which Kenya and Tanzania have comparative advantage, for example wildlife, sun, sea and sand, special attention is now directed at the impact of the sector on the environment.

As is the case with most other third world countries, the conservation of wildlife and the development of tourism in Tanzania are influenced by western cultural and environmental values. Most wildlife conservation and tourism projects in Tanzania are initiated with assistance from conservation and development organizations which are based in North America and Western Europe. According to Akama (1996: 22):

> *The country's policies and programmes of wildlife conservation and tourism development, such as the creation of national parks and the establishment of first-class tourism hotels and lodges, are influenced by and tailored on the lines of those in the western world..... so that at most (Tanzania's) tourism facilities are patronised by western tourists. However, the over-reliance on western social and environmental values in the promotion of tourism and the conservation of wildlife has led to increasing alienation of the tourism and wildlife resources from the county's rural peasants.'*

As the introductory noted, one of the major development concerns for the poor countries of Africa presently is the design and development of policies that incorporate the local voices in the social-economic aspirations of the poor countries. Indeed, without local participation or support for any development plans will ensure these remain only on paper or are for a long time conceived as western ideals with little relevance to the local person who has a different outlook from the industrialized westerner.

Kituyi (1990) and Khorda (1991) have argued that because most of the social and economic conditions of the people in the developing world such as Tanzania are geared towards the meeting of subsistence needs they have shown to respond rather unenthusiastically to 'aesthetic values of wildlife conservation and tourism development' unless this is made an integral part of their everyday livelihood, such as making tourism directly benefit them until it becomes a commodity they can control and exchange to their satisfaction. However, in response to this argument Ikiara et al (1994) has offered an account of the goals of eco-tourism or community conservancy in Tanzania as integrally a response to these concerns.

In the recent past rural communities surrounding protected natural areas have had little or no influence on decision making or the institutions of wildlife conservation and cultural tourism management. Their social and environmental values have been argued by Waithaka et al (1992) and Sindiga (1995) to contradict dramatically with those held by preservation officials

[2] See. World Commission on Environment and development, 1987. *Our common future*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

and western tourists that the government has laid little emphasis on their concerns or opinions preferring instead to give priority to international visitors who pay highly for tourism services. Among other things this has put the local communities at loggerheads with the wildlife, the tourists and the tourist planners in a manner that has endangered and continues to endanger the environment, (WTO, 2000).

Mirroring the concerns raised by Marsh among other tourism development academics Akama (1996) has argued that interpretations of the interactions between the local populations and tourism such as these are rooted in colonial mythology with regard to conquered natives in the colonies and were used to alienate the local populations from the development of tourism. According to Akama, for a long time post- colonial governments continued these attitudes to the detriment of balanced exploitation of natural resources such as wildlife. This took the form of rhetorical policies designed by elites along the contours of foreign need without due regard to locally identified development needs. The local person has been portrayed by such mythology as ignorant, disinterested, lazy etc. One such paints this picture of the east African Masai:

> *You cannot interest a Masai in seeing and photographing a giraffe any more than you can interest a New Yorker in a taxicab. Similarly the restrictions of grazing and farming in an African Park or preserves are as perplexing to the natives as a law prohibiting a New Yorker from living and housing himself in mainland Manhattan'*- Quoted from Nash, R. (1986) Wilderness and the American mind.

These and similar sentiments have birthed the biggest development crisis of our times: foreign exploitation and ownership of local resources and eventual alienation of and prevention of local ownership. Because tourism is the fulcrum of most of the small economies of Africa any discussion of development must address the tourism commodity which in turn hinges on development and protection of the environment.

By pursuing development models and following policies that paint the picture of the environment as a foreign concept international and local institutions have disinclined the rural populations in the developing world from taking environmental initiatives. As Kiss (1990) argued nothing will alter or improve the attitudes of local people to wildlife and the whole of tourism except an attack at the root of this 'virus': Poor policy.

The Conceptual Framework:

Tourism: Definition and scope

The United Nations and World Tourism Organization (WTO) adopted the following definition of tourism: *"… the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes*" (UNCTAD/DITC 1999). Tourism, like entertainment, sells an experience, "… a way for people to enjoy their free time".[3] The travel industry is often treated as part of tourism because of its role in facilitating the movement of tourists.

From a broad perspective, there are two types of tourism: mass tourism and 'alternative' tourism. 'High-volume' or mass tourism emphasizes "… large corporations, unfettered free markets, high-density development, short-term profits, and the like" (Weaver 1999: 797) and is therefore widely perceived as unsustainable in the long term. In this regard, the increasing environmental and social awareness of tourists has gradually been forcing mass tourism to adopt sustainable practice.

[3] *The Economist*, January 10, 1998.

Alternative tourism, also referred to as ecotourism on the other hand, is locally controlled, small-scale, and associated with consumption of more local goods and greater local participation. This alternative tourism is associated and at times considered synonymous with and sustainable tourism, as it is viewed as being largely beneficial to the long run use of natural resources which for most cases are non-renewable. The WTO defines this tourism as "… meeting of the needs of present tourists and host regions, while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future" (WTO 1998: 8). Even alternative tourism could become unsustainable, however, when "… penetration into host society is too intrusive, or when the local elite monopolizes the destination's tourism industry" (Weaver 1999: 797).

Tourism as Industry.

There is ongoing debate on whether or not tourism is an industry. Smith (1994) reviews this debate and presents a convincing case why tourism should be considered as an industry. He shows that tourism has a generic product and a production process, the prerequisites for an activity to be considered an industry. Consequently, we must consider tourism as an industry as well as an economic sector: *"...the constellation of businesses, public agencies, and non-profit organizations that create products to facilitate travel and activity for people away from their home environment are the basis for such a regard*" (Smith 1994: 592–593).

***The global tourism industry*.**

From this explanation, the tourism industry was the most remarkable economic and social phenomenon of the 20th century and it is expected to maintain that status throughout the 21st century (WTO 2000). According to WTO, global tourist numbers grew at an annual rate of 7% between 1950 and 1999, from 25 million to 664 million, and tourism activity spread out geographically from Europe to Asia, North Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean such that in 1950, only 15 countries received all the international tourist arrivals although this grew to 70 countries and territories by 1999. With the share of the top 15 falling from 100% to less than two-thirds, by 1999 worldwide tourism receipts were estimated at US$ 455 billion in current prices, and international fare receipts stood at US$ 93 billion accordingly.

The actual value of the tourism industry was much higher than this, however. In 1996, for instance, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) estimated the total economic value of goods and services attributable to tourism at US$ 3.6 trillion or 10.6% of the gross global product.

The economic importance of tourism is further demonstrated by the fact that it is one of the five top export sectors for 83% of all countries and the main source of foreign exchange for at least 38% of them. International tourism and fare receipts account for about 8% of the world's total export (goods and services) earnings, and for more than 10% (235 million) of world employment (WTO 2000). Tourism has great potential in poverty alleviation, considering that it is significant and/or growing in 11 out of the 12 countries in which 80% of the world's poor (those living on less than US$ 1 per day) live (Christie and Crompton, 2001).

The industry in sub-Sahara Africa.

The WTTC forecasts that tourism and travel in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), one of the poorest regions in the world, will grow at over 5% (in real terms) between 2001 and 2010 compared with 3% for the rest of the world. In SSA, employment in tourism and travel is also expected to grow fairly rapidly, at 3.4% annually, to account for nearly 7.5% of the region's total employment. Africa's tourism has been growing faster than global tourism. Over the 1985–1999 periods, for example, tourism in Africa grew at 7.5% annually compared with 5.2% globally. Africa's share of world tourism is still very low, however, standing at only 4% in 1999.

In Africa and the rest of the world growth in tourism has been spurred by a number of factors, including I) social factors that boost demand (growth in wealth and improvement in politics)[4], ii) technological development such as the jet plane that have made transport cheaper and more efficient, iii) development of hotel chains with consistent standards around the world, and iv) advances in information technology that have transformed marketing of tourism.

Some challenges to global tourism.

However, according to Butler et al, (1997) international tourism still faces numerous challenges, such as:

- control of air space by individual countries,
- Overcrowded airports,
- Inadequate comfort in aircraft, iii)
- Cumbersome customs and passport procedures,
- Vulnerability of the industry to external shocks such as economic recession, the performance of the US economy, oil prices, and political and other conflicts,
- Fierce competition for tourists,
- Environmental and socio-cultural threats,
- Failure to link tourism to the local economy, which could result in opposition to the activity,
- Upward pressure on the cost of living for the locals through increases in property value.
- And terrorism (Muyinga, 2016)

On top of the challenges above the role of tourism as a development tool, particularly in developing countries, has been cast into doubt by such problems as the industry's foreign domination and dependency, socio-economic and spatial polarization of the activity, environmental degradation, and cultural alienation or erosion of social control and identity of host communities (Brohman 1996).

The extent of these problems and the performance of the tourism industry in any given country are influenced to a large extent by the quality of the country's policies and their implementation. Policy quality, in turn, is largely determined by the presence or absence of a vision and comprehensive long-term strategy for the industry. Such a framework is important even for a sector dominated by private investment, like tourism, to guide the operations of private interests for the overall benefit of the country.

Because of the cross-sectoral and multifaceted nature of tourism, data relating to the sector are usually not complete. For instance, it is difficult to differentiate the products sold to tourists

[4] The income elasticity of demand for tourism in all developed countries is estimated to be greater than 1, but sometimes it is greater than 2 (English 1986).

and those sold to residents. Efforts geared towards addressing this problem are under way, however. In particular, a satellite accounting system to capture all activities that constitute tourism is being experimented with around the world.

In the following paragraphs, we discuss some important concepts of tourism, including its definition and scope, the nature of the tourism product and the economic impact of tourism, and present a simple model of sustainable tourism development.

The tourism product and production process.
What constitutes a tourism product is also an issue of enormous debate. While it is not the intention of this paper to plunge into the debate, it is worthwhile to note that the tourism product is a complex human experience with a number of elements, whose whole is, however, "… more than the sum of its parts" (Smith 1994: 588). Smith identifies five elements of the tourism product: I) the physical plant (the natural and built asset), that is, a site, a natural resource, a hotel, a resource like a waterfall or wildlife, a cruise ship, good weather, or others; ii) the service, that is, the performance of tasks required to satisfy the needs of the tourists; iii) hospitality, that is, the expression of welcome by the local residents that adds 'something extra' to the service; iv) the degree of freedom of choice for the tourist; and v) the involvement of the tourist in the production process.

In tourism the consumer is an integral part of the production process, since the final product, the experience, cannot be had without the consumer travelling to the point of production and converting the intermediate outputs (the services) into experiences (Smith 1994). The freedom of choice and involvement of the tourist transform the intermediate outputs into the final output.

In more concrete terms, the tourism product or experience consists of:
- The principal assets offered to tourists (sun, sea, sand, wildlife, mountains, rivers, lakes and other nature and scenic assets; monuments, old cities, local customs, song, dance, art, handicrafts, museums, and other cultural assets)
- Transport to and from the destination
- Hotels and other accommodation
- Restaurants and other types of food services
- Tour services that link the different components of a trip and other distribution agencies
- Banking, telecommunications, and other important services
- Physical security of the tourist
- Access to appropriate health services
- Attitudes and behavior of officials at the destination such as the police, and the customs, immigration, embassy and other officials who handle tourists, and general hospitality by all people at the destination
- Other tangible and intangible items such as pre-trip information in the tourists' home country, good interpretative material on the tourism assets, and innovative and creative composition of the tourist package

The success of this product in any part of the world depends upon the value added to the basic resource endowment, that is, how the resources are managed and packaged. This, in turn, is determined by the utilization of science, technology, information and innovation in developing the tourism product, and by establishing partnerships of the public and private sectors (Christie and Crompton 2001).

Ikiara et al (1994) argue in this vein that the quality for this product in Africa is not always easy to achieve on account of limitations of technology, human and physical infrastructure among other things. It is therefore incumbent on development planners to consider what other ingredients can be added to exploit its full flavour for the international visitor. This has included different approaches but with different consequences. Mostly the environment has borne the full brunt of any innovations with regard to tourism opportunities in Africa and other poor economies.

Economic impact of tourism.

The benefits often associated with the tourist product include foreign exchange earnings, contribution to the gross national product (GNP), tax revenue, employment of local labour, stimulation of demand for local products, [5] and development of remote areas and entrepreneurial skills (Mings, 1978; English 1986).

Beginning in the 1970s, however, tourism benefits, particularly in Africa, have come under increasing scrutiny because of a number of factors including the following: I) the substantial social and environmental costs accompanying the activity, ii) the leakage of tourism revenue, iii) the lack of strong linkages to the local economy, iv) the seasonality of employment, v) the reduced access to resources (labour, land, game, and other natural resources) by the local people without adequate compensation, vi) the increase in property and food prices associated with tourist demands, vii) the costs related to seasonality, such as low return on investment, and viii) the vulnerability of the industry to international market changes and domestic unrest.

According to Ikiara et al (1994) although the body of tourism literature is huge and growing at present there are no internationally accepted standards for measuring the economic impact of tourism although satellite accounts are a notable effort towards the development of uniform accounting measures.

Environmental impact of tourism.

Tourism has a tremendous impact on the environment which has both negative and positive elements particularly on account of its interaction with wild species and populations, which are highly sensitive to human disturbance (Williams, 1987). According to Cohen (1987) the magnitude of these effects is conditional on the magnitude of tourism development and use, resilience of the eco-system, long-term versus short- term tourism planning and the extent of the modification of the tourist site.

The Rio summit recognized that tourism places socio- economic value to wilderness (or natural resources in their original state), therefore justifying their conservation and protection against development. Ikiara et al (2000) cites examples of tourism’s crucial role in environmental conservation in these examples, inter alia:

- It has been estimated that in Ruaha National Park each lion or elephant herd is worth USD 27, 000 or USD 610,000 per year, respectively, in tourism revenue. This economic value motivates wildlife protection and conservation.
- Tourism in *Parc des Volcans* of Rwanda generates USD 1million annually, which is used to support the management of all protected areas in the country.
- Ecotourism promotes environmental health by providing environmental education to local people and by building consumer demand for environmental- friendly products and services.

[5] It was estimated, for example, that farmers and fishermen in Tanzania received about 9% of the total hotel receipts over the period 1966–1969 (English 1986).

- Tourism contributes to environmental conservation through improved environmental management and planning, for example through control of tourist activities and use of environment- friendly technology.

However, tourism has some adverse effects on the environment as well:

- Cutting down trees, especially when camping deforests areas and has environmental impacts (Nash, 2000). In Nepal for example, it is estimated that a trekking tourist uses 4-5 kilogram's of wood a day according to UNEP (20001).
- Improper garbage disposal by campers and other tourists leads to pollution and affects wildlife feeding behaviour.
- Transport emissions, for instance from airplanes are a serious source of pollution and affect wildlife feeding behaviour. Life- cycle analysis for instance has showed that the greatest impact of tourism comes from air-transport emissions (Muller, 1997), which have both local and global (warming) effects.
- Ozone- depleting substances generated by some of the equipment and products widely used in the tourism industry such as refrigerators, air- conditioning and propellants in aerosol cans are as dangerous as emissions from jet craft.
- Construction of structures of inappropriate design and size affects local landscape.
- Noise from transport affects the feeding and mating habits of wildlife, water and pollution harms their health.
- The presence of tourists in large numbers especially in some areas leads to resource strain and therefore environmental degradation. The hospitality industry overuses natural resources such as water, land, wood and in this manner impacts negatively on the physical environment. The table below summarizes some of the effects of tourism on different spheres of a community's life.

Global efforts to mitigate Environmental Impacts of Tourism.

All over the world there have been various response measures to counter environmental abuses from tourism. These measures have included*, inter alia:*

1. Establishment in the late 1940s of the world Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural resources to champion active.

2. Advocacy and Environmental policy development beginning late 1950s, by the international union of official Travel Organizations (IUTO) which became World Tourism Organization (WTO) in 1979. IUOTO policy on environmental was formulated during its 22nd General Assembly held in Ankara in 1971, and encompassed among other things:

- The need for integration of environmental protection in physical planning policies;
- A need to deal with policy issues with regard to tourism capital protection at a global level;
- Need for uniformity in national environmental planning and protection policy;
- Setting up of an inventory of tourism resources. Moreover, the policy sought to guide individual countries in their quest for managed resort development.

3. The establishment of an environmental committee by WTO and the holding of the World Tourism Conference (in Manila) in 1980. The conference Declaration formed part of the joint WTO/UNEP declaration of 1982 that was emphatic on the need for environmental protection for tourism, the role of Tourism management in environment and cultural health, the need for environmental and tourism management to be integrated into national policies and strategies, and the need for WTO and UNEP to promote integrated tourism and environmental development.

4. The UN earth summit of 1992 which produced Agenda 21, which requires the travel industry to increase recycling and reuse of residues, reduce waste, manage and protect waters, increase environmental awareness and establish worldwide policies.

5. The Conference on sustainable tourism in 1995 which produced a charter on sustainable tourism that calls on governments to draw action plans guided by agenda 21.

6. Joining of the WTO, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) and the Earth Council to produce a booklet titled '*Agenda 21 for travel and Tourism Industry'* which among other things encourages protection of human health and the environment, adjustment of the prices of goods and services to include the cost of recycling and /or proper waste disposal, and incorporation of voluntary plans to manage products and processes responsibly.

7. Holding of the United Nation's first meeting on Sustainable Tourism in April 1999, attended by the tourism industry, national and local governments, trade unions and activist groups which among other things made the following bold proposals;

- Airlines show in-flight videos to educate tourists about environmental and cultural sensitivities of their destinations
- Governments develop national strategies or master plans for sustainable tourism and work in partnership with the tourism industry and other things;
- The tourism industry continues with voluntary schemes such as the Green Globe;
- The results or impacts of such voluntary schemes be assessed through comprehensive surveys, and;
- Integrated of tourism into local government planning, and pilot communities be selected to gauge the results.

8. As a way of promoting ecotourism, which is now estimated to account for 7% of the Global Tourism Market, and as a reflection of the increasing support for eco-tourism, the UN declared 2002 the international year of Ecotourism.

In 1997 the WTTC successfully opposed a UN proposal to tax air travel to fund environmental protection, preferring instead for a self-regulation by the industry. This has been achieved in part through some initiatives such as:

- The Production by the inter- continental Hotels group of a 20-page environmental operations manual in 1991 that has a 134 check-list to evaluate conservation, waste management and air emissions, among other things. This policy by an award-winner in environmental protection is abased on the Reduce, reuse, recycle principle and encourages hotels and resorts to choose the methods that are the least damaging to the environment. On top the hotel chain has a six-point environmental committee statement: *To conserve natural resources, select products from environmentally responsive resources, minimize waste, acknowledge the difference regional needs, identify ways to participate in local environmental efforts and develop environmental awareness.*
- Founding of the International Hotels Environmental initiative (IHEI) which published a manual closely based on the inter-continental one.
- The establishment of an environmental certification Scheme, '*Green Globe',* backed by WTTC, whose application is increasingly being approved.
- The launching in 2000 of the 'Tour Operators' Initiative for Sustainable Tourism Development' which aims to heighten awareness of environmental issues relating to

tourism through concerted efforts by all the industry players. The initiative equips the players by various means such as holding conferences, workshops, regional and national working groups on Key issues of what it terms best practice in tourism which include the following;

-Responsible use of the natural resources such as land, soil, energy and water.
-Reducing, minimizing or preventing pollution and wastes.
-Maintaining or enhancing biodiversity through protecting plants, animals, eco-systems and sensitive areas.
-Maintaining or enhancing cultural diversity through protecting landscapes and cultural heritage.
-Respecting the integrity of local cultures.
-Cooperating with local communities and peoples.
-Utilizing local products and skills.
-Developing and implementing integrated planning and management of destinations to preserve their quality and future accessibility.

- Emergence of eco-tourism in the 1970s and its popularization in the late 1990s based on; Eco-tours; no-trace camping; advocacy for reduced transportation emissions; use of mass transportation, walking, cycling or horse-back riding in place of individual tourism; promotion of souvenirs and locally made products that do not damage the environment; increased park entry fees which limited the number of tourists within a set period; use of environmentally protective technology in all aspects of tourism, including pollution checks on the hotel and travel industry, and evaluation of new tourism projects on how they deal with waste disposal and related pollutants; training tourism personnel to be sensitive to heritage issues; self-regulation codes and ; voluntary impact and carrying- capacity studies.

Tourism development and challenges.
As it is widely acknowledged tourism at its best is an enriching experience[6]. But accompanied by bad policy and practice, it can turn into a disaster for the visitor, the place and the host community. Gunn (1994;83) aptly observes that: "Whereas some erosion and pollution of resources is caused by great numbers of visitors, most environmental damage is caused by lack of plans, policies, and action to prepare for any economic growth…Tourism cannot be blamed for environmental deterioration caused by bad decisions rather than real visitor impacts". For this matter, managed tourism is at the interface of policy and practical considerations for a healthy impact between the visitors and the local community social, political and environmental concerns.

According to Ikiara *et al* (1994) tourism development hinges on primary and secondary factors. The former, which are the main determinants of whether tourists will visit a given destination, are the attractions themselves, such as unique animal and plant species; physical features like beautiful beaches, mountains, lakes, and rivers; legendary manmade or natural features; pleasant climate; and unique culture. The latter are mainly infrastructure and other facilities developed to facilitate tourism, such as protection and development of tourist sites; conservation of nature in national parks and reserves; establishment of museums; provision of infrastructure such as roads, hotels, water, campsites and other services; and marketing of tourism products. Media, advertising and information technology in general are crucial inputs

[6] According to Gunn (1994), it can benefit the heritage and other sites, and provide employment, income and other benefits for the host community.

in marketing, and do influence the tourists' knowledge of and desire to visit a destination.

Accordingly, policy has little influence on primary factors, but has a marked role in the development of secondary factors. For instance, a unique natural resource is of no value to tourists if the facilities and infrastructure necessary for its exploitation are not availed. For this matter, an important criterion by which tourism policy should be appraised is by evaluating its contribution to the development of the secondary factors required to support the primary factors (Alderman, 1994). Likewise, tourism policy should be appraised on the basis of its contribution to sustainability. It is widely acknowledged now that tourism performance is heavily affected by a host of imperatives including political and economic stability as well as integration of socio-cultural and environmental issues into strategies for sustainable tourism, formulation of policies to promote sustainable tourism growth, and development of tourism as an apparatus for environmental protection.

Sustainability and Tourism Development
Development is a complicated term about which to draw a definite consensus on its meaning. In the opinion of Friedman[7] it is 'one of the most slippery terms in our tongue'. Nonetheless, as Murphy (1994:275), Suzuki (1993; 123) and Smith (1977; 203) point out '*the meaning of development has come to be equated with material consumption and accumulation of economic gains'* much to the detriment of true economic, social and political and especially environmental enjoyment.

The concept of sustainable development was introduced by the World Commission on Environment and development (WCED) in 1987 in the document 'Our *common Future'*, which argued that current economic development should be realized taking the economic possibilities of coming generations into account. This implies that the external environmental costs of production and consumption can no longer be shifted onto coming generations.

Since *Our common future* a lot of tourism literature has focused on the principles and practice of sustainable tourism development so much that sustainability has become an everyday buzz-word that is least understood perhaps because its implications are currently being subsumed by the loud echoes of 'rights', 'fairness', 'relief', 'debt cancellations' etc. Because of these perceptions Hunter argued in 1987 that 'the term sustainable tourism has come to represent and encompass a set of principles, policy prescriptions, and management methods' whereby it has almost become an association of under-privilege' and become most misunderstood in spite of its existence for a long time.

Generally, sustainability is taken to mean *the existence of the ecological conditions necessary to support life at a specified level of wellbeing through future generations* (Lele, 1991: 609). This involves three things as Beaumont *et al* (1993) opine:

- Not using non-renewable resources faster than renewable substitutes can be found for them;
- Not releasing pollutants faster than the bios[here can process them to be harmless;
- Not using renewable resources faster they can be replenished.

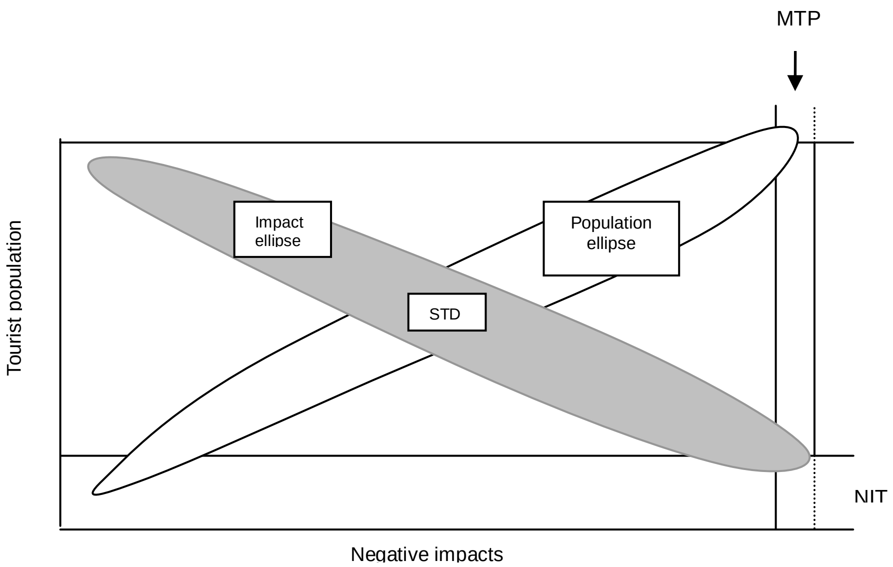
To the ecological factors above scholars[8] have added *social factors* that directly influence

[7] Cited in Hall (1995: 20).
[8] See for instance Dutton and Hall, 1989.Making Tourism Sustainable: The Policy/ Practice Conundrum. *Proceedings of the Institute of Australia National Conference. Melbourne.* October.

how sustainable or otherwise the interaction is between a given society and its physical environment.

In this context sustainable development has come to be viewed as ‘a form of managed economic growth that occurs within the context of environmental stewardship’ according to Dutton and et al (1989) the idea being that such stewardship is to pass to antiquity a stock of natural resources no less in quality and quantity than are being enjoyed by the present generation. Tourism stewardship is a reflection of the fact that there is no ‘zero-impact’ tourism as we have noted above.

***The Lawrence model*.**
As the figure below illustrates as tourism activity expands (through an increase in tourist population) social, cultural and environmental costs (such as crime, prostitution, cultural dislocation, pollution, and biodiversity loss) increase, particularly once the carrying capacity[9] of the destination is exceeded. If growth continues beyond the carrying capacity (or the maximum tourist population threshold**, MTP**), the destination is perceived as overcrowded and as having negative social and environmental impacts, initiating a decline in its visitation rate. The decline continues until another threshold level (the negative impact turnaround, **NIT**) is reached, at which point environmental and social damages begin to appear.[10]



Source: Lawrence (1994).
With sustainable tourism development, tourist numbers or tourism activity is not allowed to reach the threshold level (**MTP**) beyond which arrivals begin to decline. This is shown as **STD** on the figure above- the region where tourist

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[9] Matheson and Wall (1992: 2), quoted in Lawrence (1994), define the carrying capacity of a destination as the maximum number of people who can use a site without causing an unacceptable decline in the experience gained from it.

[10] As shown in the figure, recovery comes after a lag, since time is required for environmental regeneration and for socio-cultural changes to take place. The commercial response of the tourist industry to the decline may lengthen the lag. The industry usually responds to the decline by competing for available tourist expenditure through heavy discounts, especially when there is overcapacity. This attracts a cheaper class of tourists, leads to quality deterioration, and delays recovery.

Population and impact ellipses[11] meet. It should be noted, however, that the turning points and the carrying capacity are not static, as they can be varied by investment in direct and supporting infrastructure.

A notable limitation of this model especially as tool for analyzing third world tourism development is that measurement difficulties (especially for carrying capacity and social-environmental impacts) reduce its utility as a practical tourism-management tool. It is an uphill task for instance to obtain an exact measurement for a carrying capacity of an eco-system which is more or less unstable - such as a national reserve where biodiversity is dependent on the migratory habits of wildlife, and the interdependence between local population and the flora. Taking an example of our Case Study of Tungamalenga Cutural tourism project near Ruaha National Park managed by a local called Chogela who also managed Chogela camp , it is uncertain what the real carrying capacity is as this fluctuates between parcels of land that the project has fenced in and the open fields where the local community can readily exploit the plants and game and even then the game move across the Southern circuit plain and across hundreds of miles at different seasons and only display stable behaviour in the dry seasons when they need watering holes near the projects.

Nevertheless, the model is useful to policy-makers and tourism managers in delineating tourism policy trade-offs. In fact, simple carrying-capacity indicators developed by stakeholders are practical tools for maintaining the balance between development and conservation, for benchmarking change and its causes as early-warning systems, and for indicating thresholds beyond which further planning is required (Christie and Crompton 2001). In the study contacted by the author at RUNAPA in 2013, it revealed that visitors are attracted to the park and thereafter are referred to partake on a cultural tour of the villages to experience Iringa but the majority of them are not aware of that offer before arriving.

Ideal tourism.

The primary concern of sustainable development as far as tourism is concerned is, as we have noted, the carrying capacity of the environment, normally in terms of the physical environment, and what has been regarded as overuse of that environment. *The World Conservation Strategy* (IUCN, 1980) lay the basis for the fundamental message of the *Brundtland Commission* (1987), namely, that development and conservation were both necessary principles on which the future pattern of human progress should be tailored. Henceforth, development should be an integrated activity that reflected ecological and human processes and requirements (Butler, 1998). This call for sustainable development according to Butler[12], contains two additional elements that had not been explicit in the earlier discussions on wise use of resources, namely *ethics* and *equity*.

As a necessary corollary it is worthy emphasizing that Butler has distinguished sustainable tourism development from sustainable tourism. The object of this research is the former. While the latter is an inherently good thing researchers such as Owen (1993); Murphy (1994); Harris and Leiper (1995); Munt (1998) and Tosun (1998) who have reviewed both concepts have identified the former as the goal that should be urgently addressed by policy and literature on the third world. According to Tosun (1996) sustainable tourism development encompasses the following principles:

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[11] The relationships between the tourist population and negative impacts are shown as ellipses because of their non-linear and uncertain nature.

[12] Butler argues that these two elements have perilously received little attention as far as tourism planning and development are concerned.

- It should contribute to the satisfaction of basic and felt needs of those who were hitherto excluded in local tourist destinations.
- It should reduce inequality and absolute poverty in local tourist destinations.
- It should accelerate not only national economic growth, but also regional and local economic growth. Such growth should be equitably shared across the spectrum.
- Its benefit or pursuit should not undermine the welfare of future generations.
- It should contribute to emergence of necessary conditions in tourist destinations which will lead to local people to gain self-esteem and free from the evils of want, ignorance and squalor.

***Sustainable Tourism Development in the third world: the Policy- Practice Conundrum*.**
The greatest challenge to the third world has been to obtain the principles by Tosun above to tourism development. As an economic and social activity tourism has specific activities which can tend to predispose it to adverse impacts on the social, economic, environmental and other resources. Because unlike other trades consumers have to travel to the commodity in tourism it is a highly conspicuous and intrusive activity that can be hard to control. Tourism is also a diverse, multi-faceted industry and seasonal meaning the impacts can be concentrated to specific places and seasons (Mcketcher, 1993). There is increasing need to determine the acceptable and unacceptable limits to change and also to minimise the disbenefits to maximise benefits of tourism in relation to resources of all kinds in the third world.

In Tanzania for example, tourism depends upon local communities' stock of natural, constructed and social- cultural endowments which are used for satisfaction of visitor needs, material and spiritual. For sustainable development of these resources to occur they must be managed in a manner that gives way for economic gain in the industry without eroding or undermining cultural integrity, biological diversity and life- support systems.

Since its introduction in 1987 the concept of sustainable development has received more endorsement and enthusiasm than any other concept in present day planning and development. However, as Kirkby et al (1995) points out with regard to the third world there are doubts about how strong that support is: that overall sympathy for the goals of the concept has not translated into acceptance of costs and sacrifices that actual application entails.

According to Blowers (1993) adoption of the principles of sustainable development to tourism has been rapid but the actual implementation of the practice has been limited to a few overly celebrated initiatives at the international, national, industry level:

- Member codes of environmental practice.
- Government- committee participation in issues relating to environmental matters
- Commissioning, or direct undertaking of, research on the socio- cultural and physical impacts of tourism
- Development of guidelines and travel codes for visitors to minimize disruption of physical and cultural environments
- Development of implementation schemes designed to encourage members to adopt environmentally acceptable practices (e.g. the world Travel and Tourism Council's Green Globe programme, among others).

Mirroring the concerns of Kirkby et al Butler (1991; 57) offers the following summation:

> *In the third world in particular while sustainable development and sustainable tourism may be officially promoted, rarely is more than lip service paid to the application of the concept, especially where this would involve reducing the numbers of tourists, or more importantly the tourist spend and employment generated. The overwhelming*

appeal of sustainable concepts lies in the generality of the concept and the fact that the true costs of the implementation have not bee spelt out. Where the costs are perceived to be a reduction in development, and tourism in terms, fewer tourists, less employment and reduced income, then the concept is not supported enthusiastically, or is interpreted in terms of purely economic sustainability, which means that the primary concern is with maintaining the long-term viability of the economy of the region being concerned, rather than the viability of the physical and social environments. In areas that currently experience low incomes, overpopulation and resource scarcity such mundane concerns as survival perhaps deserve more consideration….than an overly moralistic doctrine from a developed world.

For the third world, particularly Tanzania, the goals of sustainable tourism are holistic goals that have proved hard to maintain given the increasing level of tourist flow and the rising demands that accompany this at a national and international level. However, as it has been identified by scholars, while these difficulties persist with regard to mass tourism, an alternative- micro-level tourism- can be sensitively planned for and managed.

Jones (1992; 103) supports this contention by arguing that a number of clues and solutions can be found at this level that can be applied to the development and management of mass tourism. When all is said and done the manner in which tourism is developed in the developing world such as Tanzania has primacy because it not only determines the net gains for the country from the enterprise but also how sustainable those benefits become (Cohen, 1978). The concept of sustainable tourism development when applied to poor countries must spell out the warning that there is not, because there cannot be, 'zero-impact' on tourism.
Given that tourism development is accompanied by environmental and social change, 'those who must live with the change should be the ones to set the maximum level of change allowed' (Lawrence 1994). In other words ideal tourism for these countries must be that which is culturally, environmentally and socially, sustainable.

To conclude to the above, Cultural Tourism development in Tanzania has been a big success to our country to date and has been seen as a sustainable tourism development tool however proper policy and management is a priority for its sustainability. TTB through its Cultural Tourism Programme (TTB-CTP) has come a long way in promoting the country's rich cultural diversity. In recent years there has been an increasing demand for cultural tourism by travellers visiting Tanzania in almost all parts of the country. Specifically, Southern Tanzania inhabits tribes such as the Makonde which are known throughout the world just by their carving products. Besides Makonde there are other interesting cultures which are much less known such as the Matengo, the Hehe, the Ngoni, the Bena and Nyakyusa. These cultures are also part of the Tanzanian history and they live world-class cultural heritage sites with international recognition such as the ruins of Kiwa kisiwani & Songo Mnara in Lindi region, Isimila Age stone site in Iringa region and Germany Fort in Newala in Mtwara region, just to mention a few. Knowledge about their way of living have been telling volumes and have informed us more about older organisational structures, use of herbal medicine or norms and values in present day society in Tanzania.

The CTP coordinator at TTB Arusha Branch by Elly Maturo stated that, in the year 2010, TTB in collaboration with MNRT-Tourism Division conducted two major training for community-based cultural tourism enterprise development and management to local people of Southern Tanzania. The first training of over 25 participants was held in Mtwara with participants from Mtwara and Lindi regions while the second training was conducted two weeks later in Mbeya with participants coming from Mbeya, Iringa, Njombe and Ruvuma regions. Some of the trained participants managed to establish and enhance their CTE operational standards. TTB has managed to secure business for these CTEs which are off the beaten track and some international travel agents with incentive travel packages visiting these rural sites with authentic cultural encounters. Some of supporting agents are like World Challenge (UK), African Expeditions (UK & Germany), Outlook Exp (UK), Ana kwa Ana e.t.c. Currently TTB has the following running CTEs in Southern Tanzania;

1. Sisi kwa Sisi CTE-Mbeya

http://sisi-kwa-sisi.com/services.html

2. Uyole CTE-Mbeya

http://uyolecte.blogspot.com/ and https://envaya.org/uyolecte12

3. Liuli-Pomonda CTE-Ruvuma

https://www.facebook.com/Pomonda-Raha-Eco-Camp-641628912572109/

4. Kilwa Island Tours

http://www.tanzaniatourism.com/en/destination/kilwa-kisiwani
http://kilwatourism.com/

5. Chilunga CTE-Morogoro

http://www.chilunga.or.tz/index.php/our-tours/cultural-tours/

Apart from these enterprises, we have a number of new requests that are still supported by the Cultural Tourism Programme team and are at different levels of development. These are; Ruaha Cultural Tourism Initiative (CTI)-Iringa rural, Iringa CTI-Iringa Municipality, Mufindi CTI-Iringa region, Songea CTI-Ruvuma region, Namtumbo CTI-Ruvuma region, Macuto CTI Mtwara region, Rufiji Delta (Lindi region) and Mahove CTI-Iringa rural just to mention a few. The above reference proves that, there is potential for the registering and establishment of more CTPs in the near future.

TTB has supported development of an eco-tourism project proposal for Uluguru Mountains that was funded by UNWTO through its just ended ST-EP programme. In this project TTB worked with SNV and Chilunga Nature Conservators- an NGO managing the Chilunga CTE from application, implementation and monitoring of the project that benefited hundreds of poor local people and the entire biodiversity of Uluguru Mountains. On the other hand TTB have been supporting cross-learning programmes CTIs from Southern Tanzania to the Northern part of Tanzania where CT has moved some miles ahead. On the same mission CTIs have been sponsored to participate in the Karibu Travel and Tourism fair for a couple of years where they meet suppliers and buyers of the tourism industry in Tanzania. Very little have been done in researching the TZ Cultural tourism in Tanzania however the author has reviewed papers only published on Kilimanjaro region which represents the Northern Circuit. Authors by the name Wineaster Anderson and Noel Salazar have been able to do extensive research work in the Kilimanjaro region.

TTB is currently surveying on willingness to pay for CT products and Community development fund charged per visitor to furnish social projects in rural Tanzania

Research methods

This is a qualitative study, guided by grounded theory approach (Bryant & Charmaz, 2007), whereby descriptive research leads to the development of more meaningful theory and measures. It critically analyses how well the generally accepted CBT principles, as outlined above, resonate with reality on the ground. The findings presented here are part of a long term anthropological study on tourism in Southern Tanzania (Muyinga, 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016). Ethnographic fieldwork was carried out over a period of 6 months Jan – June 2013, focusing on the Iringa Region and in particular the CTPs around Ruaha National Park. The methodology used, distinctively (though not uniquely) anthropological, involved mixed methods. A major part of the fieldwork consisted of extensive observation. As an observer, countless hours were spent socializing with local tour guides in Tungamalenga village and informally talking to Chogela on the involvement of women as the backbone of our economy (and this in the communities). Several pages of field notes were recorded. The second – most important source of data was interview. In depth interviews were conducted and recorded with Chogela camp guides, along with semi – structured interviews with RUNAPA community based out reach coordinator, local tour operators in Iringa, and the TTB representative of Iringa.

Most of the interviewed guides agreed to fill in a questionnaire that collected basic demographic information and data on their education, guiding, tour preparation and information resources, travel experience, hobbies and the use of new information and communication technologies. However supplementary data were gathered from tourists by informally chatting with them during their safari experiences at the tented camps near by RUNAPA. In all instances of data collection, the author was identified as a native Tanzanian researcher from China by TAWIRI. All primary data (field notes, interviews transcripts) were interpreted with the help of ATLAS, a software package for qualitative data analysis based on the principles of grounded theory (Muhr, 2004). Extensive background literature research was carried out at various libraries: the Zhejiang University, RUNAPA library in Msembe and the University of Dar es Salaam, the Economic and Social Research Foundation, Research on Poverty Alleviation.

In addition, the African collections of the African Centre at Zhejiang Normal University in Jinhua city, China. Tapping into various literatures – on anthropology and ethnography, tourism and travel and Tanzania- might have been time consuming, but it allowed the making of theoretical and conceptual connections that would otherwise never have been made. This research is kept up to date through the assistant in Ruaha and by local contacts in Tanzania by using e mail, Whats app and short text messages (SMS) since the author's return to China.

Conclusion

The only way to overcome this type of situations is to be realistic when planning CBT, taking into account the operational, structural and cultural limits to community participation (Tosun, 2000). Local – level participation is essential for achieving the global goal of sustainable development. However such involvement often involves a shift of power from local authorities to local actors. Moreover, real consensus and true local control is not always possible, practical or even desired by some of the communities that develop CBT. Planners need insight in this complex web of shifting power relations as well as in the ways different stakeholders imagine CBT. There is clearly a need for fundamental education and training in target communities to accompany tourism development. This is revealed in the actual numbers of CTPs registered in the Southern Circuit in comparison to the Northern circuit. Local communities must develop strategies for receiving and interacting with tourists as well as displaying themselves and their visible culture (Reid, 2002). This involves finding the right balance between economic gain and cultural integrity. This paper seeks to stress the key importance of local tour guides in CBT, especially when cultural tourism products are being developed that tourism planning is very important in poverty alleviation. Because of the communicative power of tourism, representations of cultural heritage have direct and potential significant influences on the peoples and communities who are being presented, represented and misrepresented. Any sustainable CBT program wishing to achieve sustainable success needs tour guides who are well trained and, if possible, local. It has been found out that if guides belong to the community in which the tourism activities are taking place, their insider positionality at least gives them the advantage of knowing what the cultural sesibilities are This helps to avoid some of the problems which arise during their job. Indeed professional training of guides in Iringa is needed, not only to improve guiding and hospitality skilss, but also to make guides aware of the comples ethical dilemmas, ushc as disjunctures between local conceptions of community and the ways in which those communities are imagined by visiting tourists. Luven 2012, an anthropologist specialising in tourism stated that can play tourism can be a pivotal role in these programs (Salazar, 2010). Training as such may be enough to tackle all problems, but certainly helps tour guides to take better – informed principled decisions about guiding tourists.

The challenge remains to develop forms of tourism that are acceptable to the various interest groups within the communities and that are at the same time economically viable and environmental sustainable. Professional trained local guides, provided they receive enough incentives for their work (so that they remain motivated to stay), are one of the key elements to achieve sustainable CBT.

Tourism activities can affect poverty alleviation positively or negatively. Positive contributions may be registered through employment creation, income generation, and increased asset ownership, contribution to basic needs and contributions to community benefits. However, together with benefits, linkages and multipliers, tourist, effects may result in some costs or negative impacts. These may be seen through environmental problems, cultural pollution, immoral behaviour and conflicts with other socio economic activities.

Further research work arising from this study could possibly examine the following issues: an application of more quantitative methods to analyse the economic impact of CTPs, investigating the magnitude of leakages from tourism so as to find out how these can be minimized in order that a country and local participants mainly women in rural areas could increase their earnings from tourism and subsequently alleviate poverty, study size and implications employment and income multipliers in tourism, study of potential and avenues for economic diversification in areas of this study and finally the promotion of domestic tourism.

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Apf1687 Ode to Joy: Sound that Alters Perceptions of Birdwatching as a Leisure Pursuit

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Abstract

The way we experience the world depends on a number of physical senses working together. People are exposed to an affective assemblage of visual, auditory, olfactory, tactical, and gustatory stimulations that shape memories. These sensory stimulations create “an emotional, physical, intellectual, or even spiritual engagement” (Pine and Gilmore, 1999). Of the senses, the visual achieved its pride of place since “treatises on travel methods shifted from a scholastic focus upon touring as an opportunity for discourse, to enthusiasm for travel as eyewitness observation” (Adler, 1989,), i.e., sight-seeing. The longstanding association between activity and vision results in “the tyranny of the visual” (Tribe and Airey, 2007) and a lack of understanding on sound stimulations in recreation/tourism practice and research. More studies should pay attention to the ear and listening.

Birdwatching is a popular outdoor recreational activity. Serious birdwatchers, or birders, “launch themselves on a career centered on acquiring and expressing its special skills, knowledge, and experience” (Stebbins, 1982). Serious birders would make significant personal efforts, invest financially in birding equipment, form a distinctive personal and group identity, and advocate for the pursuit (Tsaur and Liang, 2008). Leisure activities, including birding, may be explained by brand personality, defined as a set of human characteristics associated with a brand (Aaker, 1997). Consumers tend to manifest their self-image by purchasing a specific product or brand. Self-congruity refers to the congruence between the self-image of consumers and the image of a brand (Sirgy, 1982). The higher the congruence level, the higher intention the consumer has to purchase the product. As consumers display their self-image through purchase and consumption of a product over another, birder also express their identity through participating in birdwatching over other activities.The theory of sound symbolism refers to the direct linkage between individual sounds and meaning (Sapir, 1929). Voice pitch is an important influencer of listeners’ impression and responses to a speaker (Ohala, 1985). To a human and an animal alike, a lower-pitched vocalization is perceived as aggressive and threatening, whereas the message of a higher-pitched sound is absence of threat and submission (Morton, 1977).

This study is designed to explore the brand personality of birdwatching as a leisure activity, and to examine the effect of sound on birding brand personality. The following hypotheses will be tested: (H1) The greater the congruence between a person’s self-image and birding brand personality, the more he/she is willing to participate in birding and to introduce birding to others; (H2) The intervention of sound-stimulation has a positive influence on birding brand personality.Studies conducted in casinos (Noseworthy and Finlay, 2009), restaurants (Novak et al, 2010), and retail stores (Millimam, 1982) showed that ambient sound does serve as a useful stimuli to influence visitors’ mood, behavior intention, and repeat purchase. As outdoor recreation and nature-based tourism become popular, adding insights to the role of sound in place image and participant experience is needed. Birdwatching, involving

participants visually and auditory, is exemplary. More understanding of the sensory dimension could add new knowledge to serious leisure, e.g., frequent participation, self-identification, and leisure advocacy.

A two-group experimental design is applied to achieve the research goals. A focus group meeting with experienced of birders will generate a list of 10 personality items for birding as a brand, and 10 additional personality items for birdwatchers as an alternative brand personality measure. The focus group members are an Audubon Society birders participating in a birdwatching tour at a national park in the U.S. The meeting will be conducted during the months of March in 2016 when songbirds return in early spring. A questionnaire survey including the birding brand personality items will be administered to a group of university students in March and April. The participants will be divided into a control group and an experimental group. In the first stage, participants in both groups will complete the pre-test survey. In the second stage, an intervention will be employed, to be followed by a post-test. The intervention is a piece of recording of chestnut-backed antbird's soprano, pure tone-like sounds (Willis and Oniki, 1972), played only to the experimental group. After the sound stimulation being played, the post-test will be conducted on the experimental group.

The pre-test includes a measurement of birdwatching brand personality (birding BP) and participants' self-image/brand personality (SI/BP) congruity, and a measurement of birder personality and participants' self-image/birder image (SI/BI) congruity. The post-test includes three parts: measurement of birding BP and participant's SI/BP congruity, measurement of birder image and participants' SI/BI congruity, and future intentions for birding. Intervention and post-test will be conducted to the experimental groups one week after the pre-test. Four types of analysis will be performed, which are correlation (Pearson *r*), dependent *t*-test, descriptive analysis, and one-way ANOVA.

A complete study including research findings and discussion will be presented at the conference. If the intervention of sound as a sensory stimulation will change people's perceptions of birding, it may imply that sound plays an important role in the experience of other leisure activities. It could be possible that, in an indoor setting such as a museum, a hotel, or a restaurant, sound is a mood manipulator and a travel memory builder. This research sets a stage for further investigation in tourism studies looking into the effects of sound stimulation on visitor perceptions.

Apf1688 Chinese Tourists "Behaving Badly"– the Origin and Presence of a Negative Discourse

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Abstract

This study uses content and discourse analysis to investigate the current negative discourse relating to Chinese tourists. It aims to examine where the negative discourse originates, how it is present in Chinese and English language media respectively, and whether other factors have assisted in its proliferation. The top five newspapers in Australia, USA, UK and China are systematically analyzed, supported by an explorative internet search for the origin of the negative discourse. The study shows that the established media channels are not the main cause for the negative discourse, although they play a role in its proliferation. The origin of the discourse is in online communities, and is strengthened by a lack of division between culturally grounded behavior and more extreme one-off instances. Based on the study, the researchers call upon people in power to exhibit greater discursive sensitivity when addressing the behavior of Chinese tourists in public.

Keywords: China, Chinese, Behavior, Discourse, Tourism

Apf1689 The Influence of Relational Benefits on Customer Perception of Value, Satisfaction, and Loyalty in the Foodservice of University Students in Beijing, China

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Abstract

This study was performed to analyze the effect of relational benefits on perceived value, customer satisfaction and loyalty in order to enhance customer satisfaction and loyalty in the university foodservice establishments. A statistical analysis of the 619 surveys was conducted using SPSS (ver. 20.0) and structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed using the AMOS (ver. 5.0) statistics package. As the result of SEM, the measurement model was found to fit the data well, according to the goodness-of-fit indices (χ^2=1000.661, *df*=321, GFI= 0.860, RMSEA=0.069, CFI=0.904, NFI=0.886). To sum up, confidence benefits and special treatment benefits among the relational benefits have a direct effect on perceived value and customer satisfaction. Also, they have an indirect effect on customer satisfaction and loyalty through perceived value. However, social benefits of customers had no effect on functional value, symbolic value, and customer satisfaction.

Keywords: relational benefits, perceived value, customer satisfaction, structural equation modeling, university foodservice establishment

Apfu01 Residents' Attitudes towards Macao's Gastronomic Tourism Development

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Abstract

Nowadays, gastronomic tourism is gaining in popularity as a form of special interest tourism. The present study explores the residents' attitudes towards the development of gastronomic tourism in Macao. Loss of authenticity, food-type threats, food souvenirs, and benefits of the gastronomic industry are the four aspects which are highlighted in understanding their attitudes in this study. This qualitative study uses in-depth semi-structured interviews in order to collect and synthesize the interviewees' attitudes. The results show that the interview participants had positive overall attitudes towards the development of gastronomic tourism in Macao. In specific, respondents showed agreement on the benefits and potential issues associated with the gastronomic tourism development. One of the main concerns highlighted was the fear for closure of family-run restaurants. All of the interviewees agreed on the development and the potential for food souvenirs in Macao. Also, the participants highlighted the benefits of gastronomic tourism in that it can increase the revenue of the tourism industry as well as the tourists' lengths of stay in Macao.

Keywords: Gastronomic tourism, Macao, Residents' attitudes

Apfu03 Barriers and Facilitators to Event Greening Practices within the Corporate Sphere

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Abstract

This study explored the barriers and facilitators to event greening within the corporate sphere, attempting to reveal factors which expedite and impede event greening. A case-study approach was utilised by interviewing six members of staff of a UK corporate event organisation. Although many barriers were present, potential facilitators were also uncovered. A lack of management support and formal policies as well as knowledge and resources acted as barriers to corporate event greening within the case-study organisation. Financial resources were also a facilitator, together with clients and temporal changes, therefore more barriers than facilitators were discovered. Many barriers were interconnected, appearing to stem from a short-term cost-benefit perspective. Recommendations for practice and for research are suggested.

Keywords: Barriers, Facilitators, Greening, Corporate events, Business events

Introduction

This research focuses on barriers and facilitators to greening within the corporate event industry. A barrier is anything which prevents, obstructs, or impedes while a facilitator is anything which assists, supports, or expedites. Event greening refers to the process of planning and running events in an environmentally friendly manner; reducing the resulting environmental impacts (Mair and Jago 2010). The realisation of the substantial potential negative environmental impacts of events has led to a drive towards greener practices. Event greening standards have become more apparent in recent years, evidenced in Britain by the development of BS:8901 in 2007, the first British Standard regarding event greening. Subsequently, an International Standard, ISO:20121, was created in 2012, illustrating the growing importance of, and interest in, green events.

Getz (2007) defines corporates events as any event produced for or by a corporation. This broad definition allows for the inclusion of the wide variety of corporate events, including conventions, meetings, conferences, award shows, and exhibitions. Corporate events account for the largest and fastest growing section of the event industry (O'Toole 2011). The international corporate event market is worth $357.5 billion each year; in the UK corporate events are worth nearly £20 billion annually to the economy, accounting for 57% of all events held in 2011 (Mintel 2012). Within corporate events, a drive for greening is often included within the environmental component of a Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) policy (Jones 2010). CSR policies often stipulate environmental requirements for suppliers (Dahlsrud 2008) and within the corporate event industry, this may mean an organisation would hire an event organisation which had environmental policies in place. CSR policies are becoming increasingly prevalent (Ouwens 2015), suggesting a shift towards more environmentally responsible operating. This increase in organisational environmental awareness is matched by event professionals who are increasingly interested in the environmental impacts of events (Laing and Frost 2010).

Despite the growing nature of the field, research into green issues is lacking within the events literature (Laing and Frost 2010). This study intends to add to the body of knowledge by exploring corporate events as other event genres, such as festivals, have received more attention (Jones 2010). Research into the environmental impacts of festivals led to more festivals implementing greening (Mair and Laing 2012). However the industry is a varied sector and the type of greening that is relevant for some event genres is not necessarily relevant to others (Dickson and Arcodia 2010). Differentiated information attempting to discover environmental differences and similarities of non-homogenous event genres is needed (Dickson and Arcodia 2010). Increasing emphasis is being placed on organisations to 'green' their events (Jones 2010), therefore exploring the barriers and facilitators to event greening as perceived by corporate event industry professionals is crucial to the advancement of greener events.

Literature Review

Approaches to Studying Barriers and Facilitators to Greening

The study of barriers and facilitators to greening has been approached in several ways. Some authors focus on psychological aspects (Gifford, 2011), structural aspects (Stern 1999), or demographic aspects (Liu et al. 2014). Psychological aspects include knowledge, motivation, and social norms. Structural aspects include physical facilities such as transport. Demographic aspects include age, gender, and education. One psychological approach utilised in understanding green behaviour is goal theory. Unsworth et al. (2013) utilises goal-theory to explain why organisations may not undertake greening; focal goals, such as conserving finances, are central and the goal of greening is lower within the goal hierarchy. Studies have employed a cost-benefit approach to understanding greening, assuming that individuals and organisations make reasoned choices, selecting options with the lowest cost and highest benefit (Steg and Vlek 2009). Costs and benefits can be psychological, such as the social approval associated with green behaviours, or structural factors, such as public transport links.

Prior to analysing barriers and facilitators to greening within organisations and events, barriers and facilitators to green behaviour within individuals will be assessed. Tudor et al. (2008) shows those who undertake green behaviours at home are more likely to do so at work, highlighting the importance of assessing individual factors influencing greening.

Individual Greening

As noted in the introduction, individual factors affecting individual greening can be grouped into psychological, structural and demographic. With regards to psychological factors, research suggests that although most individuals exhibit at least some level of environmental concern, frequently this does not translate into behaviour (Kollmuss and Agyeman 2002). Gifford (2011) posits psychological factors as the predominate reason for this discrepancy; developing a taxonomy of seven *"dragons of inaction"* (p. 290), which have been consolidated by Craddock et al. (2012) into five 'dragons': limited cognition, ideology, social comparison, perceived risk and limited behaviour. Motivation can also influence individual greening. De Young (1996) argues that intrinsic motivation has a significant role in greening behaviours; a personal interest in greening leading to increased intrinsic motivation to undertake greening. Additionally, De Young (1996) states intrinsically motivated green behaviours provide satisfaction and this satisfaction facilitates future green behaviours. Extrinsic motivation can also facilitate greening behaviours (Pelletier et al. 1998). However, de Groot and Steg (2010) only found extrinsic motivation to be effective in motivating behaviours perceived to be simple and low-cost, such as recycling.

Although psychological factors undoubtedly influence individual greening, human behaviour is not solely driven by such factors. Many external structural factors also influence individual greening behaviours (Stern 1999). Often, greening behaviours are only possible when necessary structural factors, such as recycling and public transport, are in place (Kollmuss and Agyeman 2002). When attempting to understand the differing levels of greening undertaken, many studies have focused on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, and education (e.g. e.g. Dietz et al., 1998; Liu et al. 2014.

Organisational Greening

A review of the literature identified four factors influencing Organisational Greening (OG): Resources, management support, policy and knowledge. These can act as both a barriers and facilitators to OG.

Resources, including time, money, and physical resources, have been identified as factors which may influence OG. Several authors have illustrated that organisations perceive greening to be a costly undertaking, thus are unwilling to expend resources doing so (Revell and Blackburn 2007; Gaspar 2013). However the desire for cost-reductions and profit increases, achieved through reducing physical resource usage and waste output, appear to act as a facilitator of OG (Studer et al. 2006, Dilchert and Ones 2012). Management support is frequently cited as an aspect which can influence OG. Lindgreen et al. (2009) states management support for OG corresponds with the level of greening an organisation undertakes. Reinforcing this, other authors have also view management support and commitment as essential in order for an organisation to undertake and maintain OG (Dilchert and Ones, 2012; Zibarras and Ballinger, 2012.

Environmental policies, one of the most common environmental initiative undertaken by organisations (Zibarras and Ballinger, 2012), can facilitate OG when clearly stated (Harris and Crane, 2002; Dilchert and Ones, 2012) and communicated (Ramus and Steger, 2000) as it provides guidelines and expectations which encourage employees to undertake the required behaviours (Ramus, 2002). However, Ramus and Steger's (2000) also showed the reverse to be true, the absence of a formal environmental policy was associated with employees undertaking fewer greening behaviours. It seems reasonable to posit that OG will not occur without knowledge of what greening measures can be taken and how to implement them. In other words, OG cannot occur without *awareness-knowledge* (knowing of its existence) and *how-to-knowledge* (knowing how to do it) (Rogers 2003). Lee (2009) states that SMEs are particularly disadvantaged in regards to environmental knowledge, often lacking resources to invest in innovations or training. This is a concern as training programmes have been shown to increase knowledge of environmental issues within managers and employees, and increase the amount of greening behaviours undertaken (Condon 2004).

Although not identified as a common barrier to OG, Klewitz and Zeyen's (2010) findings that managers perceive greening as unwanted by customers is of interest as other research both supports and contradicts this. Revell and Blackburn (2007) found managers of SMEs perceived customers to be concerned with cost and quality, and blasé in regards to greening, therefore managers felt little impetus to be greener. Lee's (2009) findings, in contrast, found that increasing customer pressure is a significant driver for greening. However, in terms of corporate events greening, it may be that the desires of *clients* (the purchasing organisation) differ from *customers* (the event attendees). As stated in the introduction, organisations often have CSR policies which stipulate environmental requirements for suppliers (Dahlsrud 2008), a different process to individual consumers expressing interest/disinterest in greening.

Therefore, in the case of event greening, corporate event organisations may have to respond to their client's desires and conform to environmental requirements.

Event Greening

The event greening literature is somewhat limited, with sporting mega-events and festivals dominating the discussion. Research into corporate events, often termed business events, is further limited. Existing research (Mair and Jago 2010; Merrilees and Marles 2011; Mair and Laing 2012) suggests events are influenced by many of the same factors influencing organisational greening. For example, Mair and Jago (2010) state event-organisers perceive costs, and a lack of time and knowledge as significant barriers to event greening. However, an increase in clients with CSR policies has been found to be a significantly facilitating greening, due to the necessity of complying with these policies (Mair and Jago, 2010). As events are often complex undertakings involving numerous sectors such as transport, catering, and accommodation, the degree to which all suppliers implement greening can pose a challenge to the overall greening of an event (Boo and Park 2013).

Event-organisers themselves also appear to facilitate event greening: if they hold strong green values they are more likely to seek out green options and implement event greening measures (Mair 2014). This is particularly apparent within festivals where event greening is commonly a reflection of the organiser's personal values (Mair and Laing 2012). Merrilees and Marles (2011) state business events are more financially driven than other event genres and as such are influenced more by event greening financial concerns. Knowledge appears to be a factor influencing event greening. Boo and Park (2013) tested this argument through quantitative empirical research, finding knowledge of greening to positively influence green behaviour intentions. However, event-organisers were generally found to possess limited greening awareness (Boo and Park 2013), therefore this lack of knowledge may pose a barrier to event greening.

Methodology

Research strategy

As event greening is under researched, a qualitative study was designed in order to uncover the perceptions and experiences of Corporate Event Greening (CEG) that could lead to an understanding of barriers and facilitators. A case-study approach was selected for several reasons. First, case-studies have the ability to detect contextual issues better than wider-scope studies, providing powerful examples of particular phenomenon (Siggelkow 2007). As this study focused on a specific phenomenon, a case-study allows the contextualisation of CEG within an organisations internal and external context. Second, Yin (2003) suggests a case-study is appropriate when understanding and exploring social phenomena is desired. Workplaces are inherently social, and social interaction in the workplace can influence organisational greening (Takeuchi et al. 2011). Third, Kohlbacher (2006) states that case-studies are of particular use when organisational and managerial processes are being studied. As seen from literature review, these types of processes have been found to be critical in influencing CEG.

Data collection

The case-study organisation was an SME operating from five regional UK offices, with headquarters outside London. The organisation produces and manages corporate events of all varieties, including award shows, conferences, and trade shows within the UK and Europe. Operating for over 25 years, the organisation is a key player within the UK corporate event industry. Additionally, unlike the majority of event organisations, they do not regularly outsource aspects of event design, production, or management. This ‘in-house’ approach allows the organisation a higher level of control over the whole process of staging a corporate event, therefore valuable in terms of exploring barriers and facilitators at every stage of event design and production.

Semi-structured interviews with six members of staff within the selected organisation. The interview guide contained a number of pre-defined questions developed around eight themes: Broadly speaking, the interview brief contained questions about eight themes: personal interest in greening, organisational culture, management, training, clients, company policy, resources and existing environmental demands. Permission to contact staff was obtained and participants were contacted directly. The interviews were undertaken in February 2015 outside the company premises, using various public spaces (e.g. cafés) to undertake the interviews. This was important to make staff feel secure and disclose any contentious issues/disagreements within the organisation with regards to greening practices. Hence the very basic description of the organisation and the participants. Interviews were scheduled to run for approximately 30 minutes, however they continued as long as the participant was continuing to provide valuable data (McGivern 2008). The actual interview length varied between 25-38 minutes. Critical incident questions (Hughes 2007) were used because asking participants about specific times when event greening previously occurred prompted them to reflect and explain experiences of event greening in the present.

Purposive sampling, common within interpretivist research (Onwuegbuzie and Leech 2007), was utilised in order to engage participants who could provide significant experiential accounts. Participants were employed in varied roles within the case-study organisation: Two were event coordinators (Kelly and Louise), one was an event producer (Wayne), two were technical event crew (Tim and Dan) and one was the head of technical production (Mark).

Data Analysis

The adapted followed a mix of inductive and deductive thematic analysis. The inductive approach allowed grounded concepts and themes to emerge naturally, opposed to being solely constructed from prior assumptions or theories. The deductive component involved an exploration of the several key factors which can influence CEG identified in the literature. The coding process began with highlighting initial data sections, using colours to signify points of consonance (Braun and Clarke 2006). Next, the data began to be organised into groups and themes began to emerge. The coding guide was generated, specifying the colour ascribed to each code and grouping codes under broader themes where appropriate. The next stage involved re-evaluating the codes and themes, amending the coding guide to ensure it was as representative of the data as possible.

Results and Discussion

Greening Undertaken

In order to analyse barriers and facilitators to CEG within the case-study organisation, the greening measures that are in place were identified, providing an overview of the environmental nature of the organisation (Table 1).

As can be seen, a variety of practices are undertaken, or at least has procedures in place to undertake them. The practices are grouped according to the well-known *3R"s* of the waste hierarchy Hansen et al. (2002). It can be seen the organisation has more recycling measures in place than reduction or reuse measures. This is in concurrence with Zibarras and Ballinger’s (2012) findings that recycling is the most common organisational greening initiative. Zibarras and Ballinger (2012) outline several organisational greening methods commonly undertaken which the case-study organisation is not currently implementing, such as an environmental policy, energy efficient lighting, green energy purchasing and electronic filing. Therefore, it appears there is scope for the organisation to undertake more greening measures.

Table 1: *Greening Undertaken by the Case-Study Organisation*

Recycling	***Reusing***	***Reducing***
Fabric	Wood	Fuel
Clothing	Set/stage pieces	Electricity
Carpet	Scenery elements	
Batteries	Foamex *(foam boards) signage*	
Wood		
Delegate badges		
Branded items (e.g. pens)		
Paper		

Taking the discovered procedures at face value assumes the organisation does indeed undertake these. However, participants expressed doubt as to whether several procedures, such as recycling paper, clothing, and batteries, are actually undertaken. Harris and Crane (2002) found similar gaps between espoused and actual positions in terms of organisational greening, suggesting that this is not specific to corporate events and is a more prevalent modus-operandi for varying organisations. This analysis aims to understand the barriers and facilitators to existing initiatives and other potential CEG measures which may not be in place.

Management and Organisational Culture

Management support and organisational culture were initially coded for separately within the data, however the analysis suggests the codes frequently link and the literature often discusses the two aspects in concurrently (Dilchert and Ones 2012). Therefore they have been combined in order to fully assess their relevance in terms of ability to act as barriers and facilitators. An organisational culture which incorporates greening would encourage employees to hold shared green values and actively encourage green behaviour (Harris and Crane 2002). Participants expressed little awareness of any green culture within their organisation.

> *There isn't really a culture of being environmentally friendly, there really isn't, nobody's ever spoken to me… never about anything to do with it. It's certainly not something that people talk to me about or encourage me to pursue or even think about to be honest.*
>
> Wayne, Event producer

This leads to the supposition that the reverse of Harris and Crane's (2002) findings may also be valid: a lack of any green organisational culture may act as a barrier to CEG within the case-study organisation. Interestingly, Harris and Crane (2002) note that a green culture is challenging to achieve and suggest it might only be achieved via a concerted effort from the organisation's management. Dilchert and Ones (2012) link a strong environmental culture with an increased likelihood of environmental initiatives succeeding. Participants indicated that battery recycling containers had recently been introduced, however uncertainty was expressed in terms of them being utilised. This suggests the reverse of Dilchert and Ones (2012) findings may also be true; a weak environmental culture may decrease the likelihood of environmental initiatives succeeding. When asked what prevents the company from being greener, Tim (Technical event crew) said:

> "*Umm… being brutally honest… probably the attitudes of the management!"*.

When probed for clarification, Tim explained he felt management were apathetic in enforcing the existing event greening measures that were not seen as essential processes. Participants' views on what their management do perceive as essential processes suggest the organisations dominant philosophy is profit based. Harris and Crane (2002) state that this is apparent for many organisations and that a profit-based philosophy often leads to the exclusion of environmental considerations, as in the case-study organisation. Metcalf and Ben (2012) suggest that holistic organisational leadership takes into account the environmental aspects of business operations as well as economic drivers. In contrast to this, perceptual narrowing occurs as a result of leadership focus on the perceived most significant organisational facets and failure to recognise other aspects (Metcalf and Ben 2012). It appears perceptual narrowing and a profit based philosophy may be pertinent within the case-study organisation, therefore constituting barriers to CEG.

Several participants perceived their management as unwilling to make changes in relation to greening due to the perceived favourability of current processes. For example, Dan (Technical event crew) said:

> *They think things are working the way they are so there's little reason to change anything.*

All but one participant shared the view that their management perceived greening in this manner. This suggests that the management are lacking the change orientated behavioural dimension of leadership, which entails encouraging and accepting new ideas as part of a long-term perspective (Yukl 1999). Interestingly, the outlying participant who perceived both an environmentally friendly culture and supportive management was the most senior, stating:

> *I'm probably best placed to make some of those greener choices, but as a culture I do try to instil green policies… As a culture, yeah, I'd say the people that we have are aware and do what they can.*
>
> Mark, Head of technical production

It has been argued that green values and actions espoused by management will be shared by less senior employees (Welford 1995), yet this view is incongruent with the primary research findings as Mark's perception is not shared by other, less senior participants. This suggests that Harris and Crane's (2002) assessment that managers' ability to control organisational culture is optimistic at best is accurate in this instance. The overall account of the culture and management support of the case-study organisation leads to the conclusion that these aspects act as significant barriers to CEG. Correspondingly, others (e.g. Zibarras and Ballinger 2012) have found that management support and commitment or the lack thereof is the most salient factor influencing organisational greening.

Formal and Informal Policy

Simultaneous coding highlighted that the majority of the greening measures described by participants in Table 1 took the form of informal policies. This study utilises Wharton et al's (2008) characterization of informal policies as those which are not written into official policy documents, but are operational within the organisation. The case-study organisation has a range of informal greening policies which are not formally stipulated as organisational rules. These policies rely on the self-regulated adherence of employees, which Tyler and Blader (2005) found to be effective in regulating employee behaviour. However, these informal polices were frequently not adhered to, therefore the existence of informal policies does not necessarily predict CEG within the case-study organisation. This may be due to the perceived apathy of the management as outlined earlier, resulting in employees' feeling little impetus to observe the informal policies.

Most participants concurred that there was not a formal environmental policy. When asked if they thought a formal policy should be in place, participants unanimously stated they felt one should be developed as it would encourage greening within the organisation. For example, Kelly (Event co-ordinator), said:

> *Yeah definitely. Some kind of formal framework and definitely encouragement would probably mean people took notice of being a bit more environmentally friendly.*

Their views are supported by Inoue and Alfaro-Barrantes' (2015) observation that formal environmental policies coupled with management support lead to higher levels of environmental measures undertaken. Additionally, Ramus and Steger's (2000) research demonstrated that the absence of a formal environmental policy was associated with employees undertaking fewer environmental initiatives. Therefore, a formal environmental policy may have the potential to facilitate CEG within the case-study organisation, and the lack of one may act as a barrier.

Dauber et al.'s (2012) model showing the links between two organisational artefacts, *structure* and *behaviour*, as shown in figure 3, is applicable to CEG within the case-study organisation. Structure, in this instance, is a formal environmental policy which stipulates rules and guidelines while behaviour refers to the employee behaviours which result from the structure. Dauber et al.'s (2012) model illustrates the link between organisational structures and the behaviours resulting from this, further reinforcing a formal environmental policy as a potentially significant facilitator of CEG within the case-study organisation.

Resources

Most participants indicated time and finance as resources they felt had an impact on the undertaking of event greening, both as a factor actively encouraging and one which prevented it. Participants specified that any measure of event greening which was viewed as resource conserving, that is, saving the organisation time or money, was actively encouraged by management and appeared to be complied with by employees:

> *We just started to recycle all our Foamex, which you know, is great from an environmental point of view but also from a financial point of view so everyone is trying to actually do that.*

Kelly, Event Co-ordinator

Linking back to the analysis in regards to management support, it is interesting to note that resource conserving green measures appeared to be those which employees act upon. This suggests the management are actively advocating greening measures which provide these types of economic benefits. Klewitz and Zeyen (2010) found economic benefits in terms of cost saving and time efficiency to be a significant driver to organisational greening. Hitchens et al. (2003) also notes that lower levels of resources and the desire for resource conservation is particularly operative within SMEs; such as the case-study organisation.
Participants indicated that finance impacted negatively on the undertaking of CEG, frequently making reference to the perceived cost-prohibiting nature of greening, suggesting finance is a significant barrier.

> *I'd say that cost is uh... if it had a cost at all, unless it's really very minimal it would probably be somewhat shunned.*
>
> Dan, Technical event crew

Many authors agree that financial barriers to greening are prevalent, especially within SMEs due to lower cash flows and capital availability (Gerstenfeld and Roberts 2000; Hitchens et al. 2003). These financial barriers are inherent within smaller organisations, resulting in less greening undertaken as less capital reduces ability to invest in new initiatives, and due to the perceived expense of implementing new measures (Lee 2009). This was affirmed by Mark stating:

> *More revenue means more money to invest in better gear and more greener technologies which we can't get now.*
>
> Mark, Head of technical production

The financial barrier may have been partially influenced by the 2008 recession which affected the event industry widely. The reduced number of corporate events and lower budgets resulting from the recession (MPI Business Barometer 2009) led to changing industry trends. Notably, Hede reported in 2007 that environmental concerns were becoming more prominent within the event industry. However, post-recession MIA (2009), an industry body, reported budget cuts and decreasing volumes of events as predominant concerns. Louise, an event co-ordinator, made specific mention to the recession in terms of its impact on levels of event greening:

> *At the moment with the recession and everything happening a few years ago then management are very concerned about budgets and trying to save as much money as possible still, they're still very much working on how it used to be… on a budget level.*

This impact of the recession is supported by Studer et al. (2006) who stated that in time of financial compression, pressure to cut costs actively discourages greening within SMEs. Louise also stated that levels of event greening might only increase in conjunction with revenue, revealing a sense of finance acting as a facilitator. Other participants shared the view that any greening measure which was cost-saving was indeed implemented, even if not with green intentions.

> *We'd always have to keep you know, the vans down, so we're not just burning fuel up and down the motorway… but I guess that's probably to save on money and maybe not with particularly green intentions to be honest.*
>
> Kelly, Event Co-ordinator

Operational cost-savings are a common organisational greening facilitator (Luetkenhorst 2004), including within the case-study organisation as green measures which are perceived as commercially beneficial are implemented. Greening which results in operational cost-savings is often a short-term measure, as benefits from endeavours such as conserving fuel are realised immediately. This suggests that a short-term financial perspective may pose a barrier to greening, as only those measures resulting in immediate financial gains are implemented. This perspective may result in measures which may have longer term financial benefits not being implemented, due to the benefits being delayed opposed to immediate.

A shortage of available time and the need to allocate time for essential business processes, such as adhering to event schedules, was frequently mentioned by participants in terms of impacting upon both existing event greening measures and prospective measures:

> *When we're pushed for time and running from event to event to event in the busy season then sometimes the environmental procedures will go out the window.*
>
> Tim, Technical event crew

This is in accordance with the literature on organisational greening. Gerstenfeld and Roberts (2000), Hitchens (2003), and Studer et al. (2006) found a perceived lack of time to be a critical factor in organisations not undertaking greening. This is particularly felt within SMEs as they more often characterised as time poor (Redmond et al. 2008). It could also be argued that the nature of the event industry, known for being fast-paced with frequently long hours (Wale et al. 2010), is a contributing factor to the lack of time available for greening felt by the participants. This is supported by Kelly's statement when discussing the recycling of Foamex.

> *We're trying to enforce that properly because obviously at 4 o'clock in the morning, the crew… it's not going to be the first thing they think of if they're just ripping it down.*

This suggests that a lack of time, or the pressure of time, acts as a barrier to existing greening measures within the case-study organisation. Several participants also stated that time posed a barrier to obtaining environmental certifications.

> *A lot of these accreditations and that you can get you know... credentials to get have a lot of paperwork to be filled out, a lot of signatures to get um… and time is a bit of a luxury to be honest.*
>
> Louise, Event Co-ordinator

Perceiving time as a luxury and environmental accreditation as of less importance suggests that the case-study organisation operates with a short-term perspective. Formal accreditations require an environmental management system, the benefits of which are numerous and extensively reported, including cost savings, competitive advantage, and increased efficiency (Hillary 2004). However organisations, particularly smaller firms, often view environmental management systems as providing uncertain future benefits, and as such are unwilling to make short-term environmental commitments (Stoeckl 2004). This short-term perspective may act as a barrier to CEG within the case-study organisation. Time as a barrier to greening was also mentioned in terms of the absence of the time needed to research greening measures, even though all participants expressed the wish to do so.

Knowledge

The literature suggests that insufficient knowledge is a significant barrier to organisational greening (Lee 2009; Iraldo et al. 2010; Gaspar 2013). Craddock et al. (2012) outlines *limited cognition* as a barrier to greening. Limited cognition appears to be present within the case-study organisation: although all participants had an awareness of greening, none were aware of the term 'event greening' as specifically applied to their industry. In line with Rogers'

(2003) classification of types of knowledge, there was also a lack of awareness knowledge, the first type of knowledge required to use an innovation, in this case CEG.

> *I don't really know about many green things like that and I'm not sure if other people do either. So yeah more knowledge might be good.*
>
> Dan, Technical event crew

This infers insufficient knowledge as a barrier to CEG within the case-study organisation. However, as seen in Dan's statement above and other participants, knowledge of what CEG measures could be undertaken was frequently desired. This suggests if awareness-knowledge and subsequently how-to-knowledge (Rogers, 2003) was provided to participants, levels of CEG would increase, in line with Boo and Park's (2013) findings which revealed increased knowledge and levels of green behaviour intentions to be positively correlated. Therefore, knowledge appears to have the potential to also act as a facilitator to CEG.

However, training takes time and might incur financial costs. The evidence that the case-study organisation is unwilling or unable to allocate these resources to further greening might indicate an inability to train employees in greening matters. This suggests that a lack of training, and therefore a lack of knowledge, might act as a barrier to CEG. Additionally, it is interesting to note that when discussing a formal environmental policy, participants frequently expressed that one benefit of such a policy would be to increase awareness and knowledge in regards to event greening. As previously mentioned, participants all expressed support for a formal policy to be put in place, further highlighting the ability for knowledge to facilitate CEG.

Clients

Participants strongly indicated client's desires as impacting the event greening undertaken by the organisation. Clients requested recycled materials to be used and new materials, such as wood for stage-sets, sourced from sustainable suppliers. Reusing event elements such as signage and stage-sets was also mentioned, as well as reducing the fuel and energy required to stage events. Therefore, client requests cover the *3R"s* of the waste hierarchy, outlined by Hansen et al. (2002). As Tim (Technical event crew) states:

> *One of our clients [name removed]... with them everything has to be green. It's all paperless, it's all uh, even down to the cups on site it's all recycled, and we have to use recycled materials as much as we can, but that's coming from their requests you know? I wouldn't say it's like that for every event unless a client does ask.*

From this it appears that clients act a major facilitator to CEG. The literature revealed mixed views on end-users driving greening, but the findings of this study are in agreement with Iraldo et al. (2010) who state that requests and requirements of customers are a significant driving force for organisational greening, particularly in SMEs. Several participants expressed that client requests for, and interest in, CEG had increased in frequency over the last several years. When asked if this increased frequency was a noticeable trend, Mark (Head of technical production) responded:

> *Yes, yes definitely. That's something I've noticed, the questions about it... there's more of them and they are higher up the list you know?*

As organisations need to respond to changing trends within their markets (Pulendran et al. 2000), clients desires are a logical facilitator to CEG within the case-study organisation. However not all clients were reported to take an interest in CEG. There was variation in the levels that greening was requested and it tended to be clients from larger organisations who did so. This may link to CSR policies which often stipulate environmental requirements for suppliers (Dahlsrud 2008), in this instance the case-study organisation. Therefore, clients appear to act as a facilitator. This finding is in line with Mair and Jago's (2010) research into business events which found client's CSR policies to facilitate event greening.

However, as typified in Tim's comment above, greening often stems directly from client requests. Therefore, clients without CSR policies or an interest in CEG may actually pose a barrier to CEG within the case-study organisation.

Temporal Changes

Long-term and short-term temporal changes both within and externally to the case-study organisation were frequently mentioned as influencing CEG. This often linked with the changing desires of clients over the last several years, necessitating the case-study organisation to undertake more CEG in response. However, participants also expressed the necessity of keeping pace with the environmental developments of other event organisations as facilitating CEG.

> *I think more companies have those kinds of policies than before as well you know, more people are thinking about it as something they need to do.*
>
> Wayne, Event producer

This may account for the increase in CEG processes stated by participants to be recently (within one year) incorporated into the organisations day-to-day operations. These included the introduction of battery recycling bins and recycling Foamex. Therefore, the shift towards greener operating seen in the case-study organisation may be due to changing trends within other organisations, and the need to respond in accordance or be left behind, potentially resulting in the loss of clients or reputation (Pulendran et al. 2000). In regards to longer-term shifts towards CEG, Mark's account of temporal changes over his twenty two years of working in the industry shows that the passage of time has facilitated CEG:

> *There wasn't much direction at all when we first started out as to what the impact was of what we were doing… you know building an awful lot of things in wood and discarding things as one off items… once you did one event with it, it paid for itself from that event and became waste and was dumped… and it wasn't particularly recycled it just went off to the landfill you know? Now we modulate things so they're easily integrated into future events designs and recycle much more.*

Mark outlines economic benefits as a reason for some of the changes towards greener operating, as modulating designs and reusing them ultimately conserves material costs. Operational cost-savings are a common facilitator to greening (Luetkenhorst 2004) and the recognition over time of these benefits appears to have facilitated CEG within the case-study organisation.

This general shift to greener operating is not exclusive to the case-study organisation, or indeed the event industry as a whole. Environmental issues have become central to increasing numbers of organisations over the last few decades (Bartlett 2011). In light of this and the participants' views, the passage of time appears to facilitate greening within the case-study organisation.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study sought to explore the barriers and facilitations to event greening in the corporate sector. Focusing on a UK corporate event organiser, the multiple barriers and facilitators to corporate event greening (CEG) were explored and contextualised in relation to applicable literature.

The findings revealed a lack of management support and formal policies, green culture, knowledge, and the resources of finance and time as the predominant barriers. Financial resources were also a facilitator, together with clients and temporal changes, therefore more barriers than facilitators were discovered. The most significant barrier is the lack of management support, appearing to directly impact employees undertaking the organisations informal CEG policies. Zibarras and Ballinger (2012) stated that higher levels of greening are undertaken when management are supportive towards organisational greening. This finding indicated that the reverse may also be accurate; apathetic management results in lower levels of greening.

The interconnectedness of many of the barriers and facilitators came to light within the analysis. Management apathy towards CEG appears to contribute towards the lack of green organisational culture and participants feeling little impetus to be green. This is in line with Epstein et al.'s (2010) findings that leadership plays an integral part in encouraging a green organisational culture. Time as a resource and knowledge were also connected. Most participants desired more CEG knowledge, but frequently felt they had no time to research and improve their understanding. This may be indicative of the fast pace of the events industry (Wale et al. 2010) coupled with the time poor nature of SMEs generally (Redmond et al. 2008).

Employees' desire for a formal environmental policy providing a CEG framework and guidelines, suggests if managerial support was given, employees would implement the CEG measures. Employees are a vital component of organisational greening, often directly implementing greening strategies and measures (Tinnish and Mangal 2012). Participants expressed that not all the current CEG measures within the case-study organisation were being adhered to. This noncompliance coupled with the desire for a formal policy and guidelines suggests that participants do not want to self-regulate their greening behaviour, instead preferring official stipulations. This is opposed to Tyler and Blader (2005) who found self-regulation was more effective in controlling employee behaviour than formal guidelines.

Participants perceived financial issues as a significant barrier and facilitator to CEG within the case-study organisation. Greening which provided immediate or short-term benefits, such as reducing fuel use which in turn conserves finances, was implemented and actively supported by management. Conversely, measures seen as requiring resource expenditure for perceived uncertain future benefits, such as environmental accreditation, were not supported. This indicates a short-term cost-benefit organisational perspective, where immediate profit is prioritised over future, potentially higher profits, as the economic benefits of organisational greening are well documented (Dixon-Fowler et al. 2013). A short-term, profit centric business philosophy has also been documented by Harris and Crane (2002) as affecting organisational greening.

An explanation for why the management appear unsupportive of CEG, therefore unwilling to expend resources undertaking it, may stem from goal-theory. Unsworth et al. (2013) states resource conservation is a focal organisational goal, thus any drive for greening is often lower within the goal-hierarchy. Within this view, managers may perceive that undertaking greening detract resources thus negatively impacting on their focal goals.

The temporal changes described by participants are encouraging as they indicate that despite the barriers to CEG, as outlined above, the case-study organisation has been moving in a greener direction over time. Although various barriers are present, there also appears to be potential for many facilitating factors to become operational within the organisation. As the number of organisations with CSR policies is increasing (Ouwens 2015), this means increasing numbers of the case-study organisation’s clients are likely to be placing emphasis on greening their events (Jones 2010). Therefore, event suppliers, such as the case-study organisation and other corporate event SMEs, are likely to be required to implement higher levels of CEG in the future. In light of this, several recommendations are presented below.

Several aspects of this study may prove of use to the managers of corporate event organisations. However, as a significant barrier to CEG greening was found to be a lack of management support, these recommendations will be of use to only those managers who do desire to undertake/increase CEG. Table 2 details these recommendations. Similarly, several avenues for future research have been identified and are outlined Table 3, in the hope that this study provides a base-point for subsequent inquiries into this under-researched area. In light of the increasing importance of the environmental impacts of events (Getz 2012), further research with clear, practical guidelines for practitioners is likely to continue to be necessary for the foreseeable future.

Table 2: Recommendations for practice

Recommendation	Reasoning
Development and implementation of a formal environmental policy	A formal environmental policy with clear stipulations and guidelines was found to be a significant facilitator. Therefore, a formal environmental policy would encourage a greening culture, thus increasing corporate event greening.
Change perspective: focus on long-term benefits as well as short-term benefits	Focusing on short term benefits only means that longer-term benefits of corporate event greening are not considered. From a resource perspective, a long-term view may enable better resource utilisation and conservation, as well as higher levels of organisational greening.
Increase knowledge of corporate event greening measures	Increasing knowledge is linked to increased levels of greening. If formal training is not possible due to resource constraints, informal dissemination of knowledge from management down should take place. Employees should be actively encouraged to seek out and research greening measures. Free resources and guidelines, such as The Carbon Trust and Green Business, a free government organisational greening resource, can be utilised without financial expenditure.
Increase knowledge of corporate event greening economic benefits	Operational cost-savings were found to be a significant facilitator. Managers are recommended to increase their knowledge in order to fully understand the potential benefits of corporate events.

Table 3: Future research areas

Recommendation	Reasoning
Level adoption of greening behaviours	The organisation focus of this study was a low level adopter of greening behaviours. Future research could focus on higher level adopters.
Case-studies of international corporate event organisations	Findings from several countries would provide more in-depth, generalisable data, with information regarding any cultural differences towards corporate event greening revealed.
Comparing several corporate event organisations	Exploring common and discrepant barriers and facilitators to CEG across different corporate event organisations would broaden the information about the state of the industry as a whole.
Client perspective	Ascertaining the degree to which the clients of corporate event organisations barriers and facilitators to corporate event greening. This would provide a new perspective on the research topic, further enriching this under-studied area.

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Apfu06 Malaysian Travellers' Characteristics, Behaviours and Travel Factors Influence on Outbound Travel Motivation

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Abstract

Malaysian has contributed 6.5% (9 million) in the number of outbound trips made from 2010 to 2012, which approximately 830,000 seats per week departing to other countries. Therefore, has positioned Malaysia as the 3rd largest outbound seat capacity within Southeast Asia aviation market. This study aims at describing Malaysian outbound travellers' characteristics, travel behaviour and to identify travel factor association with outbound travel motivation. Self-administered online survey was administered to evaluate the respondents travel motivation through a convenience sampling method. Analysis of association and relationship among the socio demographic factors, travel behaviour and travel factors using chi-square test of independence and pearson correlation measures of relationship revealed that their outbound travel motivation is associated with travel factors. Cheaper foreign exchange rates, travelling with budget airlines at cheaper airfare, social media influence, business growth opportunity and the opening of new and affordable routes are among factors that motivate outbound travel among the respondents. A positive relationship is observed with outbound travel motivation among Malaysian travellers. Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB) and other government agencies is recommended to formulate promotional and marketing efforts to boost and develop Malaysia tourism activities by pulling more domestic and inbound travellers.

Keywords: Malaysia outbound travellers; travel motivations; travellers' characteristics, push and pull factors, travel behaviour.

Apfu07 Sitio Masla, Barangay Sablang, General Nakar, Quezon, Philippines as Tourism Destination as Perceived by the Dumagats

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Abstract

The tourism industry is one of the most active businesses in the entire world. It is evolving and changing every day to satisfy the needs and demand of tourists. As a result, tourism is one of those industries that gave most positive and negative impacts to social, environmental and the economy of the host country. Ecotourism is the created solution to lessen the impacts of tourism. As a result, it gave more benefits to the community and Indigenous peoples in the remote communities of the Philippines.

The Philippines has plenty of untouched destinations with indigenous peoples. The Dumagat who are found in the vicinity of the Sierra Madre Mountain Ranges are one of those. This study is about the perceptions of the Dumagat tribe about tourism business and tourism destination in their hometown Masla, General Nakar, Quezon

The research methodology includes qualitative exploratory research using interview schedule as the instrumentation in gathering of data. The research focused on the perceptions of Dumagats on the tourism possibilities in their community.

The ride to Gen. Nakar is a 5- hour bus ride away from Manila, half an hour tricycle ride from Infanta to the Municipality of General Nakar and a 2- hour motorbike (locally known as Habal-Habal) ride passing by the mountainous road, crossing 4 rivers and scenic views of Sierra Madre Mountain Rangse and the waves of the Pacific Ocean.

The community is a longtime partner of Lyceum of the Philippines University Manila. The partnership was forged as early as 2008. The Dumagats are indigenous people scattered around Northern and Southern Luzon. The long-term partnership between LPU Manila and the Dumagat community started out because of the need for livelihood opportunities. Since the community has lush forest cover, clean river system and rich cultural heritage, the most appropriate livelihood opportunity would be tourism. LPU- Manila created a Development Programs aiming at maintaining the culture and traditions of the Dumagat at the same time introduce skills that can help their daily life. Nature became the source of living for the Dumagat and the places they are living are surrounded by untouched beauty of nature. The Dumagat depends on hunting and planting through sustainable swidden agriculture. They do not have permanent source of employment unlike the people from the lowlands or they collectively called “Tagalogs”. Most of them are also dependent in rattan harvesting which is bought by the lowlanders at a very cheap price.

The Dumagat mentioned about the different attractions to visit like the Pacific Ocean, a Cave, and crystal clear water of the river, the magnificent falls and the beautiful Sierra Madre Mountain Ranges. The visitors can swim, go to the beach, seasonal surfing, trekking and immersing with the community. They also agreed with tourism as long as there is proper

consultation among the community and LPU. Respect of their culture and traditions is very important to them. As of today, there are facilities in the community such as the ecolodge. The community also welcomed homestay. They gained skills in kitchen operations, accommodation facilities maintenance and tour guiding which are transferred to them by LPU faculty members.

The researcher recommended several concerns such as 1) the community is not yet ready for tourism and that the focus should be more on cultural preservation by continuously reviving their mother toungue 2) continuous skills enhancement 3) there is also a need to improve first their communication skills especially the English language 4) provision of medical facility and stand-by transportation in case of emergencies in the community 5)improvement of skills and knowledge in agriculture 6) comprehensive tourism planning with community participation to protect them from outsiders who are slowly gaining interest in their community 7) no construction of man-made facilities to protect the natural ambiance of the community 8) community immersion of LPU constituents to imbibe the LPU core values 9) continues support of LPU COSeL 10) the Department of Tourism to implement ecotourism principles when they community is ready and 11) seek new knowledge about the community and their culture.

Keywords: Dumagat, Indigenous People, tourism, ecotourism, LPU COSeL, culture, environment

Introduction

The tourism industry is one of the fastest growing industries in the entire world. Through its multiplier effect, it creates jobs, boosts economy and promotes innovation and globalization. As tourism grows, the needs and demands to satisfy the tourists are also increasing and because of this that different tourism concepts were born. There are Ecotourism, cultural tourism, urban tourism and other types of tourism by which the travelers can choose. Tourism is not only about the places to visit, it is also about the culture that makes the destination unique and this culture is created by the local people. In particular, the indigenous peoples have this distinctive type of culture thus, resulting to a great interest for this type of tourism.

One of the newest trends of modern travelers preferred engagement with the indigenous tribe at their ancestral domain. Grace Kranstover, (2014) shared through her article that tribal tourism refers to a new form of travel in which tribes allow tourists to visit their villages in order to be “exposed to a culture completely different from [their] own.” In recent years, this opportunity to experience “authentic” indigenous life has grown in popularity across the globe.

The Philippines is active on this huge wave of changes and accepts the trends and concepts in the tourism industry. In the past few decades, our government and private establishments continued to develop places and promote their tourism attractions. Globally, it gives impact to our economy’s stability, cultural heritage and natural resources. In spite of this fascinating evolution of tourism in our country, there are still untouched places among the tourists and developers that became cradle of indigenous people. Those places unreached by modernization are home to our indigenous tribes. Those places are sanctuary of cultural, traditional and natural treasures that remain unknown to many.

The focus of this study are the Dumagats located in Sitio Masla, Brgy. Sablang, General Nakar, Quezon. The article written by Dennis Epada (2003) describe the Dumagats who are one of the major groups of indigenous peoples living in the Southern Tagalog region. The

Dumagat, now numbering only about 30,000, inhabit the fertile Sierra Madre Ranges on Quezon province's northern tip. A large throng of this ethnic tribe can be found in the town of General Nakar, while a few of them can be spotted in three municipalities of Polillo Island. Torrevillas (2010) said on his article at Philippine Star that The Dumagat belong to the ethnic minority and now live in the uplands of Bulacan, Rizal, Laguna, Aurora and Quezon. They used to be semi-nomadic, putting up temporary homes wherever they could find sustenance from hunting, fishing and from crops, fruits and other products from the forest. Most of them eventually learned to settle permanently in certain areas due to the efforts of missionaries and as a result of their contacts with lowlanders from whom they get occasional jobs, mostly agriculture-related.

The Dumagats of Sitio Masla, Brgy. Sablang, General Nakar, Quezon is a community partner of Lyceum of the Philippines University Manila. LPU Manila created a development program in the community by which education is the entry point. The development program was made in close coordination with concerned government agencies like the National Commission for Indigenous Peoples (NCIP), Department of Education (DepEd)and the Local Government of Gen. Nakar. The program is an indigenous centered program that aims to build capabilities within the area and assist the local community. The program foresees that tourism is one of the possible livelihood opportunities of the Dumagat. With the presence of beauty of nature and unique culture, the researcher believe that there is tourism potentials of the place and people, but the question is Will the Dumagats agree on it?

Objectives Of The Study

The main purpose of the study is to know the perceptions of the Dumagat if their ancestral domain becomes tourism attraction. Below are the objectives of the study;

1. To recognize if the Dumagat will agree or not about tourism potentials of their place
2. To identify how the tourists will go to their community
3. To recognize the available tourism attractions of the place and identify tourist activities
4. To assess if the Dumagat are ready to interact with different people
5. To identify basic tourism skills of the Dumagat
6. To know the available tourist facilities
7. To recognize if tourism will affect the way of living of the Dumagat
8. To know if tourism will affect the present source of livelihood of their Barangay
9. To identify the possible effect of tourism to their culture and tradition

Significance Of The Study

The purpose of this study is to know the insights of the Dumagat if their ancestral domain, Sitio Masla, Brgy. Sablang, General Nakar, Quezon becomes a tourism destination. This study will contribute to the following sector:

To the Dumagat of Brgy. Sablang, General Nakar, Quezon - This study will help them to understand their readiness in tourism possibilities, to adopt to the different situation, to interact with other people that will affect their way of living. It also helps them in preserving their cultural and traditional heritage in spite of social changes.

To the Lyceum of the Philippines Community – The study will give them ideas in understanding more the Dumagat as their adopted indigenous community. It will help them in updating and improving the development program that they are offering to the Dumagat Community and able to immerse with them.

To Community Outreach and Service Learning – The study will be beneficial for the COSeL, for them to be able to identify the thoughts of the Dumagat as their adopted community about having tourism business on their place. The study will give them knowledge in preparing the tourism possibility as a part of long term plan for the Dumagat in General Nakar.

Scope And Limitation

This study is limited in one Dumagat community in Sitio Masla, Brgy. Sablang, General Nakar, Quezon which is part of their ancestral domain. Their perceptions about tourism potentials and possibilities were gathered using qualitative research employing interview schedule to ten respondents. The duration of the study was from November to March, second semester school year 2015-2016.

Review Of Related Literature And Studies

As stated by Dr. Ngales (2009), the term Dumagat is derived from the Tagalog word "taga-dagat" which means "sea-gypies". It may have also been derived from the other Tagalog words like "gubat" or "mountain" and "hubad" or "naked" [Rex Publishing 2000] because the IPs usually moved around mountains with minimal body covering.

The Dumagat are also traced by anthropologist and other scholars though appellations related to a place or language such as ---Casiguran Dumagats [Headland 1984]. Umiray Dumaget Agta, Camarines Norte Agta [SIL] which were used to distinguish them from other IPs. Regardless of what or how they called, Dumagat seemed too resigned to leave the labelling or name-calling to outsiders since it is the least of their preoccupation. However, while the practices of regulating the identities of others, which is not only evident in the many ascriptions of the Philippine IPs but also of other IPs worldwide, e.g., natives, first world inhabitants, aborigines, etc., needs further probing, it is not within the purview of this study.

Today, these black skinned people are scattered in different parts of the country. They are widely distributed in Zambales and Pampanga in Central Luzon. Several groups are also found in the north-eastern coast of Luzon and in the Bicol peninsula as far as Sorsogon province. They also live in islands of Panay and Negros in the Visayas and Palawan and in northeastern Mindanao [Casal et. Al, 1998]. Environmental changes and calamities caused their movement to the other mountains like Cordillera Mountain range on the western part of Luzon. For instance, the Mt. Pinatubo volcanic eruption in 1990 forced the Aetas of Zambales to go down from the mountains.

Peña (2015) found out on her study that the results below are based on the field notes and observation of the researcher validated though the Focus Group Discussion (FGD).
The researcher identified ten (10) possible tourist attractions in the community as follow:

1. Clean river system (refer to DENR river classification) with headwaters coming from the mountains of the Sierra Madre and empties into the Pacific Ocean. Some portions of the river are ideal for swimming specifically in "Pasibu" pool. This is about 10 to 15 minutes hike from Sitio Masla.

2. A waterfall located in the upstream portion of the river about two-hour hike from the community. Along the area, one can observe the rich flora and fauna. Presence of wild birds such as “uwak” (research on bird species found in quezon) and indigenous trees such as catmon are highly present. According to the Dumagats they can still catch wild pigs in the forest area and freshwater eels in the river.

3. The splash of the strong waves of the Pacific Ocean which is considered as music to the ears. Towards Sablang which is considered the “Centro”, the coastal area is an ideal place for strolling/walking because of the presence of fine sands unlike in the coastal area in Masla where boulders of rocks are present. Early in the morning, the sunrise is a magnificent view and the refreshing cool breeze of the ocean. It was also observed by the Dumagat who are engaged in fishing that during the months of September to December that whale sharks are feeding on krill (alamang). (Research also on the marine species found in quezon). There were also sightings of giant turtles (pawikan) (IDPIP-ST,Case Reports on Food Security on the Dumagat in Our Harvest in Peril: A Sourcebook on Indigenous Peoples' Food Security (2004) EED Philippine Partners' Task Force on Indigenous Peoples' Rights (EED-TFIP). pp 96-110.

4. Presence of fireflies which is an indicator that the air is not polluted. Fireflies only thrive and survive in areas with clean, fresh air. There are also trees where plenty of fireflies are present which can be possible activity of tourist in a clear night ---firefly watching and star gazing while listening to the never ending flow of river water.

5. The culture and skills of the Dumagat ---the wisdom behind beetle nut chewing, their skills in surviving the harsh environment and their ability in weaving (“paglalala”) and turning raw materials from the forest (rattan, coconut, pandan and anahaw) and the sea (rocks) into something useful. The tourist can experience weaving and other crafts.

6. The thrill and the adventure of traveling to the community---bumpy road and river crossing while watching the waves of the ocean and the lush green scenery.

7. Indigenous and organic food freshly grown from their garden (development is on-going).

8. Free flowing water from the springs in the forest.

9. Safe and secure community.

10. Friendly and hospitable people.

Conceptual Framework

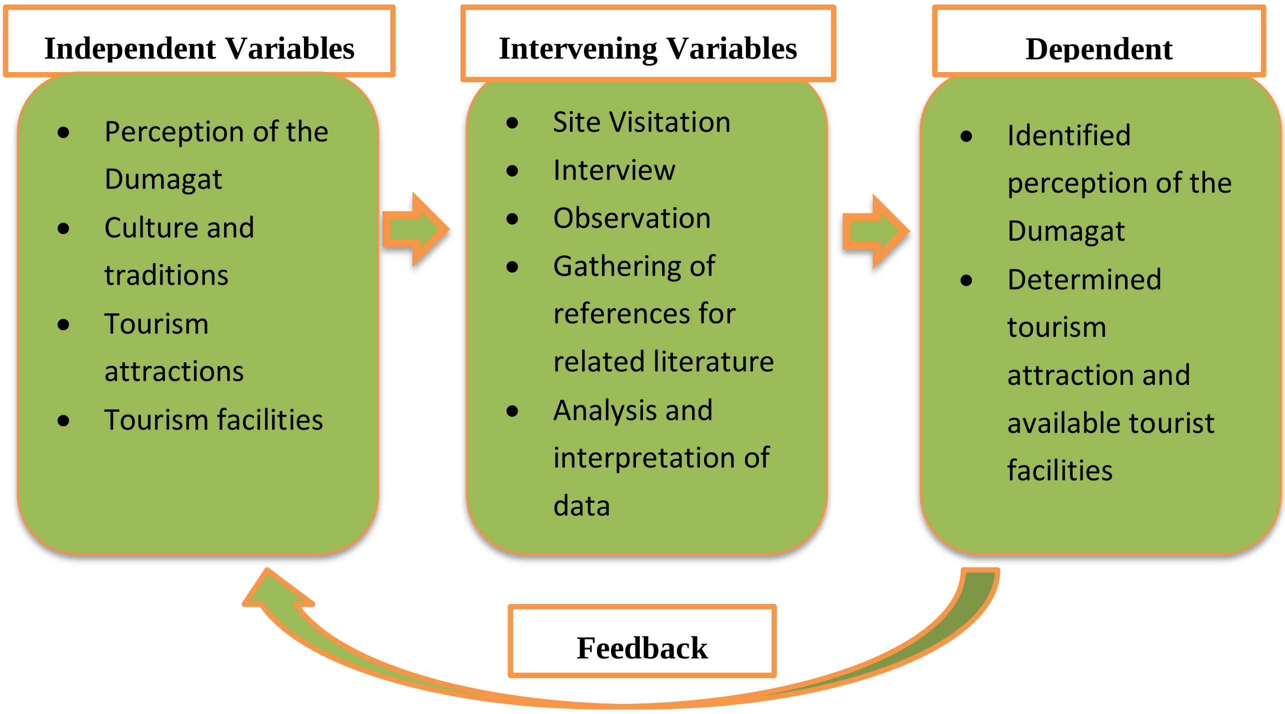

Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study.

The figure above represent the paradigm of the process on the study flowed. The independent and dependent variables are the things that cannot be controlled by the researcher. For the independent variables this included the perception of Dumagats, their reaction and opinion if their ancestral domain will become a tourism destination, their culture and tradition which the norms and the way of living of their community, the tourism attraction in the place, a natural tourist attraction that will serve the source of the business and the available tourist facilities in the place that might be developed and planned. The dependent variable for the study which relies on the output of independent variable is identified outcome of the study from the independent variable. The manners of gathering data of the researcher are Site Visitation, Interview to the respondent, researching of references for related literature and the analysis and interpretation of the information collected.

Research Methodology

A qualitative study is a comprehensive summary, in everyday terms, of specific events experienced by individuals or groups of individuals (Lambert and Clinton 2012).

An exploratory research project is an attempt to lay the groundwork that will lead to future studies, or to determine if what is being observed might be explained by a currently existing theory. Most often, exploratory research lays the initial groundwork for future research. (http://study.com/academy/lesson/purposes-of-research-exploratory-descriptive-explanatory.html). The study is a qualitative exploratory research with a purposive type of sampling which centers on the Dumagat perceptions on tourism potentials and possibilities in Barangay Sitio Masla, General Nakar, Quezon. As a way of gathering their opinion, the researcher conducted interview as an instrument to answer the research problem. The questions were open-ended and recorded with consent to assure the accuracy of the responses. Each interview were transcribed and analyzed individually. This method generalized each perspectives, opinions and point of views of the respondent. The interview consisted of three individual interviews, one focus group discussion composed of three Dumagat and revalidation interview with one elder of the community and LPU-COSeL Director Dr. Ngales.

Presentation, Analysis And Interpretation Of Data

This chapter presents, analyze and interprets the data obtained from the responses during the interview, focus group discussion, observations of the researcher and gathered related literatures and studies.

Results and Discussions

The results below are from the answers given by the interviewees though individual interviews, focus group discussion and revalidation from elder and leader of the community and LPU – COSeL Director Dr. Ngales.

1. The Dumagat source of living is though harvesting and selling “uway” or “yantok”, sustainable agriculture and seasonal fishing.

2. Interviewees mentioned the Pacific Ocean, the Cave near by the shore, the crystal clear and clean water of the river, the magnificent falls and the beautiful Sierra Madre Mountain Ranges that was also mentioned from the study of Peña (2015).

3. According to the respondents swimming in the river, falls and beach can be done by the visitors and seasonal surfing if the waves are not that high, trekking in the mountain and immersing with the community by helping the host community do their daily activities like farming, planting, cooking and other community activities.

4. All of the respondents answered yes to the tourism possibilities on their ancestral domain as long as the visitor will recognize and respect the culture and tradition of the Dumagat however, it should be discussed and planned with the entire community together with LPU- COSeL.

   This was similar to what Johnston (2006) mentioned in his book that many small indigenous hospitality businesses are being conceived as a holistic enterprise, based on communal revenues needs. Decision-making is commonly governed by a community board with representation of families. Elders guide this process. Ultimately, the goal is twofold. The obvious goal is to create a viable business that restores self-reliance for the next generations. The secondary goal, often unstated, is to undertake international (cross-cultural) relations for the protection of rights. For Indigenous Peoples, owning a successful tourism business can be an entrée to new types of dialogues helpful to defending ancestral title.

5. As the respondents answered about tourist facilities they mentioned the Ecolodge which was funded by LPU which can be a lodging for visitors but they also mentioned that some people who already visited the place stayed at the houses of the locals together with the host family, which is similar to the homestay concept. For the food, most of the visitors brought their own food and ask them to cook or when the visitor is staying with local family, whatever food the family eats, the visitor will also eat. The interviewees said that there were no medical facilities in the community. Medical workers are also limited and most of the time non-existent. There is no police station

in the area however there is Barangay office. A military headquarter is found before reaching the community. This is helpful in maintaining the peace and order situation in the area.

6. They said that they are ready to interact with the locals in the vicinity of their community because they are Tagalogs and most of the people are their relatives. According to the interviewees they can communicate with the visitor coming from their place since they often interact with the LPU Community. They mentioned that if foreign visitors will come then they will have a hard time communicating.

7. The interviewees said that they were taught by some volunteer faculty members from LPU on some basic tourism skills like accommodating the visitor, guiding in roaming around the area, cooking and serving food and maintaining and cleaning the Ecologde. As Dr. Ngales mentioned *"Na-train. Even the items. Yung mga plates brought by our students. C.I.T.H.M... (They are trained).*

8. The respondents said that tourism will not affect he livelihood of the community because the tourists are not often visiting the site. According to the interviewees the community has existing source of livelihood that sustains them however, Dr. Ngales said that the effect will be experienced in the long-run, once tourism comes-in. Ryan and Aiken (2005) presented on their book that Tourism development should direct economic and other benefits to local people that complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices such as agriculture, fishing and traditional social systems.
9. The respondents answered that tourism had no effect on their culture and tradition as long as the visitors respect and recognize the locals. As long as visitor will not ask to change their belief, they agree on tourism but according to Dr. Ngales, Director of LPU COSeL and founder of partnership of LPU and the Dumagat, she emphasized that the community still reviving their culture especially the younger generation since they do not speak their own language anymore. It was said by the interviewees that tourism will not have negative impact to their culture since there is tremendous efforts to revive it however the concern of the interview was the impacts of tourism to the environment.

Conclusion And Recommendation

According to the respondents, they are allowing tourism possibilities on their ancestral domain with consent of the community and partner LPU – COSeL. With holistic sustainable tourism development plan, the feasibility of tourism for Dumagat at their place is definitely possible however, the Dumagat should focus more on education and building capabilities of the community.

Here are the following recommendations to consider:

1. Help the community in build their capabilities according to the available resources with the assistance of LPU – COSeL. Instead of just selling Rattan to the private companies, the community should be taught how to make handicraft or furniture pieces from rattan. In this way the community directly gains the advantage and it is also a way of showing the Dumagat arts and culture.

2. Focus on the education of young generation of Dumagat through language revival. As Bolida (2015) stated on Philippine Daily Inquirer that like most Filipinos, the Dumagat of General Nakar in Quezon province also look to education to escape a life of poverty.

3. Continue the preservation of culture and tradition of the Dumagat.

4. Enrich the Dumagat basic tourism skills through experiential learning.

5. Improve the Medical Facilities of the Barangay and teach the Dumagat the some first aid and medical procedures for emergency purposes.

6. Provision of mode of transportation like habal-habal for emergency purposes.

7. Develop a holistic sustainable tourism plan of their ancestral domain. Adam Trau and Robyn Bushell (2008) said on their study that well-planned and executed tourism can 262 Tourism and Indigenous Peoples contribute to increased tolerance and respect for diversity of all sorts – biological, cultural, religious and political. Well-planned ethical tourism development can provide incentives to support indigenous people’s traditional customs and values; protect and respect sacred sites; and, enhance the legitimacy of traditional knowledge. (McNeely, 2004; Olsder et al., 2006) The tourism industry is therefore a critical component in fostering global support for natural and cultural heritage conservation, poverty alleviation and indigenous community well-being.

8. If in the future tourism will take place, Ecotourism is the best tourism approach to be adopted. Corazon Catibog – Sinha Ph. D. (2012) said on her book that Community – based tourism, sometimes referred to as community tourism, is a form of tourism that has strong focus on the social aspect of sustainable development and hence, it is highly participatory. Community tourism, which is owned and managed by the local community, is considered an ideal form of public involvement in tourism development as it reflects the self-sufficiency and self-determination of the local resident. However there are things need to consider in using ecotourism principles as discusses by John Swarbrooke, (2011) at his book, One of the most widely accepted most widely accepted principles of suitable tourism appears to be the idea that tourism appears to be the idea that tourism can only be suitable if the local community is involved in tourism planning and management. However, even where attempts have been made to achieve this aim, there have been made to achieve this aim, there have been problems. These include;

    - Communities, rarely, if ever speak with one voice there are many interesting groups and individual viewpoints and there is no easy way of reconciling these to each a consensus.

    - The mechanisms that are used to elicit the views of the community provide an opportunity for the minority of self-appointed community spokespeople, or people with strong views to dominate the process. The views of the so called “silent majority” can therefore be ignored.

    - Professionals can sometimes under values or ignore local views that are the opposite of their own. This can particular occur when “public participation exercise” are held to legitimatize decision which have already been taken, to some extent.

    - Conflict that debate causes within communities can be serious and can continue for a long time after debate ends.

9. Ecotourism principle should be applied for the Dumagats and their Ancestral Domain if they pursue the tourism potential of their place. Verner (2009) stated that Andres Barona, delegate from the Galiván Tatatao EcoTourism Monitoring Program points to the frequent justification for eco-tourism as a means to benefit indigenous communities without detrimental social or environmental consequences and to increase incomes for tribal communities while also lowering pressure on natural resources. Barona and his colleagues confirm that tourism operators are becoming more environmentally and socially aware, and increasingly motivated by eco-tourism.Indigenous peoples frequently suffer greatly due to tourism. Indigenous peoples are self-defined groups of ethnically and culturally distinct peoples, whose language, traditions and social institutions have largely withstood the impacts of colonisation or other incoming groups and cultures to a region. They typically have an intrinsic, spiritual link to their lands.

10. The researcher highly recommends that every students, employees and faculty members of LPU should experience community immersion in Sitio Masla. It will help the LPU community better understand the core values of our Founding Father Dr. Jose P. Laurel.

11. To COSeL to continue their full support, tremendous effort and burning passion to help the Dumagat and other indigenous tribe in building the capabilities and sustaining their culture and tradition.

12. Department of Tourism should implement strictly and effectively the Ecotourism principles in the pristine and fragile site especially in those areas with indigenous tribes.

13. The researcher recommends the future researcher especially the tourism student of LPU – Manila to continue to seek new knowledge for these genuine people, the Dumagat to be able to better understand them.

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Apfu08 Gamification in Tourism Marketing

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ABSTRACT

Gamification has been applied to tourism since the beginning of this century. Its utilization in tourism destination and products marketing is one of the most discussed branches worldwide. This paper aims to lift the effectiveness of gamification in tourism marketing. It figures out the main attractive points and competitiveness of gamification in tourism marketing, compared with other marketing choices. Then empirical analysis of its potential and challenges is conducted, based on statistics collected from questionnaire survey and the study of hot words in reviews of tourism related games online. Concluding all results above, the paper highlights the future development chances of gamification in tourism marketing. In the meantime, it provides a potential model.

Keywords: Gamification, Marketing, Tourism, Games, Tourism apps

Apfu09 Gen Y's Attitude towards Michelin Restaurants

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Abstract

This study examines general attitude of Macau residents towards Michelin rated restaurants, especially in the case of powerful consumer group Generation (Gen) Ys. A well-designed questionnaire is conducted and 168 qualified responses were collected. Meanwhile, most respondents have no clear understanding of the attributes of Michelin restaurants nor about the significance of the designations emanating from Michelin. Broadly speaking, Michelin rated restaurants were primarily associated with higher class restaurants, with good quality and expense. Only 56 out of 168 qualified respondents patronise Michelin rated restaurants on occasions. This was mainly because of the perceived high prices charged. On the other hand, their good quality.also influences Gen Ys to patronize there. Since this paper studies the reasons why Michelin restaurants are more or less popular amongst Gen Ys in Macau, this may clarify the major considerations for choosing a restaurant. Thus, contributing to further development of firms in the restaurant industry.

Keywords: Consideration, Generation Y, Michelin, Macau, Restaurant, Strategy

Introduction

History of Michelin Restaurants

Michelin starred restaurants with outstanding cuisines are restaurants recommended in Michelin Guide. The designation has a significant influence on consumer choices about dining venues (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007). The Michelin Guide, also named Red Guide, was first published by the Michelin Tyre Company in 1900 (Michelin, 2013). Michelin Tyre Company, also named the Manufacture Francaise des Pneumatiques, was established by Andre and Edouard Michelin brothers in 1889. In 1900, the Michelin brothers came up with the idea of providing a free informative guide to drivers for their convenience, and this thought led to the birth of the Michelin Guide. The Guide includes information like location of garages, places of accommodation and restaurants. Because of its usefulness, Michelin Guide became popular and by 1911, its coverage had spread to the whole of Europe (Michelin, 2013). In 1920, the Michelin Guide was no longer provided free but offered for sale. In 1926, the predecessor of today's Michelin three-star rating system was introduced. Originally only one star was awarded, but this was subsequently developed into a three-star rating system in 1931. Michelin Guide expanded rapidly and celebrated its 100th anniversary in 2000. In the same year, Bibendum was chosen to be the best corporate logo (Michelin, 2008). In 2006 and 2007, Michelin Guide made its first move across the Atlantic to New York and to Japan in Asia respectively. And finally in 2009, Michelin Guide arrived in the Far East - specifically in Hong Kong and Macau. By 2013, the series of Michelin Guides had coverage of 23 countries worldwide (Michelin, 2013).

An Opportunity for Hong Kong and Macau restaurants

Meanwhile, in 2015, a new category of street food in Hong Kong and Macau was introduced in the latest Michelin Guide (Michelin, 2015; Eater, 2015). A total of 35 eateries, in which 23 are located in Hong Kong while the other 12 are in Macau, are chosen in the new street food category (Michelin, 2015; Eater, 2015). The international director of Michelin Guide, Michael

Ellis, said, “The MICHELIN Guide has always been a true reflection of the restaurant scene in the cities and countries that we cover. In Hong Kong, street food is part of the local way of life, and Hong Kong residents love to eat out, without necessarily sitting down and spending a lot of money." (Eater, 2015). In another words, street food is one of the representative features in Hong Kong and Macau. In recent years, more and more tourists are attracted by street food culture and visit Asia, however, street food still lacks packaging for marketing (South China Morning Post, 2015). Thus, it can be seen as an opportunity for Hong Kong and Macau to boost its economy by tourism, with more emphasis on promoting food culture (South China Morning Post, 2015).

Purpose/Contribution

The purpose of this paper is to understand Generation (Gen) Y’s consideration when choosing a restaurant through their attitude towards Michelin restaurants. Gen Ys, who are sometimes called Millenials, are the major consumer group which have considerable purchasing power and a great number of population in the future (Parment, 2013). They are people who were born between 1980s and late 1990s with significant influence on the purchase decision of their acquaintances (Lukovitz, 2009; Yoon & Woo & Bonn, 2011). Because of their influential purchasing power, they have become the focus and target customers for companies (Parment, 2013). For this reason, a questionnaire is designed to study the attitude of Gen Y towards Michelin restaurants particularly, and it consists of 9 questions with background information of respondents as well as their opinions towards Michelin restaurants. Since there are few studies about Gen Y in the restaurant industry, the analysis to the data collected will contribute to provide restaurants in Macau some directions in their future marketing.

Literature Review

Macau Food History

Food shapes a person and it gives the information about one’s habits, history and culture (Doling, 1996). It is important to note that the Food and Beverage industry in Macau has its own uniqueness because of its cosmopolitan cuisines, and the main reason for Hong Kong visitors to come to Macau is because of Macau’s food (Zeng, 2005). The origin of Macau’s food history can be revealed by its own history, tracing back to the 14th century when Portuguese launched to the area of Macau (Leong, 2009). The first combination of Eastern and Western cuisine was perhaps first appeared in Macau (Doling, 1996). Since then, Portuguese food became an important part in Macau’s cuisine (Doling, 1996). Later, as the Cantonese also migrated to the north of Macau (Heangshan district), their dishes also had influential effect on Macanese cuisine (Doling, 1996). Meanwhile, in 1945 after the Second World War, Western restaurant culture was spread to Macau because of the migration by a group of American born Chinese (Leong, 2009). Later in 1960s, another group of immigrants from Southeast Asia came to Macau and opened their own South East Asian eateries in Macau (Leong, 2009). In the 19th century, Chinese restaurants where people can “yum cha” as well as some fast food chains were established in Macau also (Leong, 2009). All these add colours to Macau’s cuisines with variety of food. By the 21st century, many hotels with high-class restaurants also launched Macau to develop their food business in the fusion of cosmopolitan food center Macau (Leong, 2009).

Primary Criteria for Choosing a Restaurant

According to National Restaurant Association (2016), 90% of the consumers enjoy dining in a restaurant and 50% of them agree that dining in a restaurant becomes essential in their life. Recently, 66% of consumers are willing to try more new ethnic cuisines than they did five years ago (National Restaurant Association, 2016). When consumers are looking for restaurants to taste exotic dishes, they search for the coexistence of decent food, good service quality and atmosphere to excel their satisfaction (Ryu & Lee & Woo, 2012). Also, customer satisfaction can be determined by the image of restaurant, which is built based on restaurant quality (Ryu & Lee & Woo, 2012). When evaluating the overall performance of a restaurant, customers use food, physical environment and service quality as major indicators (Chow et al., 2007; Namkung & Jang, 2008; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Lee & Woo, 2012). Meanwhile, the development of customer loyalty can be influenced by price, convenience of location (Soriano, 2002) as well as physical environment in addition to food and service quality connected with relationship bonds (Hyun, 2010). All these factors have significant effect when consumers are making their choice of restaurant.

Nowadays, consumer demand for restaurants is ever-changing, especially with the increasing environmental friendly concern (Yoon & Woo & Boon, 2011). Companies can grab more attentions from customers and increase their satisfaction by promoting green products to establish an eco-friendly image (Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007; Yoon & Woo & Boon, 2011). When consumers are choosing a green restaurant, green food and restaurant operation under green practice are major considerations that they are looking into (Hu et al., 2010; Yoon, Woo, Boon, 2011). Although there is no accepted definition for "green food", it generally means local food that are organic and sustainable (LaVecchia, 2008; Yoon & Woo & Boon, 2011). 60% of consumers prefer restaurants that offer green food than other restaurants (National Restaurant Association, 2016). In addition, the advanced technology also contributes to some changes in the restaurant industry. For instance, there are menus available in smart phones and 75% of consumers are viewing menus at least a few times a year (National Restaurant Association, 2016). Also, payments to restaurants and bar can be done through smartphone app and 39% of consumers are using this function (National Restaurant Association, 2016).

According to Bakewell and Mitchell (2003), Generation (Gen) Ys will acquire unprecedented purchasing power when they grow up, and will consequently make up a potentially substantial market segment. Thus, it is essential to examine Gen Y consumption patterns if restaurants are to be successful in the long run. Yet, there are few studies which identifies the considerations of Gen Y restaurant choices. This paper provides a general guideline on Gen Y's criteria when choosing a restaurant via how Gen Y view towards Michelin restaurants.

Methodology

In order to carry out a useful survey for data analysis in this paper, careful planning of the design on this questionnaire was implemented. The well-designed questionnaire in Google Form was then sent to target respondents who are mainly university students studying in Macau and 218 responses are received. The data collected was stored in Google Sheets and analysed via the online function Google Spreadsheets to get valuable observation about Gen Y's attitude towards Michelin restaurants, and hence the consideration of Gen Y when choosing a restaurant could be deduced. The result is useful for firms in the restaurant industry when they seek for directions to develop their own business. The whole implementation and analysis of this paper takes up around three months' time.

Choice of Gen Y in Macau

This paper focus on Generation (Gen) Y, who were born between 1980s and late 1990s (Lukovitz, 2009; Yoon & Woo & Bonn, 2011) because of their great number of population and influential purchasing power (Parment, 2013). The designed questionnaire for Gen Y is conducted in Macau Special Administrative Region (SAR), China. Recently, Macau has a booming economy, particularly because of its tourism with more than 30 million of visitors in 2015 (DSEC, 2016). Food and beverage (F&B) can be defined as primary or secondary trip motivator in tourism (Quan & Wang, 2004; Okumus & Okumus & McKercher, 2007). Thus, Gen Y in Macau is chosen to be the respondents of this questionnaire.

Choice of the form of online survey

As the target respondents are mainly Gen Y, the form of online survey is adopted. According to Consumer Behavior Report (2008), Gen Y participates more in online activities and they are more obsessed to online behaviors (Lester & Forman & Loyd, 2006; Nusair et.al, 2013). Moreover, online social networks (OSNs) are considered to be the most important innovation in technology which have great influence in tourism (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010; Nusair et.al, 2013). Therefore, conducting the survey online can help to obtain useful data from target respondents who are Gen Ys.

Description of the survey questions

The online questionnaire is successfully completed and it is conducted in the language of both English and Chinese. The content of the questionnaire is composed of 9 questions, including some background information about the respondents and their attitude towards Michelin restaurants. The first stage of the questionnaire asked whether respondents were locals or foreigners (Question 1: Are you a local Macau resident?). Since our target respondents are local people in Macau, so if they are not a local people, the questionnaire will end immediately to the page in Image 1.The second stage consists of three questions which are mainly about respondents' personal information (Question 2: Your age / Question 3: Your education level / Question 4: Your average salary level every month). The final stage of the questionnaire has five questions which are mainly seeking for the respondent's knowledge about Michelin Restaurants (Question 5: Have you heard of Michelin restaurants before? Question 6: Please list ONE Michelin restaurant in Macau. Question 7: Your impression towards Michelin is? Question 8: Would you follow "Michelin Guide" and have a meal in Michelin restaurants? Question 9: The reason for following (or not following) Michelin Guide is?).

Image 1:

Findings

Descriptive analysis of the survey

218 samples of questionnaires are sent to respondents and 218 responses are collected. Thus, the response rate is 100%. Among all responses, there are 208 local respondents which makes up 95.4% of the total number (Chart 1). In addition, the number of local respondents aged between 18 and 24 is 168, which makes up 81.2% of total (Chart 2). Since our target respondents are local people in Macau, specifically Gen Y aged between 18 and 24, thus the effective response rate is the ration of 168 qualified respondents to the total 218 responses which equals 77.1%. All the following analysis will be done based on the effective responses.

First, the majority of education level of the qualified respondents are Bachelor students from university (92.1%) while the second largest group are Senior Secondary students who account for 7.3% (Chart 3). Second, more than half of the respondents (56%) have monthly salary of \$1,000-\$5,999 while 38.1% have no or monthly salary below \$1,000. Less than 6% of the respondents receive \$6,000 or above salary monthly (Chart 4).

Among the qualified respondents, 66.5% knows little about Michelin restaurants while 12.8% have never heard of Michelin restaurants. Only 16.2% of the respondents have been to Michelin restaurants before. Less than 5% know a lot about Michelin and go to Michelin restaurants always (Chart 5). From Chart 6 and Image 3 (Michelin, 2015), about a quarter of the respondents (75.7%) cannot name one of the Michelin restaurant in Macau. This reflects that most of the Generation Y in Macau do not have a clear picture of what a Michelin restaurants is, although Michelin star-ranking system is spread worldwide.

Among the 18 listed restaurants, 2 of them (Robuchon au Dome and The Eight) are three-starred restaurants, 1 (The Tasting Room) is two-starred restaurant while 4 of them (The Kitchen, Wing Lei, King and 8 12 Otto e Mezzo) are one-starred restaurant. In addition, Image 4 (Michelin, 2015) shows that 4 of them (Lou Kei (Fai Chi Kei), Tou Tou Koi, Luk Kei and IFT Educational Restaurant) are in Bib Gourmand list, which represents “Inspectors’ favourite with good value” (Michelin, 2014). Moreover, the eatery “Lemon Cello” is in the street food list 2016 from Image 5 (Michelin, 2015). It is interesting to note that one of the responses is the name of the hotel (Grand Lisboa) where Michelin restaurants are located instead of the name of Michelin restaurants. Surprisingly, the remaining 6 listed restaurants are not Michelin restaurants but respondents see them as one of the star-awarded restaurants by Michelin. It shows that few of the respondents have wrong recognition about Michelin restaurants.

For Gen Y’s impression towards Michelin restaurants, both expensive restaurants (28.8%) and high class restaurants (27.7%) are chosen by around a quarter of respondents. Meanwhile, good quality and branded restaurant also account for 23% and 16.9% respectively. This reflects that Gen Y generally have positive impression towards Michelin restaurants like guaranteed quality offered. But at the same time, they have the concern about the relatively higher price in Michelin restaurants. Chart 8 shows that only 24.5% of respondents will sometimes follow Michelin Guide to enjoy a meal while around three quarter (75.5%) of them will never follow it. Chart 9 gives possible reasons for the situation mentioned. About half of the respondents (52.7%) agree that Michelin restaurants offer high prices and almost a quarter of them (23.6%) believe that the quality of Michelin restaurants is guaranteed. In the meantime, other factors like Michelin guide gives realistic comments (9.3%) and Michelin restaurant worths its price are also reasons for them to choose a Michelin restaurant as a choice of dining.

Chart 1:

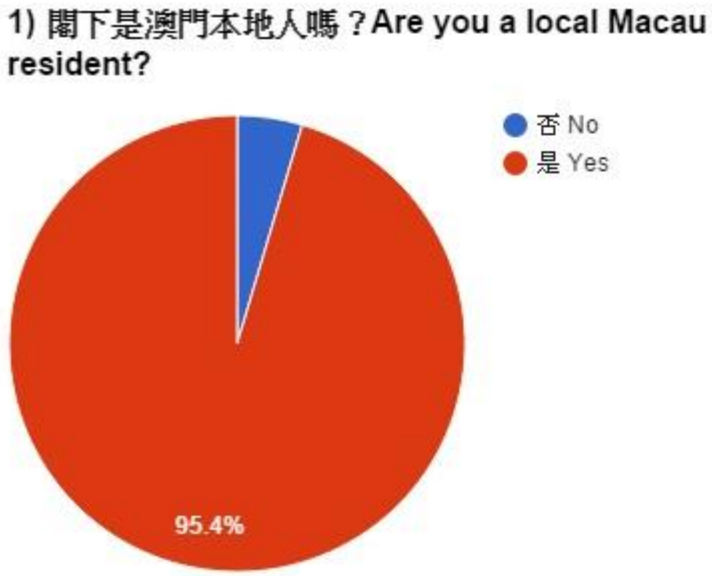


Chart 2:

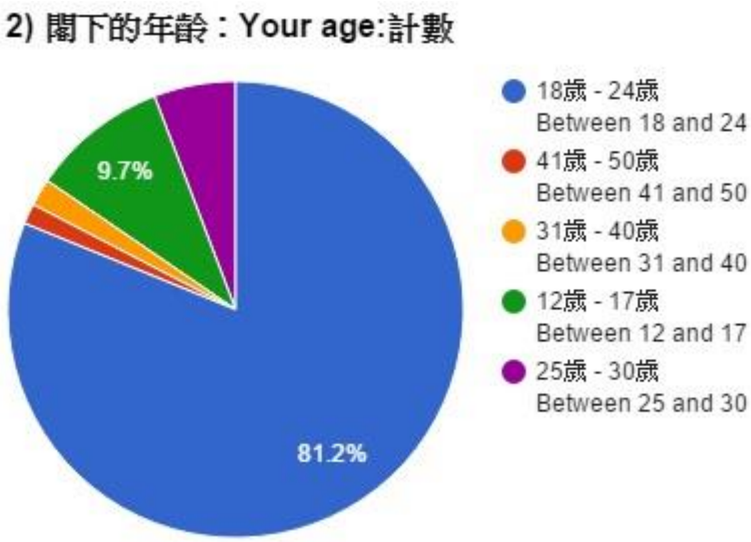


Chart 3:

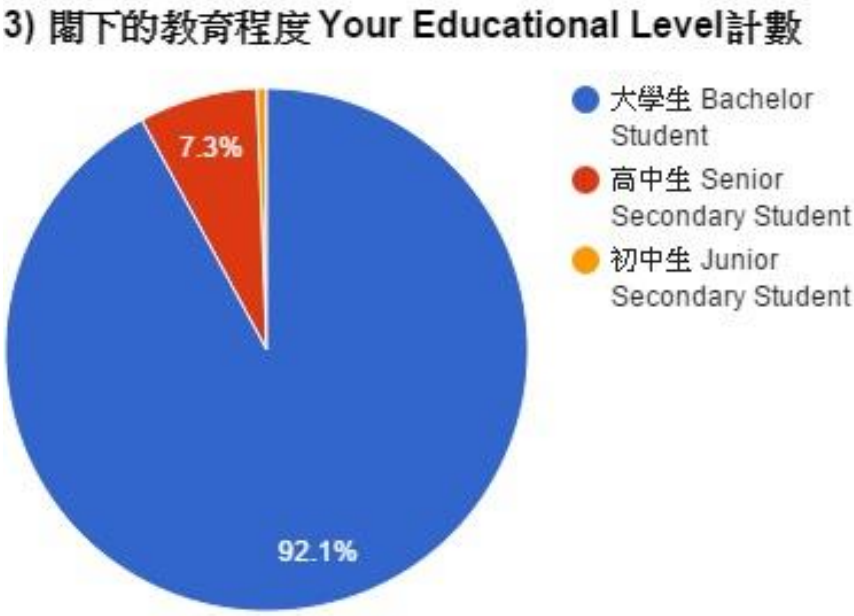


Chart 4:

Chart 5:

Chart 6:

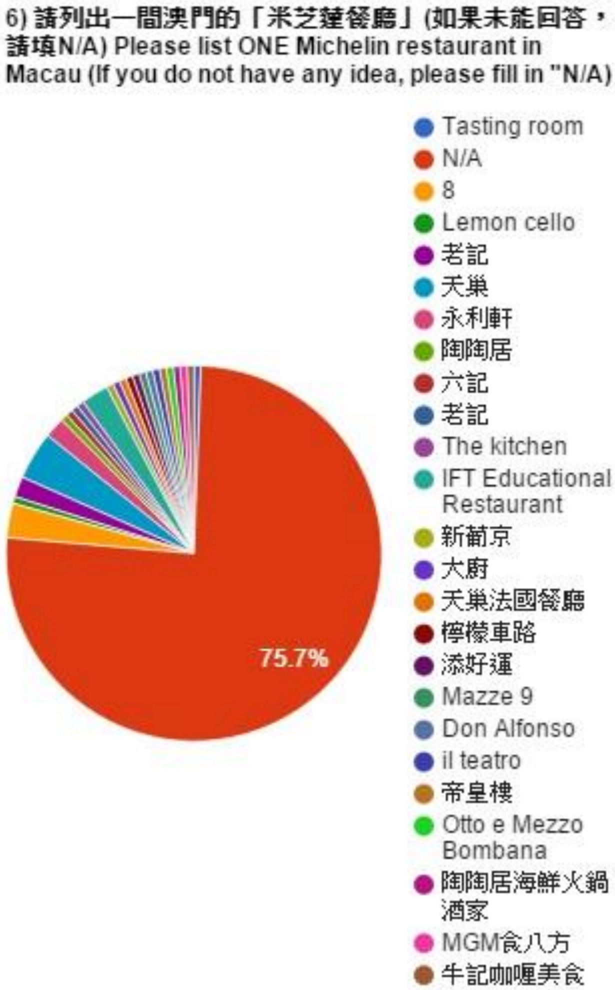


Image 3:

THE MICHELIN GUIDE HONG KONG MACAU 2016

Starred establishments - MACAU

Three Stars: Exceptional cuisine, worth a special journey

Robuchon au Dôme	天巢法國餐廳	French contemporary
The Eight	8餐廳	Chinese

Two Stars: Excellent cooking, worth a detour

Golden Flower	京花軒	Chinese
Jade Dragon **N**	譽瓏軒	Cantonese
The Tasting Room **N**	御膳房	French contemporary
Zi Yat Heen	紫逸軒	Cantonese

One Star: High quality cooking, worth a stop

Feng Wei Ju **N**	風味居	Hunanese and Sichuan
King	帝皇樓	Cantonese
Mizumi **N**	泓	Japanese
8 1/2 Otto e Mezzo **N**		Italian
Shinji **N**	金坂	Sushi
Terrazza **N**	庭園	Italian
The Golden Peacock	皇雀	Indian
The Kitchen	大廚	Steakhouse
Tim's Kitchen	桃花源小廚	Cantonese
Wing Lei	永利軒	Cantonese

Image 4:

THE MICHELIN GUIDE HONG KONG MACAU 2016

Bib Gourmand – MACAU

A Lorcha	船屋	Portuguese
Café Leon	利安咖啡屋	Portuguese
Chan Seng Kei	陳勝記	Cantonese
Cheong Kei	祥記	Noodles
Din Tai Fung N	鼎泰豐	Shanghainese
Hou Kong Chi Kei	濠江志記美食	Cantonese
IFT Educational Restaurant	旅遊學院教學餐廳	Macanese
Lou Kei (Fai Chi Kei)	老記 (筷子基)	Cantonese
Luk Kei Noodle	六記粥麵	Noodles and Congee
Manuel Cozinha Portuguesa	阿曼諾葡國餐	Portuguese
Tou Tou Koi	陶陶居	Cantonese

Image 5:

THE MICHELIN GUIDE HONG KONG MACAU 2016

Street Food list – MACAU

Aboong	韓國鯛魚燒乳酪雪糕
Chong Shing	昌盛
Dai Gwan	台灣帝鈞碳烤胡椒餅
Fong Kei	晃記餅家
Lei Ka Choi	李家菜
Lemon Cello	檸檬車露
Lord Stow's Bakery	安德魯餅店
Mok Yee Kei	莫義記
Neng Meng Wang	檸檬王
Sun Ying Kei	新英記
Ving Kei	榮記荳腐
Yi Shun	義順鮮奶

Chart 7:

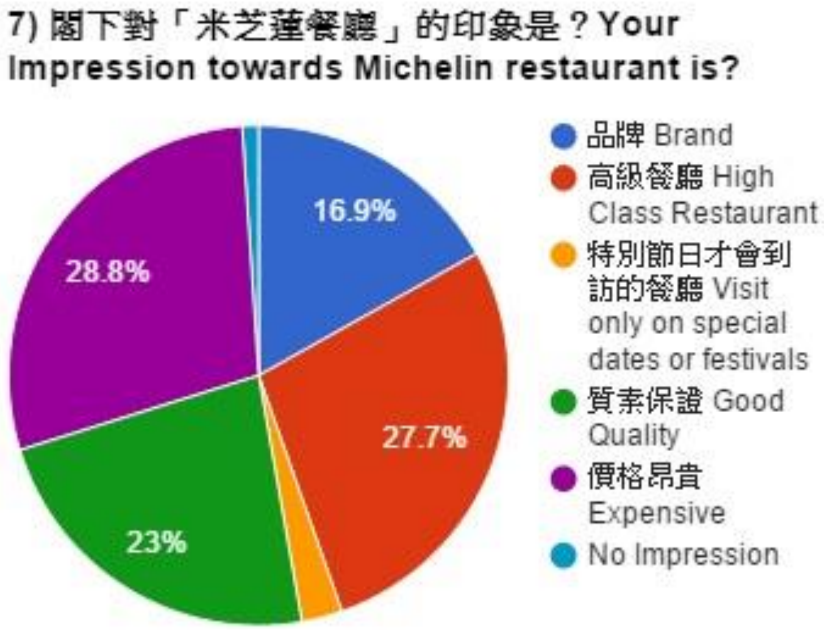


Chart 8:

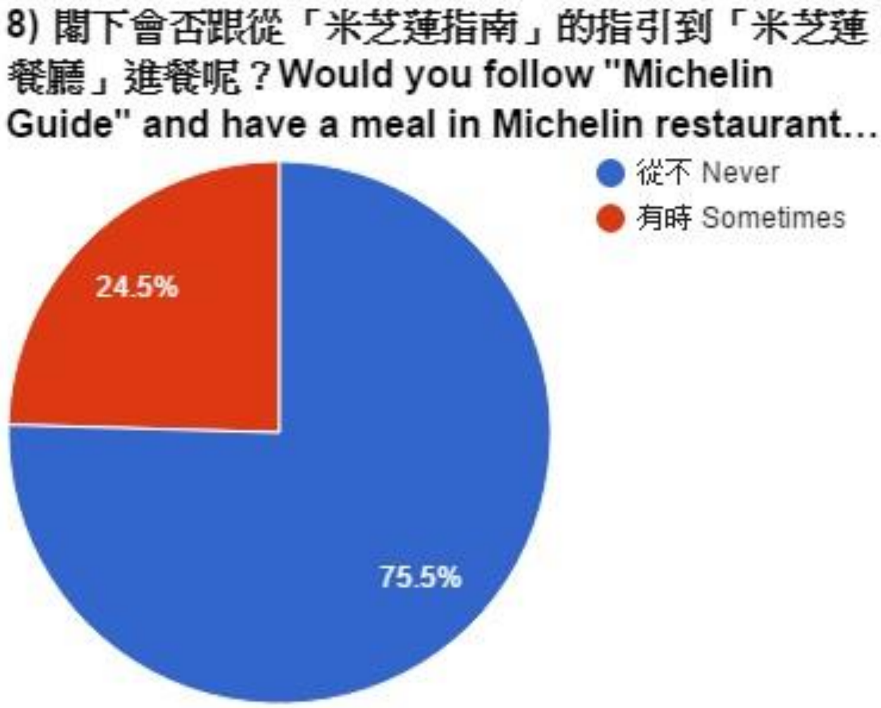
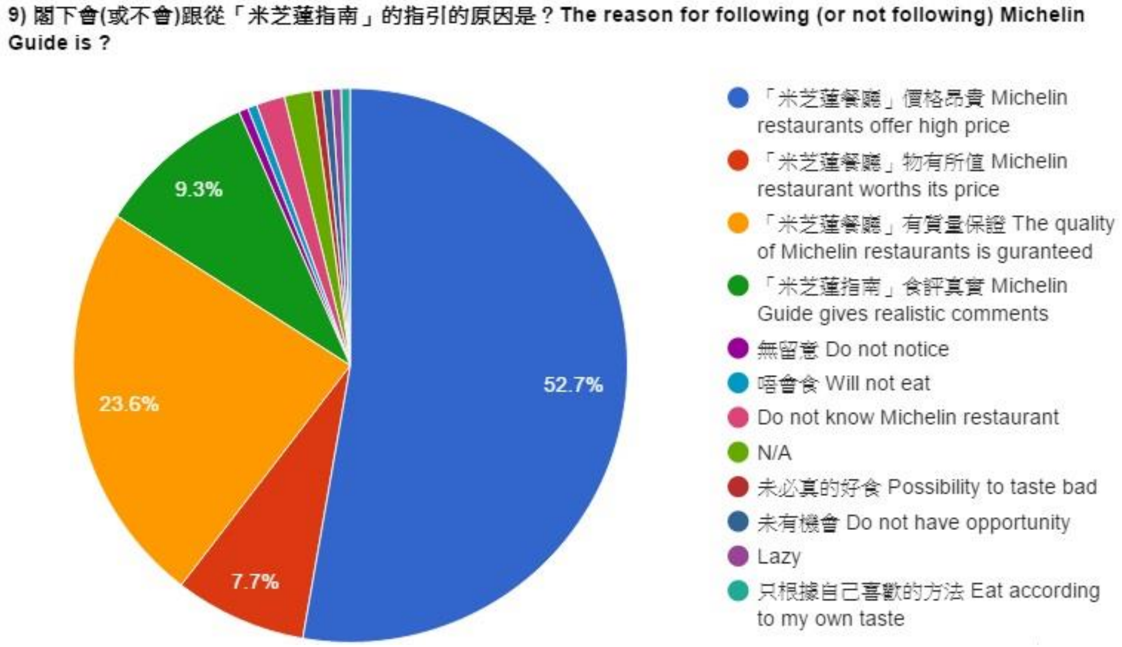


Chart 9:



Conclusion

Several conclusions can be drawn from the result of the analysis. First, the popularity of Michelin restaurants in Macau less popular than cities in other parts of the world. 12.8% of respondents have never heard of Michelin restaurants while more than half (66.5%) know little about Michelin restaurants. This shows that Michelin lacks effective promotion to the public, especially in the case of Macau Gen Ys. Cultural differences may be one reason for ineffective advertising as culture influences the way in which people view and react to advertisements (Cutler et al., 2000; Nikerson & Hoeken, 2003; Simpson, 2006). Furthermore, less than one-fifth of the respondents have visited Michelin restaurants and 75.7% cannot name an example of Michelin restaurant in Macau. Again, this shows the lack of attention of Gen Y towards Michelin restaurants in Macau. More efforts have to be done in Michelin's promotion and advertisements, and cultural differences should be considered when designing sales promotion strategies (Foxman et al. 1988; Simpson, 2006). Thus, the adoption of the new street food category is likely to improve the popularity of Michelin restaurants as street food is famous among locals because of its good quality, taste and reasonable price (South China Morning Post, 2015).

Second, offering high price is the main impression of Gen Y towards Michelin restaurants who know about it and this is core reason for Gen Y in Macau not following Michelin Guide as their dining option. This conclusion can be deduced from Chart 9, where it is shown that more than half of the respondents (52.7%) agree that high price is the reason that they do not go to Michelin restaurants. In addition, the salary level of the majority (94.1%) is below $6,000 in which 38.1% have a salary of below $1,000 monthly, thus the high price offered by Michelin restaurant can have significant effect on Gen Y's impression towards Michelin restaurant as they do not have great purchasing power now. However, the situation is likely to be improved as there is a new feature, which is the category of street food introduced by Michelin in 2015. Street food is one of the Asian culinary heritage and their prices are affordable (South China Morning Post, 2015). This new horizon of food in Michelin Guide is likely to break Gen Y's stereotype of luxurious place towards Michelin restaurants. Moreover, more and more Gen Y will get a job in a few years. By the time they are employed, they will obtain greater purchasing power and are more likely to be willing to afford the reasonable higher price for better quality of food.

Lastly, Gen Ys in Macau agree that good quality is guaranteed by Michelin restaurants. Despite the impression of expensive or luxurious restaurants, Michelin restaurants are also crowned with the title of high class restaurant (27.7%) and of good quality (23%) by Gen Y in Macau. More than 30% of them will follow Michelin Guide to have a meal because the Michelin restaurant quality is guaranteed and it worths its price. This observation matches with previous studies which support that food and service quality as well as physical environment are major indicators for consumers to evaluate a restaurant (Chow et al., 2007; Namkung & Jang, 2008; Ryu & Han, 2010; Ryu & Lee & Woo, 2012). The quality that a restaurant offered is also an important consideration in Gen Y's decision making in addition to prices. Subsequently, Michelin will continue to gain popularity if it keeps on nominating high quality of restaurants as this can build trust and give confidence to consumers.

Implications

Since Food and beverage (F&B) can be defined as a primary or secondary trip motivator in tourism (Quan & Wang, 2004; Okumus & Okumus & McKercher, 2007), restaurants play an important role in an economy. Gen Ys will be the most influential customer group in the next few years, so exploring their restaurant preferences will be beneficial to the economy. Thus, this paper provides guidelines for restaurants through Gen Y's impression towards Michelin restaurants. From the analysis and conclusions above, more implications can be made in addition to existing academic studies when evaluating Gen Y's decision making on choosing a restaurant. First, Gen Y in Macau seem to put more concern in pricing prior to guaranteed good quality. The findings of this paper reflects that the critical reason for Gen Y in Macau being not interested in Michelin restaurants lies on their high pricing strategy despite of their high quality of food and service. For this reason, firms in the restaurant industry can put more attention in pricing strategy. Some promotion tools based on price like discount and coupons (Simpson, 2006) can be used to target Gen Y as their focus is now on the prices.

However, in the long run, since Gen Y will get their job in the next few years, price is not likely to be the main focus of Gen Y anymore as they will have become more powerful in the market because of their influential purchasing power in the future. By that time, only pricing strategy is not enough since they would also like to gain satisfaction from a restaurant. Their satisfaction can be excelled by the coexistence of decent food, good service quality and atmosphere (Ryu & Lee & Woo, 2012). The weighting of quality measurement in Gen Y's consideration also makes up a great proportion. Thus, food and service quality as well as the environment are equally important. Restaurants should avoid making relatively low-price dishes with bad quality. As many studies about sales promotion had suggested, the emphasis on one specific tool especially discounts seems to be too narrow in promotion (Simpson, 2006). Restaurants can consider value-added promotion, which includes sampling and free gifts (Simpson, 2006), to attract customers for their first trial in the restaurant. Moreover, foreign firms should also take cultural difference into account when they are promoting their restaurants. Culture has great influence on how people interpret the promotion message (Cutler et al., 2000; Nikerson & Hoeken, 2003; Simpson, 2006). Success of Michelin in Hong Kong and Macau is anticipated as street food is adopted in the latest Michelin Guide and it is one of the local culinary heritage which is very popular among local people.

Second, Gen Y is a generation of innovation and technology, and this can be seen as an opportunity for Michelin Guide as well as all restaurants to grow popularity among them. According to Consumer Behavior Report (2008), Gen Y participates more in online activities and they are more obsessed to online behaviors (Lester, Forman, & Loyd, 2006; Nusair et.al, 2013). Not only can the restaurants do advertising and promotion through the Internet, but also offer e-menu as well e-guide to gain more attention from consumers. In fact, National Restaurant Association (2016) pointed out that there are menus available in smart phones and 75% of consumers are viewing menus at least a few times a year. Restaurants can also make use of the functions of smartphones nowadays to improve the convenience of consumers. For instance, an app can be created for consumers who offer take-away service and they will receive notification via the app when the food is ready. This can effectively reduce the length of time wasted for waiting the take-away food. Moreover, food guides which help to promote local Food and Beverage industry can offer an online map with nominated restaurants indicating recommended special dishes. Additionally, descriptions and cooking methods can be included in the guide which acts as another point of attraction rather than prices. The more convenience consumers feel like, the more popularity a restaurant is likely to gain in addition to good food quality. With the help of the advanced technology, restaurants are given the opportunity to be more innovative and attract Gen Y.

Since Gen Y will obtain influential purchasing power in the future (Parment, 2013), they should be the target consumers that restaurants put their focus on. Thus, high quality food and service with reasonable prices will be the optimal situation that they are looking for in the future. In addition, restaurants should be more innovative and make good use of technology as Gen Y is a generation of technology. Based on these implications, this paper provides valuable directions and guidelines to the restaurant industry for further development as well as the establishment of new restaurants.

Limitations

While the findings of this research paper is reliable, several limitations exist in this study. First, the conclusions of this paper are mainly based on the questionnaire conducted in Macau. Since it is conducted in only one city with single culture, when one is reading the conclusion, generalization should be avoided since there are many other demographic groups and Gen Y with different cultures can have different opinions and considerations. Further studies can include other demographic groups for further comparison. Second, further exploration on how respondents know about Michelin restaurants can be made since this information can help with the promotion of restaurants to the public especially Gen Y as they are influential customer group in the future (Parment, 2013).

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Apfu10 Tourist Satisfaction with Public Buses in Macao

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Abstract

This study examines tourists' satisfaction with public buses in Macao. Based on the identification of the six performance attributes, an Importance-Performance Analysis is conducted to identify important attributes which need to be prioritized for improvement of the bus service in Macao. Furthermore, service attributes which have significant impact on tourists' satisfaction with general public bus service are identified with a linear regression analysis. The results indicate that the perceived performance of the information dimension and the efficiency and safety dimension are low even though they are considered important. On the other hand, high satisfaction with its convenience is identified as the major strength of Macao's public bus system with high importance. The study also shows cleanliness, efficiency and safety and convenience as the three performance attributes which have significant influence on the tourist overall satisfaction with Macao's public buses.

Keywords: Macao, Perceived performance, Public transport, Public bus, Tourist satisfaction

Introduction

Public transport is one of the indispensable elements for each city. Public transport provides residents and tourists with access to every place. However, most of the transport providers only concern about the local passengers' needs. Tourists' voice on their public transportation experience has been overlooked, and few academic studies have examined this aspect of tourist experience because the majority of the users of public transport are the local people (Thompson & Schofield, 2007). Many studies emphasise that transport and tourism are closely related (Albalate & Bel, 2010; Le-Klähn & Hall, 2014; Parahoo, Harvey, & Radi, 2014; Thompson & Schofield, 2007; Tukamushaba & George, 2014). Albalate and Bel (2010), for example, indicated that mobility is one of considerations when tourists choose a destination. Thompson and Schofield (2007) stated that the quality of public transport could affect the experience of tourist and their overall satisfaction with a destination, which may affect tourist, return intention in the future.

Macao, a famous tourism destination, which is located in the southeastern part of China and near Hong Kong and Zhu Hai, is facing challenges with the public transportation issues in general and public bus problems in particular. With diverse gambling opportunities as well as heritage tourism offerings, such as the Historic Centre of Macao, Macao has been successful in attracting tourists. According to Government of Macao Special Administrative Region (2015), Macao had more than 30 million visitors in 2014. For a city which is slightly over 30km^2, this number indicates that, in order to fulfil the demand of such a large number of tourists, Macao should provide an appropriate transport system to them. As stated above, performance of public transport would have an impact on the tourists' satisfaction as well as future behaviour. Thus, the analysis of public transport in Macao is crucial in that the improvement of transportation service is expected to assist the improvement of overall service provided as parts of Macao's tourism experience.

Macao's public transport system includes taxis and public buses. The Government of Macao proposed the introduction of Macao Light Rapid Transit System (MLRT) in 2003 as a part of the governmental effort to improve people's quality of life (GIT, 2013). However, the construction is still in progress. In order to have an in-depth understanding, this study focuses on the public buses. Macao has three public bus companies: Transmac (Transportes Urbanos de Macao), TCM (Sociedade de Transportes Colectivos de Macao) and Newera (Sociedade de Transportes Públicos Reolian). As of 2009, a total of 73 routes are available in Macao (Transport Bureau of the Macao Special Administrative Region, 2009).

There are studies which analysed the residents' perceived performance of and the satisfaction with public transport; however, few studies investigated the tourists' perceived performance with public buses with additional regional consideration of Macao. To fill in the research gap, the present study investigates the importance and the performance of each attribute of the bus service. The study additionally identifies attributes with significant association with overall satisfaction with Macao's public buses. Research questions for the study are formulated as follows:

1. Which bus service attributes are perceived more important (or less important) for tourists in relation to the perceived performance of each?
2. Which bus service attributes have significant impacts on the tourists' overall satisfaction with Macao's public buses?

Literature Review

Tourist satisfaction with public bus

According to Cambridge Dictionaries online (2015), satisfaction is considered as a pleasant feeling. When individuals acquire what they want to get or when they do something what they want to do, they are likely to be satisfied. Satisfaction has been a key term in academic studies on consumer behaviour, and researchers have attempted to understand this concept from diverse perspectives. For instance, Oliver, Rust, and Varki (1997) indicated that satisfaction is determined by whether or not products or services fulfil customer's expectations. Ranjbarian and Pool (2015) also stated that satisfaction is defined as the difference between expectations and perceived performance. Such a conceptual understanding can be applied to the tourism context. In addition, in tourism, satisfaction has been considered as an important indicator predicting future intention to visit the same place again and recommendation (Phillips, Wolfe, Hodur, & Leistritz, 2013).

In the context of tourist destination experience, tourist overall satisfaction is determined by the synthesis of the satisfaction with each experiential component at the destination. Among them, public transport is one of the elements which is expected to affect tourist satisfaction with their destination experience. Parahoo et al. (2014) asserted the role of public transport in the entire tourist experience, emphasizing that the convenience of public transport at the destination enhances attractiveness of the destination in general. Furthermore, each service attribute of public bus would form the overall public bus experience, while some would affect more significantly than others. In their investigation of tourists using Dubai Metro, Parahoo et al. (2014) tested the effect of perceived quality of public transport on the overall satisfaction with the service. In that sense, overall satisfaction with the public buses in Macao can be considered as a sum of satisfaction with each experiential attribute of them.

Perceived performance and satisfaction

According to Spreng (1999), perceived performance denotes an assessment of the attributes or the outcomes of products or services based on the judgement of the ability that the offering can meet the consumers' needs. Parahoo et al. (2014) indicated the role of perceived service quality in the public transport context as an antecedent of satisfaction. Based on the review conducted by Le-Klähn and Hall (2014), service quality influences visitor choice and satisfaction with public transport.

Based on such a notion, in order to analyse visitor satisfaction with public transport, studies have classified public transport service into several dimensions for further investigation. Accessibility, information, personnel, price, frequency, safety and cleanliness are the factors frequently used in transport performance analysis (Lai & Chen, 2011; Le-Klähn & Hall, 2014; Tukamushaba & George, 2014). Ladki, Shatila, and Ismail (2014) identified six dimensions of public transport performance—safety and efficiency, ease of use, cleanliness, price value, reachable attractions and accessibility. In examining the visitor satisfaction with public transport service in several European cities, Fellesson and Friman (2008) investigated five factors—safety, system, comfort, staff and delivery. Based on the synthesis of the extant literature, this study identifies six dimensions of public bus service—information, personnel, cleanliness, price, efficiency and safety, and accessibility.

Six dimensions of public bus service

1) Information

Tourists rely heavily on the information before and during the visit to a destination, and information is acknowledged as a tourist experiential element as well as a dimension of the public transport service. Kinsella and Caulfield (2011) highlighted the importance of information in public transport usage among the newcomers in Dublin. Edwards and Griffin (2013) asserted that a lack of information deters tourists in Australia from using public transport. Le-Klähn and Hall (2014) also showed a lack of information as the reason for ineffective usage of public transport. Information is especially crucial for tourists because it is the main determinant for active transport usage at the tourist destinations (Le-Klähn & Hall, 2014; Thompson & Schofield, 2007).

2) Personnel

Intangible service delivery process is crucial for the passengers' public bus experience. Staff's attitude and behaviour can be defined as the 'soft' attribute of the experience, which is different from other 'hard' elements such as the cleanliness of the buses and the seats. Studies in this topic have mostly considered the drivers' service quality in this domain (Fellesson & Friman, 2008; Guiver, Lumsdon, Weston, & Ferguson, 2007; Tukamushaba & George, 2014). Le-Klähn and Hall (2014) also emphasized the role of the drivers in that tourists rely on the drivers in confirming bus route information and getting additional information which is not easily available from official information sources. Fellesson and Friman (2008) showed that the drivers' service quality is very important especially for individual tourists. In addition, safe driving and tidiness are considered as other aspects in this domain (Tukamushaba & George, 2014).

3) Cleanliness

From the passengers' points of view, comfortable bus environment is one of the vital characteristics affecting the public bus experience. Previous studies about transport performance analysis have thus included cleanliness attributes. It has been considered as an essential factor to measure the performance of transport (Lai & Chen, 2011; Le-Klähn & Hall, 2014; Tukamushaba & George, 2014). For example, Chang and Lai (2009) considered cleanliness in evaluating Taipei's MRT attractiveness among the inbound tourists. Ladki et al. (2014) also included the cleanliness attribute in measuring the performance of transport in

Lebanon. Noticeably, not only the cleanliness of the vehicle but also the stations and stops were considered in their study.

4) Price

This study identifies bus fare as well as its charging system as two elements of the price, which forms an important dimension of the entire public bus experience. Pointing out that Munich’s relatively expensive public transport system is the source of complaints, Le-Klähn and Hall (2014) stressed that visitors concern about public transport fare. Chang and Lai (2009) also suggested that the public transport fare at the tourist destination is another source of consideration especially among independent travellers due to the limited budget that they have. They also pointed out that tourist passengers concern about the bus charge system. For example, there are different rules in terms of the provision of change. In Hong Kong and Macao, public bus service providers require passenger to prepare the exact fare before boarding, and no change is given. Accordingly, the price is considered as one dimension in understanding the tourists’ experience about Macao’ public buses.

5) Efficiency and safety

In this study, a combination of efficiency and safety is suggested as another dimension. First, the temporal element is focused on in understanding the efficiency aspect of public transport based on the evidence from extant literature. Thompson and Schofield (2007) included punctuality and travel time in measuring the efficiency, and they found out that punctuality and travel time of public transport significantly predict destination satisfaction. In addition, as it is widely known that safety is vital for individuals’ daily life, safety is considered as another aspect in evaluating the public transport system in this study. No matter how punctual the public transport is, the speed of the transport should be controlled in order for the passengers to feel safe. In the investigation by Fellesson and Friman (2008) on the tourist passengers’ concerns, drivers’ behaviour, which affects perceived safety, was identified as an important attribute. According to Parahoo et al. (2014), safety is one of the most crucial considerations for tourists. Lai and Chen (2011), also identified that safety has a significant impact on satisfaction and future intention among the public transit passengers. In sum, this study measures a combination of efficiency and safety elements as an experiential component as well as the predictor of overall satisfaction.

6) Convenience

Tourist passengers are different from the local passengers in that they have a lack of experience in the use of public transport. Even if some local passengers are not the frequent users of the public transport, their familiarity with the surrounding environment enables them to have the ability to recognize landscapes, roads, and bus stops as well as the routes more easily than the tourists. This implies that convenience in using the transport is crucial especially among the tourists. Acknowledging its importance, the accessibility dimension has been included in measuring the transport experience (Chang & Lai, 2009; Le-Klähn & Hall, 2014). Le-Klähn and Hall (2014) asserted the importance of designing an efficient public transport network for tourists so that they can easily get to tourist attractions. Ladki et al. (2014), using the term ‘reachable’, stressed the importance of the accessibility—the ability of the transport network to enable tourists to easily travel to tourist attractions and facilities. In sum, the convenience dimension, which indicates the ability to provide tourists with convenient methods to get to tourist attractions, is included as an important dimension in evaluating the bus service.

Methodology

Data collection procedures

In November 2015, a self-administered survey was conducted for the empirical study in order to examine the tourist satisfaction with Macao's public bus system. In order to approach the largest possible number of tourists using public buses, the survey was conducted at a public bus interchange station in Macao, Praça Ferreira Amaral. It is the station where most tourists who use public buses in Macao approach: Most public buses access this station primarily because it is located at the central spot in Macao. In addition, tourists are likely to have taken a public bus before approaching them at this station because this is the station where many residents and tourists transfer to another bus.

Respondents were approached randomly. Before conducting the survey, the potential respondents were informed of the purpose of the survey. Survey participation was done completely voluntarily. It took about five minutes for the survey participants to complete the questionnaire. Online survey also was conducted because of the time limitation. The online survey was processed in the Google Forms and the content was the same as the paper survey. The survey was sent to a number of non-Macao visitors through social media including Facebook and WeChat.

The survey questionnaire had three sections. First, the respondents were asked screening questions, "Are you a Macao resident?" and "Did you use a public bus in Macao?" before answering the survey. In the first section, respondents who met the requirements were asked to rate the level of importance and performance of the 15 public bus service items. These 15 items were developed based on the previous literature on the similar topic. Items were measured with a seven-point Likert scale. In order to measure the overall satisfaction with the public bus system, one question was asked as follows: "In general, are you satisfied with public buses in Macao?" In the last section, demographic information was collected.

Because of the short waiting time at the bus stop, among the 90 of the tourists who were invited for the survey, only 47 respondents could complete it. In addition, a total of 57 complete responses were collected online. Among the total of 117 collected questionnaires, 104 usable responses were used for the final analysis. The data was analysed through SPSS Version 19.0.

Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) method

One purpose of this study was to analyse overall satisfaction by using Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA). Tukamushaba and George (2014) indicated the incompleteness of evaluating the perceived performance of the service attributes only. Evaluation of the service experience by additionally considering the importance has been acknowledged to provide additional implications. Martilla and James (1977) introduced IPA, which enables the evaluation of the importance and the performance of same attribute at the same time to measure customer satisfaction and to provide directions for service quality improvement as its results. Two axes are displayed in the IPA chart—importance and performance are indicated in the y and x axes, respectively. The matrix is classified into four quadrants: "Concentrate Here", "Keep up the Good Work", "Low Priority" and "Possible Overkill".

Results

Sample profile

Among all the respondents, 60.6% were female and 39.4% were male. Most of the respondents were between the 18 and 24 years of age (70.2%). 73.1 % of respondents were single and 24% were married. The majority of the respondents were university students (62.5%). 74% of the respondents had their monthly income less than HKD$10,000 mostly because of the influence of student participants. Slightly more than three quarters of the respondents identified themselves as leisure travellers (76.9%). (See Table 1 for details.)

Importance-Performance Analysis

Figure 1 shows the result of Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) with the fifteen items in the four dimensions. First, five items were within the "Concentrate Here" category. Both of the two items measuring efficiency and safety, two items from the information dimension—frequency and the route, and the drivers' attitude were identified as the items with high importance and low performance. These five items across the three dimensions are suggested that the government and the bus companies take immediate actions to improve.

Overall, tourists positively responded about the maintenance of the buses as well as the bus stations. Among them, they put more importance on the condition of the buses rather than the bus stations, thus two items measuring the maintenance and the cleanliness of the buses fell into the "Keep up the Good Work" quadrant. In addition, convenience, especially the accessibility to tourist attractions, was also evaluated important with high perceived performance. Tourists also showed high importance and high performance with the information about the bus fare.

Third, two items—communication skills of the bus driver and the availability of the change—were within the "Low Priority" category, with low importance and low performance. Last, four items in four different dimensions were identified as the attributes with high performance with low importance. The results indicated that the respondents perceived announcement and fare as slightly less important than the average and the tidiness of the station as well as the drivers as the attributes which are not so important with higher-than-the-average performance. (See Table 2 and Figure 1 for details.)

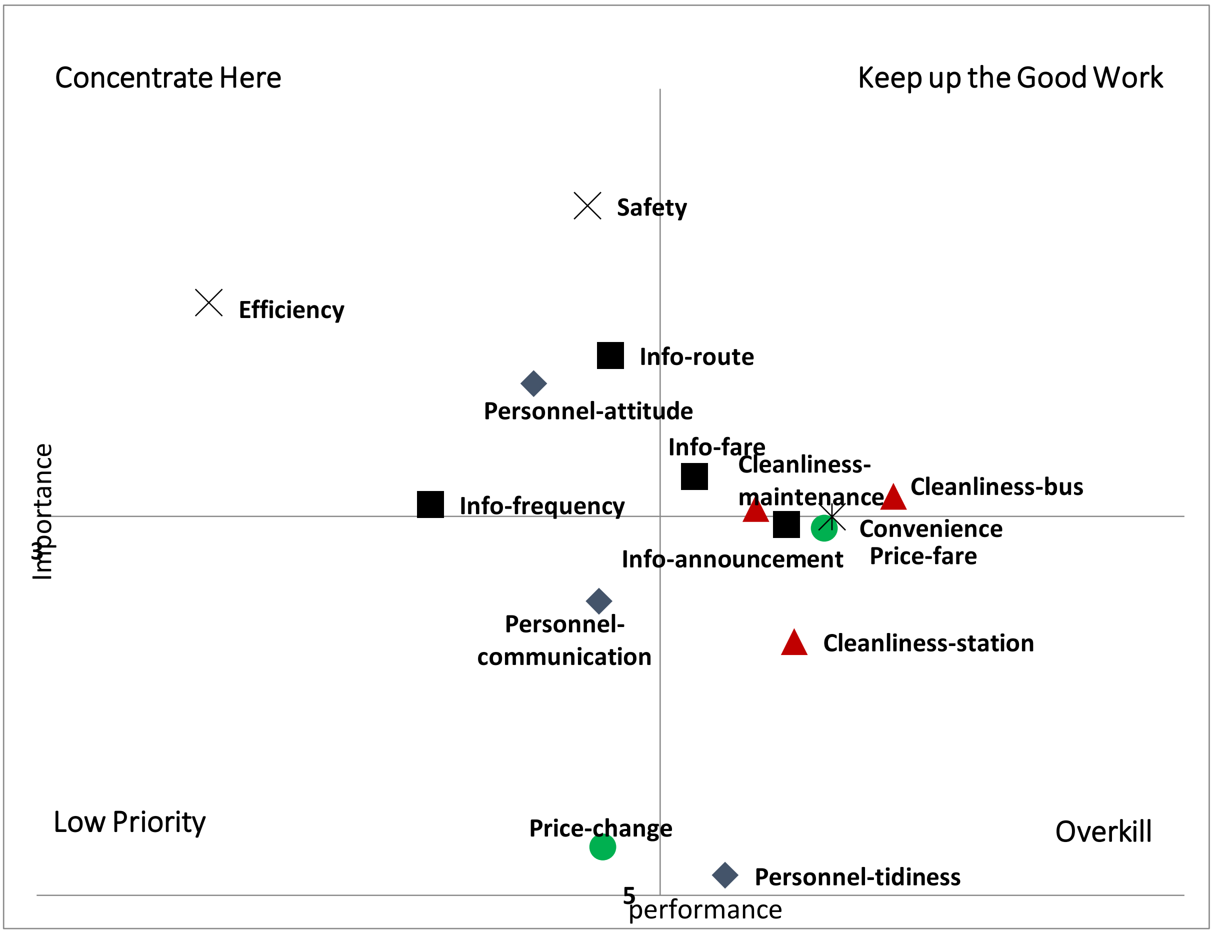
Table 1. Demographic profile of the respondents (n=104)

Variable		Frequency	Percent (%)
Gender	Male	41	39.4
	Female	63	60.6
Age	< 18	1	1.0
	18 – 24	73	70.2
	25 – 34	12	11.5
	35 – 44	8	7.7
	45 – 54	8	7.7
	≥ 55	2	1.9
Marital status	Single	76	73.1
	Married	25	24.0
	Others	3	2.9
Highest level of education completed	Secondary school	28	26.9
	Undergraduate	74	71.2
	Postgraduate	2	1.9
Occupation	Student	65	62.5
	public employees	1	1.0
	business employees	27	26.0
	self-employed	1	1.0
	Retired	2	1.9
	Housewife	4	3.8
	Others	4	3.8
Monthly individual income (HKD)	<10000	77	74.0
	10001-20000	21	20.2
	20001-30000	2	1.9
	30001- 40000	1	1.0
	40001-50000	1	1.0
	>50001	2	1.9
Main purpose of visit to Macao	holiday/leisure	80	76.9
	Business	3	2.9
	visiting friends and relatives	5	4.8
	Others	16	15.4

Table 2. Importance and performance of the items and the dimensions

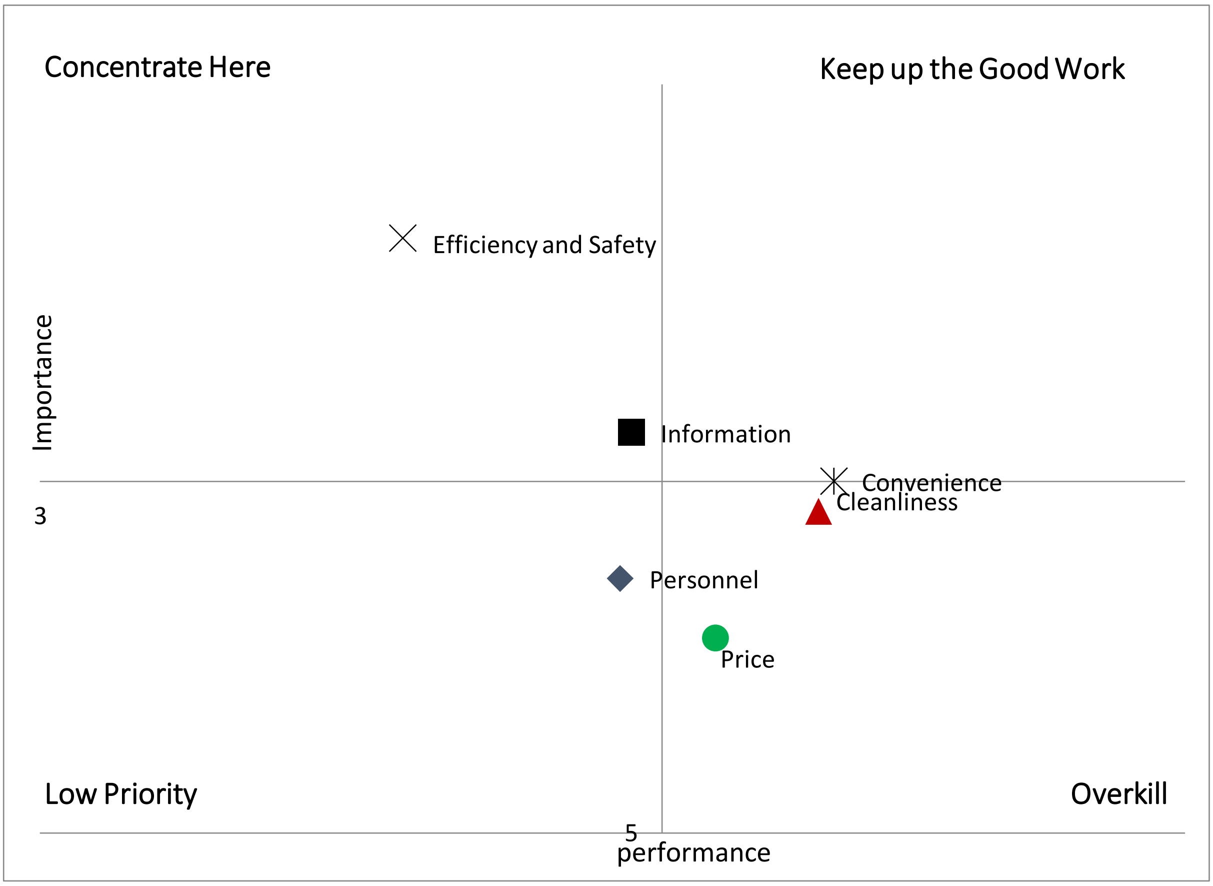
Items / Dimensions	Importance (average)	Performance (average)
Information Dimension	**6.07**	**4.55**
Clear bus route information	6.34	4.50
Clear information about the bus fares	6.04	4.72
Clear information about the frequency of the bus service	5.97	4.03
Clear announcements on the bus	5.92	4.96
Personnel Dimension	**5.68**	**4.52**
Tidiness of bus drivers	5.05	4.80
Language and communication skills of the bus drivers	5.73	4.47
Proper attitude of bus drivers	6.27	4.30
Cleanliness Dimension	**5.86**	**5.04**
Cleanliness of the buses	5.99	5.24
Cleanliness of the bus stations/stops	5.63	4.98
Maintenance of the buses	5.96	4.88
Price Dimension	**5.52**	**4.77**
Acceptable bus fare	5.91	5.06
Availability of change	5.12	4.48
Efficiency and Safety Dimension	**6.59**	**3.95**
Punctuality of service	6.47	3.45
Feeling safe on board	6.71	4.44
Convenience Dimension	**5.94**	**5.08**
Easily to reach tourist attractions by public bus	5.94	5.08
Total Average	**5.94**	**4.63**

Figure 1. Importance-Performance Analysis of the fifteen items



In addition to the IPA by attributes, the same analytical method was used with the aggregate means of the items within each of the six dimensions. In the "Concentrate Here" quadrant, two attributes were identified—efficiency and safety as well as information. Both of the two dimensions were perceived important among the visitors while the perceived performance of the two domains was lower than the average. Immediate improvement is required because these two dimensions were identified as the major weaknesses of Macao public buses. Next, the "Keep up the Good Work" only included the convenience dimension. Tourists put high importance in convenience—accessibility in specific in this context—and the perceived performance of this dimension was also high. The result implies that the convenience dimension of the Macao's public bus is good, and it is the representable strength of Macao's public bus service. One dimension was identified as having the "Low Priority". Tourists did not highly evaluate the performance of the personnel attribute in Macao public buses, while the dimension was not the prioritized dimension for improvement because of its low importance. Last, two dimensions—cleanliness and the price—were identified as having high performance with low importance (i.e., the "Overkill" quadrant.). (See Table 2 and Figure 2 for details.)

Figure 2. Importance-Performance Analysis of the six dimensions



Regression analysis

Next, linear regression was processed to examine the relationship between the independent variables with the dependent variable—tourist overall satisfaction with Macao's public buses. In order to yield implications based on the overall evaluation, the six dimensions were used as six independent variables. Since the VIF of six independent variables were acceptable, none of them were deleted or recoded. The results show that the model explained 47.1% of the variation in the tourist overall satisfaction. The coefficients indicate that cleanliness, efficiency and safety as well as the convenience were significant predictors of overall satisfaction at the alpha level of .05.

The results show that tourists indicate three service dimensions of Macao's public bus are important: efficiency and safety, information as well as the convenience. "Punctuality of service" and "feeling safe on board" were the two indicators for efficiency and safety. The result conforms to what Thompson and Schofield (2007) and Fellesson and Friman (2008) indicated in their previous studies. Such studies stressed that long waiting time is concerned by visitors, and it disrupts original schedule, which causes the complaints among the individual tourists as they use public transportations during their visit. In addition, there is no doubt that people consider safety as an important factor, no matter local passengers or tourist passengers. As was stated by Parahoo et al. (2014), safety is a crucial component in delivering services. Therefore, the finding from the present study supports previous studies which have identified safety as a crucial component of the public bus service. (See Table 3 for details.)

Table 3. Regression coefficient of the public bus service dimensions

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	.103	.626		.165	.869		
Information	.180	.126	.140	1.431	.156	.570	1.756
Personnel	.115	.108	.104	1.063	.290	.569	1.759
Cleanliness	.272	.118	.219	2.305	.023	.606	1.651
Price	-.105	.094	-.093	-1.117	.267	.780	1.281
Efficiency and safety	.320	.096	.328	3.322	.001	.560	1.787
Convenience	.206	.097	.174	2.125	.036	.812	1.232

Discussion

The IPA analysis from this study additionally showed that tourists identified the efficiency and safety dimension of Macao's public transport as showing low performance, suggesting low satisfaction with this domain. Some additional comments during the data collection process with the tourists support what was found through the quantitative analysis. Some respondents indicated that Macao's bus service is not punctual especially during the rush hour and public holidays. Moreover, the drivers' risky driving was additionally identified as the reason for the problem.

The results also revealed that the tourists were concerned about the information provided about the public transport. Although only the item measuring the announcement showed a slightly lower than the average importance, all other items within this domain showed a high level of importance. The result supports the information-extensive nature of the tourism industry. Without the provision of information, it is difficult for visitors to identify which bus stop they should go and which bus they should take. Le-Klähn and Hall (2014) also stated that the main reason for not using public transport is because of a lack of information. Still, in many aspects of information provision appeared to be insufficient. Visitors showed low perceived performance especially with the provision of bus route and bus time table. Additional comments from the visitor during the data collection process also supported that the information about bus route and the waiting time were not clear and enough. Noticeably, Kinsella and Caulfield (2011) showed that visitors identify the information dimension is more important than the safety dimension. However, the results from the present study showed that efficiency and safety dimension was more important than the information dimension. In sum, the study supports the importance of providing tourists with good-quality information about the public bus in Macao.

The last important dimension with high perceived performance about the Macao's public transport service was the convenience dimension. As this study focused on measuring the accessibility to tourist attractions to measure this dimension, the result may reflect the characteristics of Macao, where many major attractions are concentrated. Visitors may perceive that it is easily accessible especially to some iconic attractions such as the Historic Centre of Macao and the resort hotels in Cotai.

The regression analysis showed that three dimensions had significant impact on the tourists' overall satisfaction with Macao's public buses. The result indicates that public bus service providers and the government should concern about the cleanliness, efficiency and safety as well as convenience in order to improve tourists' overall satisfaction with Macao's public bus service.

Conclusion

The present study aimed to investigate the tourists' perceived importance and performance with Macao's public buses and to identify important service attributes that determine overall satisfaction with the bus service. The study identified six dimensions of service attributes of public buses based on the synthesis of the previous studies in similar topics. Based on such identification, the study further found out the important attributes in relation to their performance both by attributes and by the identified dimensions.

The results from the analysis implies that public bus providers are recommended to provide more information about the bus routes by providing leaflets with bus route information at the airport, ferry terminals, bus stations, and also inside the public buses. Moreover, bus drivers are recommended to drive more safely so that the visitors can feel safe on board. On the other hand, Macao's bus service can "keep up the good work" with regards to its convenience in general and the accessibility to the attractions in particular. The service providers are suggested that they maintain such advantages to achieve competitive advantage in the tourism industry. Although the personnel dimension in general was identified as having "low priority", attribute-level analysis revealed that bus drivers should maintain proper attitude when they interact with the tourist passengers. Cleanliness and price attribute were identified as possible overkill. Visitors were satisfied with these domains, and the importance in these dimensions was identified as less important than the average. The results showed that cleanliness and price might not need to be prioritized in the near future, and the low bus fare can be one of the strongest elements that can attract tourists to use the local public buses more.

Last, results from the regression analysis imply that cleanliness, efficiency and safety, and the convenience dimensions should be emphasized if the bus service providers are to enhance the overall satisfaction.

This study was carefully designed based on the relevant literature and previous studies on public transport for tourists. However, there are some limitations in this study, which may provide direction for future studies. Above all, because of a lack of human resources for data collection and the difficulty in the process of data collection mainly due to the short waiting time for tourists before taking the bus, the study ran the risk of utilizing a sample which might not represent all the tourists who use public buses in Macao. Future studies with enhanced sampling methods and more samples would yield results with better validity. Despite such a limitation, the present study provided insights into the tourists' public bus experience in Macao, which would provide managerial implications which can be considered immediately if the local bus companies and the government intend to provide better bus service in particular and the tourism experience in general.

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Apfu11 A Narrative Analysis of Leisure Travel Experiences of Filipino Youth

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Abstract

This qualitative study explores the complex meaning-making process of Filipino youth in defining meaningful leisure travel through the analysis of their narratives of ideal and actual travel experiences. In-depth interviews were conducted with young Filipino travelers, aged 18-25 to gather narratives that illustrate both their ideal and actual leisure travel experiences.

Results show that there is no single picture of an ideal leisure travel. Furthermore, findings of the study clearly illustrate that a traveler's intrapersonal meaning making process is neither linear nor a unidirectional cycle. Sense and meaning making of leisure travel among Filipino youth is a complex, big, and confusing web where the lines between actual and ideal travel are blurred and cannot be detached from one another. Based on the findings, the tourism industry should foster an encouraging atmosphere where travel becomes leisure in its fullest sense for each individual, without the pressure of fulfilling the "perfect" experience.

Keywords: Expectations, Filipino Youth, Intrapersonal Communication, Leisure Travel, Meaning-making, Tourism

Introduction

In 2010, it was reported in the Household Survey on Domestic Visitors that 36.6% of the estimated 63.2 million Filipinos above the age of 14 have traveled within the Philippines from April to September of the same year. More than half (53.3%) traveled for pleasure or vacation purposes, and 36.9% to visit friends and relatives. There are reports such as of Contiki's, a world-leading travel agency for youth ages 18- to 35-year-olds, on the Philippines being one of its top Asian markets that has suggested an upsurge of Filipino young travellers domestically and abroad (Abadilla, 2014). The Filipino youth constitutes a significant number in the country's population and their role in the growth of domestic tourism would therefore be notable.

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

Several definitions of leisure travel may arise across groups of people, but a unique meaning may be formed in an individual's own interpretive frame (Krauss, 2005). As different perspectives arise from collaborating with society through social media and personal communication transactions, an individual's own cognitive processes still play the most significant role in meaning making (Garfat, 2004). Meaning is created as individualized experiences are encountered (Garfat, 2004). Additionally, culture, personal history, sequencing and specific circumstance all contribute to an individual's interpretation of experiences in the process of meaning making (Guttman, 1991 as cited in Garfat, 2004).

Related literature

Production and reproduction of tourist places in media cultures resulted to destinations' inscription with specific "imaginative geographies". Thus, it may be drawn that the image of tourist destinations are neither fixed nor stagnant and changes meaning over time (Urry, 2011). Advancement in technology has also revolutionized the way destination images are formed, communicated and expected.

Social media allow the youth to "perform" and develop an altered social interaction, allowing more involvement in collective online experiences and helping validate a sense of reality. Young people attempt to match their online "performance" with their vision of where they want to be situated within the social world (Boyd, 2007). According to Del Rosario and Marinduque (2010), a destination's projected image in the media sets higher expectation from the consumers, however, unmet expectations may lead to dissatisfaction. As such, consumers with expectations are more difficult to impress (Buhalis & Law, 2008).

This study acknowledges the contribution of social media, a platform that provides space for both communication and community building, in strengthening the perceptions about a travel product (Lange-Faria & Elliot, 2012) and setting the travel expectations and aspirations of the youth. However, the researchers also recognize that there may be a discrepancy between what social media dictate and what the individual holds as valuable. Furthermore, the meaning of leisure travel is individualistic and is highly based on an individual's personality (Venkatesh, 2006).This study will explore how this discrepancy between the ideal and actual experiences and how these two different thoughts are processed and given meaning in the mind of a young traveler.

The concept of leisure travel has widely been studied across different areas of research, however, these studies used different meanings to define leisure travel which made their approach different from one another as well. Previous studies have defined leisure travel as the absence of work-related obligations (Venkatesh, 2006) and more varied in terms of purpose and participation as compared to usual everyday activities (LaMondia & Baht, 2012).

Different types of traveling for leisure have also emerged in previous investigations. Pleasure vacation, an expensive and ego-based leisure activity, is most likely to occur when the purpose is relaxation (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984). While pleasure vacation is expensive, usually well-planned and not likely to be spontaneous, "city break", another type of leisure travel is short in duration, and involves traveling to neighboring countries as couples or groups of friends (Dunne, Flanagan & Buckley, 2011). Repeat vacations are usually planned if travelers seek relaxation, but for those seeking new cultural experiences, a traveler is most likely to visit new destinations (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984). As such, the evaluation of a travel experience is important in determining an individual's future travel decisions.

Previous studies have measured tourist's final evaluation and satisfaction of different travel experiences. A popular approach to studying tourist satisfaction is by looking at a specific travel service where particular facilities, activities and resources are evaluated separately by tourists. Researchers have argued that while tourists, in fact, have different responses throughout the stages of the trip, a holistic approach is preferred because it captures the travel experience as a whole and not as separate services (Armario, 2008; Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Hayashi & Fujihara, 2012).

Motivations consist of push and pull factors. Push factors are those felt by the tourist internally, like emotional experiences (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010) such as fun, health, relaxation and adventure, as well as social experiences with family and friends. Pull factors are tangible characteristics of the trip itself, like cultural and gastronomical experiences, as well as attractiveness of the destination.

One study found that among the different travel motivations, common themes include health restoration, novel experience and positive arousal. (Hayashi & Fujihara, 2013). While motivations remain an important factor in tourist satisfaction, activities are also major contributors to tourist satisfaction (Armario, 2008). According to Armario, tourist satisfaction relies heavily on motivation and activities, called *antecedents.* Relaxation, fun and pleasure are the most influential motives (Armario, 2008). Furthermore, it was found that a more holistic satisfaction is attained when tourists feel the strong presence of three major dimensions of emotions in their travel -- joy, love, and positive surprise- towards a destination (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010).

By observing the related literature, the researchers are able to conclude that there is no unified definition of what leisure travel is. Thus, this study uses the idea that leisure travel is an individualized experience whose meaning varies from one persons to another. The study at hand provides a new approach into assessing travel experience that could help both the travel consumer and service providers. It can help the consumers, especially young tourists, by providing insight on how travel expectations are formed and managed to ensure a better holistic travel experience. On the other hand, it can help travel service providers by giving them ideas on how to improve their service to cater tourists' motivations and needs.

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

Anchored on Harvey's (2004) Simplified Model of Leisure Experience (see Figure 1) which is an integration of expectancy value theory and recreational activity, this study combines the concepts of meaning making in the building of ideal travel experiences.

The expectancy-value approach to recreational activity assumes that people generally know what they like and what they perceive as good and beneficial. The preferences they form are based in "genetically encoded physiological needs or learned responses to experiential cause and effect sequences" (More & Kuentzel, 1999, p. 5). The goal-driven nature of expectancy-value theory rely on the use of people's reflective cognitive processes in discerning whether perceived values or *expectations* of a recreational situation will satisfy one's desired recreation activities. Because people are motivated by their preferred recreation experience, their actions aimed at selecting the activity that will meet these expectations (Baker, 2008).

Expectations further come into play when an individual assesses his actual recreational or travel experience. Evaluation of the individual's actual experience is how the experience caused positive or negative affect. In other words, evaluation is the determination of expectations that were met or unmet (Rayburn, 1984). Evaluation will emerge through the mediating process of intrapersonal communication wherein the individual engages in an internal discourse as both his or her expectations of travel experience and actual travel experience are assessed.

Based on Harvey's simplified model of leisure experience, the framework of this study considers the individual's process of intrapersonal communication when evaluating his actual travel experience given his expectations of travel. As can be observed in Figure 1, expectations and actual experience occupy both sides of intrapersonal communication. This signifies the requirement of intrapersonal communication that an individual engage in a conversation with one's self to consider two modes of thinking (Littlejohn & Foss, 2009).

Actual experience are assessed in relation to expectations through the back-and-forth process of intrapersonal communication which yields a final evaluation. The entire model is enclosed within the social environment to recognize that while the process remains within the individual alone, the process is not isolated from societal influences. Expectations and experience still occur within the social context. A connection of social media to expectations is represented through an unshaded arrow as a function of social environment that will be considered in the formation of expectations. This is anchored on the assumptions of the Social Learning Theory. The theory centers on the learning that ensue in a social context, and includes the concepts of observational learning, imitation, and modelling ("Social Learning Theory", n.d.). According to Bandura (1977), individuals can learn through observation alone, and imitation is not a precondition for learning to occur. Instead, learning may or may not translate into performance or behavior change.

As social interaction is enhanced by social media, the opportunity for sharing travel-related experiences also widen. As a result, expectations of an ideal travel experience are raised, making them more difficult to satisfy. In some cases that these desired ideals are not realized, tourists "may reconcile their experience preference with their actual experience by reducing the importance" of the unmet expectation (Baker, 2008, p.55). Human experiences are made meaningful through the process of sensemaking (Brown, Stacey & Nandhakumar, 2008) wherein 'individuals attempt to make sense of ambiguous stimuli in ways that respond to their own identity needs' (Coopey et al., 1997, p. 312).

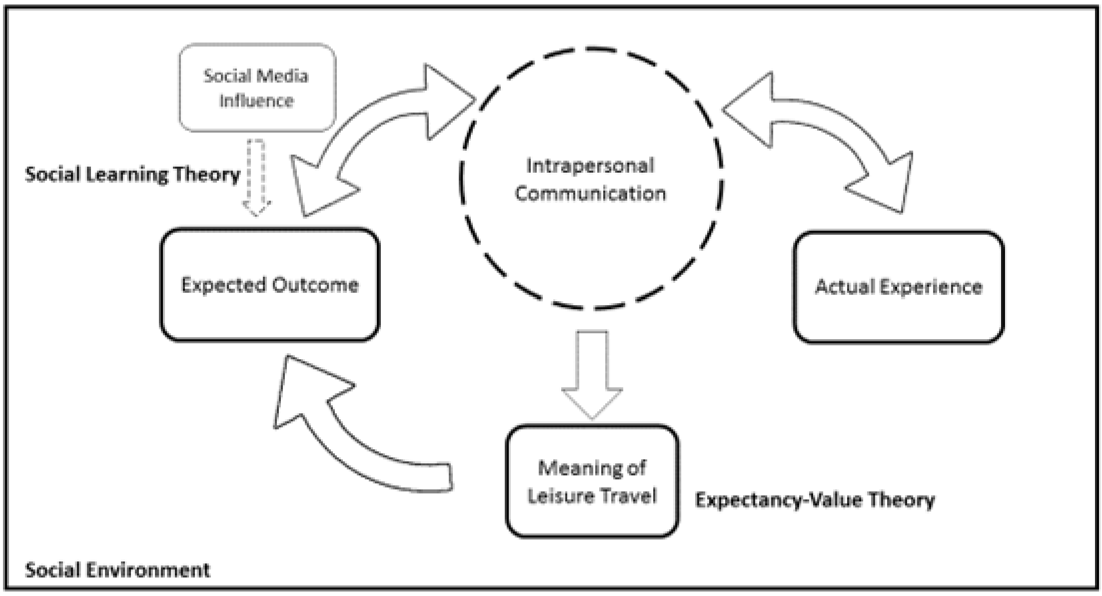

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework adapted from
Harvey's Simplified Model of Leisure Experience (2004)

Method

This study is exploratory in nature, utilizing qualitative research methods. The study focused on gathering insights from young adults as a result of the growing market in youth tourism. The researchers conducted in-depth interviews to seven (7) young adults of ages 18-25 residing in the Philippines' Greater Manila Area. The informants were selected through purposive sampling, following the main criteria that they travel frequently, particularly taking several short-term international and domestic vacations each year. Selected informants were well-traveled with different motivations and preferred types of leisure travel, and were also actively immersed in social media. With the consent of the informants, the interviews were recorded and transcribed accordingly.

The informants were first asked for information about their previous leisure travels and their motivations for traveling. The bulk of the interviews asked for the informants' ideal leisure travel and actual travel experiences in the past. The informants were asked to share stories of how they envision spending their "dream" destination. From these narratives, the interviewers made follow up questions to further get a wider picture of the informant's ideal travel experiences, with questions asking who informants would wish to be with, what activities they want to do and even how long the vacation would ideally last. To gather insight on the travelers' actual travel experiences and evaluations, many questions were aimed at gathering stories of the informants' most and least favorite travel experiences. By asking them how their most and least favorite travel experiences played out in the past, the researchers were able to identify narrative elements that paint a picture of how the travelers processed their experiences on an intrapersonal level. The questions were specifically designed to encourage informants to respond through story-telling because narrative elements remain crucial in having a more holistic analysis of this study.

Once the transcription of interviews were complete, the researchers did a primary review of the transcripts. Open coding or an initial process of coding by examining the data thoroughly and line by line (Strauss, 1987) was done to produce codes and themes and categories surfaced fit for the study. Initial codes were developed following the narrative elements of: character themes, action themes, setting and outcome. Data, including quotations under each overarching category or theme, were placed under the corresponding research objectives. The product is a narrative that illustrates both the ideal leisure travel and actual leisure travel experiences of the Filipino youth, and the complex process that happens within the youth to give significant leisure travel a meaning.

Findings

A. #TravelBucketList: The Filipino's ideal leisure travel

1. The Globetrotters: Different types of travelers that emerged all share the same goal of maximizing the vacation by making the most out of every moment

The ideal travel experience is one that can be maximized in every way. Each opportunity to travel is an experience that can never be repeated again, thus should be enjoyed as much as possible. In achieving the goal of maximizing the travel, several types of travelers emerged from the informants. There are spontaneous travelers who appreciate the flexibility of not having a distinct set of plans. They enjoy the freedom of being able to *"ride a train and go to wherever"* (Miguel, 19) and to tailor their trip as they go along. Backpacking is a type of travel which involves *"figuring out things on your own"* (Ren, 22). Plans are loosely made and sometimes, there are no plans made at all.

In effect, they are not bound by time or schedule because their itinerary is fluid. Spontaneous travelers also associate it with discomfort, because it pushes them out of their comfort zone and into uncertainty. This is ideal travel for them, one that also challenges them greatly. These informants feel a sense of satisfaction from overcoming the challenges and enjoying the thrill of uncertainty.

Although spontaneous traveling offers big advantages, some travelers are wary of this because of certain risks. While uncertainty serves as an exciting thrill to spontaneous travelers, those who are more deliberate when traveling are vigilant against scams that may happen when vacations are not planned well. It may be an exciting travel spontaneously but deliberate travelers tend to put more consideration into the planning of the trip in order to avoid unfortunate circumstances.

Having a vast number of activities to do and places to see, it can be tempting to rush from one place to the next. However, great moments can be missed because they are rushed. The danger of wanting to do everything immediately however, is missing to live in the moment and allowing it to pass by.

In the end, these types of travelers all seek to satisfy one goal and that is to maximize their trip. They may have different ways to achieve that goal but ultimately, whatever type of Globetrotter they are, their ideal travel is one that they can fully make the most out of.

2. Squad Goals: Ideal traveling companions may vary but travelers always seek harmony and avoid conflict.

Leisure travel becomes a social affair that involves traveling companions. Whether traveling alone to meet new people or in a group with whom you're close, the presence of other people is always sought in one way or another because having harmonious relationships with travel companions enhance the entire travel experience. Some informants enjoy their travel more when shared with 'travel buddies' like family and friends, thus experiences are made more meaningful.

However, there are some important standards in choosing the ideal traveling companions. Most of the informants prefer traveling with people who are *"not a buzzkill, not a kill joy"* (Bam, 23), *"not the picky ones"* (Rafael, 25), does not 'get tired and get bored easily' (Anna, 20), and not *"picky"* (Mayumi, 22). For these informants, traveling with companions who are eager is most ideal to ensure an enjoyable vacation. More importantly, traveling companions should be in the same '*wavelength*', making sure that you *"click"* with the people you travel with (Miguel, 19). Traveling with ideal companions who fit these categories ensure harmonious relationships that encourage the group to really enjoy the leisure travel.

Furthermore by having travel companions who share the same interest, the leisure of travel would be emphasized more and that one's desire to *"have a good time"* would be achieved. This is contrasted to being with people who tire easily, which sometimes leads to cutting the day of traveling short in order to rest. However, the affinity of relationship with an ideal travel companion varies from an informant to another. One informant finds pleasure in making acquaintances with new people and getting to know the local community of the destination he is visiting as a means of immersing himself deeper into their culture.

Additionally, those who enjoy traveling alone would prefer meeting fellow travelers as they continue their vacation rather than traveling with family and friends. For them, conflicts arise more frequently when traveling with people they are close to. Traveling with other people who have different interests may be quite challenging especially when deciding on what activities should be done or what places to visit. By meeting new people, one is able to socialize with others without the committing to them and reducing the risk of conflict. An informant shared that her ideal trip is one that allows her to enjoy travel as a social affair by meeting spontaneous travelers like her but also gives her the space to enjoy some alone time. Having experienced much conflict with her traveling companions in the past, she prefers traveling alone which has become her ideal travel.

Overall, traveling companions remain an important element in the informants' image of an ideal leisure travel. Being with the right people undoubtedly takes an experience to a whole new level. Different informants seek different companions but seeking out harmonious relationships and avoiding conflict with travel companions make for an ideal travel experience.

3. What I Want: Ideal travel destinations are anchored in the interests of the youth

Appreciation of vacation trips is primarily anchored in the interests of the traveler. What is enjoyable for one traveler is a sacrifice for another. While the physical attractiveness of a place is often considered as an important pull factor in choosing an ideal travel destination (Hosany & Glbert, 2010), most of the informant are more interested in the capability of a destination to cater to their hobbies. More often than not, they choose a place where they can do certain activities that they are interested in. That said, ideal travel destination of the informants reflect their varying interests.

Despite their varying interest in destination choices, the informants all wish to have a taste of the authentic local experience. Instead of just being spectators passing through destinations and appreciating from afar, the informants expressed their desire to be thoroughly immersed in the culture. For the informants, cuisine is a very big part of culture and being enthusiasts of food, they excitedly spoke of the different kinds of local food they want to try.

It is evident that the interests of the youth are given much importance when deciding on where they would want to travel. While the qualities of the environment contribute to an individual's desire to travel to a certain area, the idea of leisure is still individualistic and is, therefore, more affected by personality than environmental factors (Venkatesh, 2006).

4. Picture Perfect: Social media is a curation of beautiful photos that contributes to the picture of what ideal travel is.

Media appears to play a major role in the formation of the informants' ideal travel because it serves as a propagator of the picture of an ideal leisure travel. Through this, media helps in the formation of the informants' expectations on what a destination should look like and how a leisure travel should go. Media creates an illusion of a "picture perfect" travel. Social media has the tendency to create an illusion through the manipulation of reality. In this way, tourists *"expect greater things about the place"* (Bam, 23).

Aside from illusion, social media also provide transparency to travelers. Content posted on social media differ from commercials and paid advertisements in a way that its users offer a fair assessment of a destination. Because of the afforded opportunity to voice their opinion without being censored and sounding like "a salesperson" (Bam, 23), social media users do not feel the need to disguise or sugarcoat their true appraisal of a place.

Use of social media goes beyond scouting for travel destination and activities as it becomes an online diary during and after a trip. Publishing or posting pictures of the travel on social media has turned into a customary show of proof that the trip occurred.

In a way, these travelers become part of the cycle that creates an image of the ideal travel by contributing their travel experiences on social media themselves. Production and reproduction of tourist places in media cultures resulted to destinations' inscription with specific "imaginative geographies" (Urry, 2011). In line with this, Del Rosario and Marinduque (2010) found out that a destination's projected image in the media sets higher expectation from the consumers, however, unmet expectations may lead to dissatisfaction. As such, consumers with expectations are more difficult to impress (Buhalis & Law, 2008).

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

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

1. Natural navigator: Travelers make an effort to maximize travel opportunity and even fulfill their ideal travel experience.

Some informants remained consistent in illustrating their ideal leisure travel and describing their actual past experiences. Those who regard spontaneous travel for their ideal vacation have had many experiences of traveling without any specific plans in the past. Their trips are not entirely unplanned because most instances start with one concrete decision, but these decisions are followed by instinctive choices.

Among their reasons for engaging in this type of travel were instinct, mutual decision with a traveling companion for a spur-of-the-moment travel. Eventually, these individuals become *que sera sera* travelers whose activities were all spontaneously done. Some spontaneous travelers enjoy the thrill of getting to decide their activities as they went along. On the other hand, some experience the opposite when unexpected problems arise due to the lack of careful planning. In these cases, travelers are left feeling frustrated rather than thrilled.

In contrast, some individuals who have only experienced well-planned trips with their families dream of traveling spontaneously through backpacking. Deviating from laid out plans and capitalizing on the flexibility of spontaneous travel appeal to them. On top of that, they are excited by the idea of encountering and overcoming the challenges that come with unplanned travels, which they are never able to experience when travelling with family members.

As a whole, there is no one true type of traveler no matter how much they want to achieve their desired travel experience. Travelers attempt to fulfill their ideal travel but it is not always brought to fruition, sometimes because of their companions and other times due to reasons out of their control. Furthermore, people do not entirely stay true to their persona as a traveler because spontaneous moments happen in deliberate travel, and some deliberate decisions are needed to be made in spontaneous travel. Although at times very minimal, the “other type” in the two types of travel occurs.

2. Intuitive Itinerary: Travel companions are chosen based on the kind of travel and motivations of the traveler.

Those who prefer traveling alone tend to build relationships with new people. In fulfillment of their ideal travel, they seek out the companionship of strangers and new acquaintances for an experience that they would otherwise not acquire with friends or family. There is also the absence of expectations that go with traveling in the company of strangers.

On the other hand, travelers who seek the companion of family and close friends have enjoyed past travel/s with them and hope to further deepen the bond of their relationship. For these informants, it was the company of people with whom they are close that made the experience But because of existing mutual experience, a set of expectations come with this kind of traveling arrangement, which if not met, may result in conflict. This is consistent with Hosany & Gilbert (2010)’s notion that a traveler who is deeply rooted in motivations to travel such as relationship with family and friends, relax, enjoyment, etc., draw better satisfaction from travel when expectations are met. For the informants whose motivation is to enrich connection with family and friends, gratification is greatly achieved upon fulfillment of that purpose. When the goal of strengthening relationships is not reached and conflict occurred instead, travelers are reluctant for the same travel layout in the future and become willing to sacrifice the opportunity to share moments with friends and family in preservation of relationships.

Similarly, travel is an opportunity to socialize but actual experiences with companions may not always lead to fulfillment. Because experience becomes shared, companions affect actual experiences, as well as the youth’s attitude towards the experience. When conflicts arise with familiar companions, the fault is always seen to be committed not by themselves but by the other party involved. They process and evaluate the experience and resolve to prevent it from happening again.

Conversely, some travelers who yearn to share some travel experiences with the right people may also feel the need to travel alone. One motivation for traveling solo is personal hardship. Heartbreak, in particular, appears to be a powerful driving force for the informants to engage in leisure travel. For them, it is a form of escapism where they can be physically far the problem and focus on themselves by soul-searching.

That being said, there are still certain experiences that travelers want to share with familiar companions. It is just a matter of choosing the right circumstance for the right companions. This is in harmony with their notion of an ideal companion, with whom they share the same wavelength and level of appreciation.

3. Let's get physical: Traveling is physically taxing and not smooth sailing but travelers try to find the good in every opportunity.

For all the informants, the initial feeling they have after a trip is physically exhausted. While all of them enjoy traveling in whatever form -- spontaneous or deliberate travelers, solo or with company, not even the number of activities done in a day changes the fact that traveling is physically taxing (Bam, 23). They initially felt tired, regardless of their satisfaction of the trip (Ren, 22). However, there are some experiences that travelers feel are not worth the exhaustion. These experiences are those that do not meet expectations and lead to dissatisfaction of travelers. Furthermore, their desire to achieve the ideal travel of maximizing opportunities results in great frustration over missed chances, making some experiences the traveler's least favorite.

Additionally, frustration does not just arise from unmet expectations of destinations or activities but also with companions. As ideal companions are those that are eager to travel and are compatible with the traveler, frustration stems from travel companions who do not meet this criteria. Travelers not only feel dissatisfied but wish to not have the same experience again. On the contrary, there are travel experiences that are worth being physically exhausted. The feeling of satisfaction compensates for physical exhaustion. It also causes travelers to seek more of these gratifying experiences and look forward to having the same experience again in the future.

Furthermore, satisfaction from experiences does not just root from perfect travels and met expectations. Sometimes difficulties that arise make the experience more satisfying because of the rewarding feeling that results from overcoming challenges like a *"mission accomplished"* (Miguel, 19). Despite the roadblocks and challenges that they faced in their previous travel experience, they can still draw something good from that experience to say that it was still worth it.

Sometimes, it can be the rewarding feeling of overcoming a simple challenge like finally reaching the destination you wanted to witness. There is also a heightened sense of appreciation for overcoming challenges with the help from unexpected companions. At times, it need not even be the highlight of your travel but it still brings a sense of fulfillment for overcoming that challenge. This satisfaction can root from the type of ideal experience the travelers seek, like spontaneous travelers who find pleasure in facing challenges from uncertainty.

Depending on the final assessment of a travel experience, physical exhaustion may or may not be considered a negative outcome. As found, the feeling of being tired is usually disregarded when the traveler felt satisfied in most part of the trip, however, tiredness may equate to negative attitude towards an experience if the traveler was not fulfilled.

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

C. Round and round: The complexity of leisure travel sensemaking

3. It's Complicated: Constructing the meaning of leisure travel is not a unidirectional process but is a complicated web.

In looking at the construction of meaning through ideal and actual travel experiences of individuals, it was found that the overall process is not linear. It is nearly impossible to pinpoint the starting and ending point of the sense-making process because you cannot isolate ideal travel experiences from the actual. However, it is also worth noting that as it is a cyclical process, it is not a unidirectional cycle. While it holds true that the ideal travel experience sets expectations, the process of meaning making is more than just the convergence of expectations and actual experiences. When mapped out the process might look like a complicated web where travel ideals are shaped by actual experiences but actual experiences also result from planning based on ideal expectations. As an observation of the two previous objectives, it was found that negative experiences do not always equate to negative attitudes toward the experiences. The travelers shared their memorable experiences that were far from their ideal travel expectations. Some travelers even had a difficult time choosing a least favorite travel experience because despite the challenges, they were able to draw the positive in each one.

In line with Bandura's concept of self-regulation which suggests that individuals can control their own behaviors through envisioning self-generated consequences, some travelers shared that despite the few *"tiny problems"* (Dessa, 23) opposite of their expectations, they want to have the same experience again in the future but with better foresight on how to avoid the challenges. Similarly, those who had experiences that lived up to their expectations also want to experience the same thing again because of the gratifying feeling.

However, despite the attainment of travel expectations, some experiences are those that should not be repeated again to preserve the memory of a very unique trip. While most travelers wish to continually achieve their travel expectations, one in particular wishes to keep his memories of that one experience "*untarnished"* by not experiencing it again.

It seems that travelers are highly motivated not only by their expectations but from the push and pull factors that they seek which are not necessarily their ideal travel. With socialization being an apparent push factor for their travels, individuals seek appropriate companions for varying activities in order to make the most out of each experience. When new experiences are desired, travelers seek to make acquaintances with strangers and fellow travelers. On the other hand, those who seek to deepen relationships pursue the companionship of friends and family. At times, however, travel becomes a solitary experience which allows them to escape and focus on themselves. In total, these motivating factors, varied as they are, become anchors for appreciation of each unique travel experience.

2. Beyond the Luggage: Ideal travel does not restrict attitude towards an actual experience

Although the picture of an ideal travel is crucial in evaluating an actual experience, it does not confine the attitude of a Filipino youth towards a specific experience. Although one of the informants prefer to travel alone, she still appreciated and enjoyed the company of other people in one of her travels.

This shows that while traveling solo is an ideal way of traveling to avoid conflicts, being with other people in a trip does not necessarily equate to disappointment and dissatisfaction. The same informant further illustrated this claim by feeling disappointed, instead of fulfilled, when she was alone in one of her leisure travels.

Although the ideal leisure travel may set the standard in the evaluation of actual experiences that would follow, it does not necessarily confine the satisfaction of a travel. As such, even if travel ideals are not satisfied, the traveler still finds something in a trip that is worth remembering.

3. Ideal travel may or may not be tainted by actual experiences

When the informants were asked to illustrate their ideal leisure travel, two types of answer emerged. One emerged from both the negative and positive past experiences of the informants, while the other was not necessarily experienced before and was more of a dream- impossible and too good to be true.

The first type of ideal leisure travel is tainted by actual experiences. These experiences in the past may either be negative or positive which have been evaluated in the mind of the traveler to come up with a new whole meaning of travel, which in turn became their ideal travel.

Some of the informants who are contented with the way they have traveled in the past and considered the outcomes as positive had the desire to repeat the same experience by continuing to travel the same way. For example, an informant who already have established her identity as a traveler- spontaneous backpacker, wished to remain a backpacker in her future travels. However, the desire to travel in a certain manner may also root from negative outcomes in the past like being in an argument with a fellow traveler.

On the contrary, one informant who experienced traveling alone did not like the experience because he felt detached from other people. This negative attitude towards solo traveling was heightened by the traveler’s desire of meeting new people. Later on, he realized that he wants to spend leisure travels with people close to him.

Another type of ideal travel, which may be more appropriately called ‘dream travel’, emerged from the interviews. When they were asked to illustrate their ideal travel without thinking of any constraints in resources (i.e. all-expenses paid, no time limit, etc.), most of the informants answered that they would like to go to places that they haven’t had the chance to visit in the past. One popular destination was Europe because, “it’s expensive” (Ren, 22), “it’s easy to go to other countries” (Bam, 23), and “it’s the gateway to Europe” (Miguel, 19). As such, there are travel ideals which could be drawn out from social influences alone, without the taint of actual experiences in the past.

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

Summary of findings

Findings of the study reveal that there is no single picture of an ideal leisure travel. Several types of travelers emerged from their ideal travel but are unified in that they seek the goal of maximizing every travel opportunity. Additionally, socialization remains a key factor in their ideal travel but affinity and degree of interaction vary. Ideal destinations are anchored in activities the traveler wishes to experience. All these findings are in line with the expectancy-value approach to recreational activity which assumes that people generally know what they like and what they perceive as good and beneficial (Harvey, 2004), travelers have different requirements in their description of an ideal travel. However, it can be drawn out that the things that they find essential in a leisure travel are highly individualistic and are anchored in their specific interests (Venkatesh, 2006). Social media serves as a source of inspiration for the ideal travel because it offers transparency however travelers are aware of its deceptive nature.

Furthermore, when travelers have a set of motivations and factors sought out by the individual, they become more specific with their evaluation of actual travel experiences (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010). There is a conscious effort on the part of the traveler to maximize travel opportunities and to achieve their ideal travel. When these expectations are attained, there is satisfaction, as expectancy-value posits. There are instances, however, when expectations are not met and the traveler is forced to embody the persona of a different types of traveler. The study found that unmet expectations do not necessarily result to dissatisfied travelers. Any experience is very personal to each individual as an “active self,” (Sandelowski, 1991) and travelers tend to construct meaning to each one (Krauss, 2005), thus allowing them to find good in every experience, often making challenging situations worth it. Likewise, the meaning of travel is not anchored on the positive experiences alone but also shaped by the negative experiences of the individual.

Supporting the integrated framework used in this study, the process of sensemaking through intrapersonal communication was found out to be a cyclical process where the starting and endpoints are unclear. When mapped out the process might look like a complicated web where travel ideals are shaped by actual experiences but actual experiences also result from planning based on ideal expectations. Moreover, the process does not end for the evaluation that results from sensemaking is used further for another cycle of leisure travel assessment.

Conclusion and implications

In contrast with the linear nature of expectancy value theory, findings of the study clearly illustrate that a traveler's intrapersonal meaning making process is neither linear nor a unidirectional cycle. Aside from the actual and ideal travel, there are many other social contextual factors that play in the construction of leisure travel assessment. There's something outside the experience that affects the process of meaning-making which cannot be wholly quantified and attributed alone to media and social contact.

Sense and meaning making of leisure travel among Filipino youth is a complex, big, and confusing web where the lines between actual and ideal travel are blurred and cannot be detached from one another.

Based on the findings, the tourism industry is recommended to allow young individuals to enjoy their travels without any pressure of living the ideal, perfect travel experience. Rather than insisting travelers to have ideal, "perfect" travel experiences, the industry should foster an encouraging atmosphere where travel becomes leisure in its fullest sense for each individual.

Recommendations

It is recommended for future research to delve into an individual's process of meaning making through discourse analysis by looking at the form and language used by informants to express their answers. In particular, by observing the inconsistencies in speech of the informants, one may gather useful insight about the individual's thought process and meaning making. Furthermore, researchers suggest analyzing people from a more mature age group who have more experience in travel. Groups can also be a subset to analyze as they create meaning both individually and with others whom they travel. Future research can consider a specific type of travel, distinguishing between long-term and short-term, as well as international and domestic to see how the traveler uniquely finds meaning in each.

The researchers suggest doing more studies on intrapersonal communication as it is often overlooked in the field of communication. As the study at hand reveals, intrapersonal communication bears the fruit of constructed meaning personally despite having influences from the social environment. Rather than isolating the individual from its social context, it is suggested to look at how social cues further encourage the individual's own process of intrapersonal communication and meaning making.

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Apfu13 The Effect of Macao's Destination Image on Tourist Experience, Satisfaction and Behavioural Intention

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Abstract

Destination image and its function have been an academic focus for the last few decades, and studies have been done to explore the influence of the image on tourism experience, satisfaction, and behavioural intention. However, regional variation in such conceptual linkages is inevitable, and such regional consideration needs to be involved in examining the relationships among the variables measuring tourists' perceptual process and behavioural intention as their outcomes. Based on the synthesis of the conceptual understanding of destination image, tourist experience, satisfaction, and behavioural intention, the way that the image perceived by tourists affects their actual travel experiences, satisfaction, and behavioural intention in the context of Macao is further examined in the study. A quantitative research method is used, and the data collected from 100 tourists in famous tourist attractions in Macao are utilized for the empirical examination. The results provide significant implications on the importance of enhancing and creating strong destination image of Macao.
Keywords: Behavioural intention, Destination image, Macao, Satisfaction, Travel experience

Keywords: Macao, destination image, travel experience, satisfaction, behavioural intention

Introduction

Macao has been well known as the 'Monte Carlo of the East' especially since the liberalization of Macao's gaming industry in 2002. Since then, there have been a number of foreign companies which have extensively invested and constructed resort hotels with extensive casino facilities, which caused the transformation of Macao to a bloom city for the past decades (McCartney, 2008). Recently, much obvious evidence from financial reports has shown that Macao is now facing a downturn due to the "Anti-Corruption" campaign of China and a few crime cases from the casinos (International Business Times, 2015). The Government of Macao has noticed that promoting the image of a gambling city is no longer a sustainable way of developing its tourism industry because of that. Therefore, the government is attempting to utilize other types of tourism products which can be offered in Macao by promoting MICE tourism and community tourism by developing its walking routes with the title of "Experience Macao's Communities" (Macao Government Tourism Office, 2016). Thus, Macao's image could be enhanced and modified by taking advantage of being a well-known gambling city and having a variety of entertainment for its tourism development (McCartney, 2006).

As does in many other destinations, Macao's image plays an important role in tourist experience since Macao has gradually been developed from a small village to a prosperous gambling tourism destination. The way people build image before the visitation may affect their actual tourist experience at the destination region. In general, tourists make travel decisions based on the image of a place because they tend to visit different tourist destinations for different travel experience. Therefore, each country should clearly know what elements they want to create for promoting their place (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Acknowledging that the tourism industry makes the largest contribution to the development of the region, Macao should create more own unique characteristics to become a competitive destination and to keep sustainable development (Buhalis, 2000). Therefore, in order to be a successful destination, Macao's destination image must be built strategically for catering the needs of tourists. Moreover, government's action and the campaign of tourism industry is required if destinations are to plan a clear national and tourism image for the features of the tourism experience (Ali-Knight, Robertson, Fyall, & Ladkin, 2009).

In that sense, it is important to highlight the importance of image as an antecedent of satisfaction and loyalty, and also to empirically test in order to identify which image perception of Macao significantly functions in enhancing satisfaction, which leads to behavioural intention. In order to address such an importance, this study examines the linkage between diverse dimensions of destination image and satisfaction as well as satisfaction and behavioural intention. It has been recognized that the destination image perceived by tourists has significant effect on their destination choice, satisfaction, behavioural intention and post-visit evaluation (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Research has found out that destination image has an indirect effect on behavioural intention through satisfaction (Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; C. F. Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Prayag, 2008). In other words, previous studies have provided evidence that tourists who perceive a destination positively are more likely to be satisfied, and satisfied tourists are more likely to revisit. Therefore, this study aims to examine the importance of image by testing relationship between the destination image, satisfaction, and behavioural intention.

This study uses Macao as a study area to explore how the destination image is associated with tourists' travel experience and behavioural intention. To know how tourists are satisfied with Macao, examination of their satisfaction with various travel experience is highlighted in this study. More specifically, this study uses a sample of tourists visiting Macao and sets the research questions as following:

1. Image on travel experience

RQ1) What is the relationship between the tourists' image perception of Macao and their travel experience?

2. Image on satisfaction and behavioural intention

RQ2) How does destination image affect satisfaction and behavioural intention?

Literature Review

Destination image

Destination image has been studied for a long period of time by different researchers. The image of a destination is one of the significant indicators in the tourism industry (Kampshulte, 1999). According to Beerli and Martin (2004), it can be known that the destination image is a crucial factor in tourism since tourists generally decide to visit a destination based on its image. Lee (2009) also mentioned that a destination with positive image can take the advantage of being chosen to travel.

Destination image is considered as personal perceptions that involve cognitive and affective feelings (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Beerli & Martin, 2004). Kim and Richardson (2003) indicated that it represents the sum of ideas, impressions, feelings, beliefs and expectations towards a place. Donaldson and Ferreira (2009) suggested that it is a mixture of the tourist's coherent and expressive clarifications of a destination.

As mentioned by Echtner and Ritchie (1993), there are more and more destinations which are making outstanding contributions to the hospitality and tourism industry since they have identified that the core of the development of a place is to create its unique image. More specific, Baloglu and Mangaloglu (2001) suggested that a destination generally competes based on the perceived images related to competitors. Therefore, it is necessary to create a positive image of the tourist destination in the market to accomplish a competitive advantage (Gartner, 1994).

In associated with Macao's image, a study by McCartney, Butler, and Bennett (2008) revealed that 'gambling opportunities' was the most highlighted attribute since Macao was positioned as a gambling city. On the other hand, the image attributes of 'place to have a meeting or exhibition' and 'rich cultural heritage' were rated the lowest. Additional attributes with higher ranking included 'political stability', 'clean and litter free', 'good nightlife/adult oriented', and 'unique architecture'. It can be concluded that the majority of tourists perceived Macao as associated with gambling activities from the previous studies.

Destination image on travel experience

One leading review of studies on destination image in tourism was conducted by Chon (1990). He presented a conceptual model of the relationship between destination image and tourist's behaviours. More specifically, travel experience has a positive and significant relationship with the destination image (Beerli & Martin, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). The studies concluded that the experience accumulated by traveling results in tourists' being more tolerant when measuring the destination as they know other destinations that serve as points of comparison. Joseph and Mo (2005) also indicated that destination image directly affects tourists' travel experience and travel choice. Therefore, it is important to test linkage between destination image and their travel behaviours.

Destination image on satisfaction and behavioural intention

Numerous studies have discussed the relationship between destination image on satisfaction and behavioural intention. It is believed that tourists who have a positive image toward a destination will lead to a higher level of satisfaction and more likely to revisit in the future (Bigné Alcañiz, Sánchez García, & Sanchez, 2001). Bigné Alcañiz, Sánchez García, and Sanz Blas (2009) revealed that destination image predicts tourists' behavioural intention and loyalty comprising revisit intention and willingness to recommend. By the overview of different previous studies, behavioural intention was regularly studied from two different viewpoints, which are likelihood to revisit and willingness to recommend to others (Byon & Zhang, 2010). Behavioural intention is considered as a tourist's loyalty toward a destination, and has been recognized in the literature that has relationship to destination image (Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2001). For example, Lupton (1997) indicated that destination image has a direct influence on tourists' behavioural intention and found that a positive image definitely affects tourists' revisit intention to a destination.

A review by Nghiêm-Phú (2014) indicated that destination image is affected by information sources, tourist characteristics, past experience, and familiarity/novelty seeking behaviour, and it affects satisfaction, behavioural intentions, and loyalty; and it has interrelationships with place attachment, attitudes, beliefs, destination personality, motivations, perceived quality, or perceived values. Other studies such as C.-F. Chen and Chen (2010) also showed the relationship between image and travel experience. In addition, studies have identified that tourist loyalty is related to perceived value, satisfaction, travel motivation, service quality, and destination image (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2010). In specific, tourist's behaviours consist of travel decision-making, evaluation and post behavioural intention.

More specifically, a number of previous findings revealed that destination image had both direct and indirect effect on behavioural intentions (Chi & Qu, 2008; Lee, 2009). Some studies revealed that there is an indirect relationship between destination image and behavioural intention through tourist satisfaction (Castro, Armario, & Ruiz, 2007). Chi and Qu (2008) indicated that destination image is indirectly connected to behavioural intention through the attributes of satisfaction or overall satisfaction by testing a theoretical model. Lee (2009) also supported Chi and Qu's (2008) study and revealed the indirect relationship between destination image and behavioural intention.

Methodology

Design of the questionnaire

A quantitative research method and a non-probability sampling method were used to conduct the survey. The questionnaire was translated to simplified Chinese and traditional Chinese from the original English for approaching respondents from different nations. It consisted of four sections. They are destination image, travel experience, satisfaction and behaviour intention, which were rated by tourists in 11-point scale. The reason why an 11-point scale was chosen for rating is because it provides more variance than smaller levels (Nunnally, 1978). Leung (2011) also mentioned that 11-point scale performs better than smaller anchors. In the final part, demographic information was asked to the survey participants for classification.

Destination image

A total of 23 destination image items were selected from previous studies with the modification, being rated on a scale of 11-point Likert where 0 indicating 'strongly dissatisfied' and 10 being 'strongly satisfied'. The 23 attributes were selected based on the destination image literature regarding destination image perception and travel experience (McCartney, 2008; McCartney et al., 2008). McCartney's (2008) study was heavily relied on because the study listed the image perception attributes of Macao by consulting the local tourism major students and hotel managers.

Travel experience

Nine travel experience items were selected based on Lehto, O'Leary, and Morrison (2004). Tourists' travel experience was asked with 11-point Likert scale items. Experiential items adopted for this study included 'Gambling', 'Visiting cultural heritage sites', 'Sightseeing', 'Leisure', 'Nightlife', 'Food and beverage', 'Entertainment', 'Shopping' and 'Accommodation (Hotel stay experience)'.

Satisfaction and behavioural intention

This part was divided into two sections based on the study of Scott, Laws, and Boksberger (2009). Seven travel activity items were utilized for the evaluation of tourist satisfaction. They are 'Gaming/gambling', 'Visiting cultural heritage sites', 'Sightseeing resort hotels', 'Food and beverage experience', 'Entertainment experience', 'Shopping experience' and 'Hotel stay experience'. Tourists were asked to evaluate their satisfaction on their actual travel experiences. Another one open-ended question was asked to explore tourists' revisit intention. The behavioural intention was measured as the likelihood of revisit after considering the limitations of measuring the sequence of revisit intention (Assaker, Vinzi, & O'Connor, 2011).

Data collection

A face to face survey with convenience sampling method was conducted at the area around Senado Square, a top-tier tourist attraction in Macao. As the survey was conducted at a must-go attraction of tourists, it was easier to meet actual tourists with different travel purposes and target different demographic segments. Before starting the survey, a pilot study was conducted in Senado Square on November 5 in 2015 to ensure the feasibility, reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Based on the result of the pilot survey with the first draft, final version of the questionnaire was developed on the 6th of November in 2015. The survey was conducted from November 8 to 20 in 2015. Potential survey participants were approached randomly and a screening question was asked to ensure that the respondents were tourists over the 18 years of age. An incentive (candy) was given to respondents after completing the questionnaire.

Chon (1990) indicated that those who have visited before may lead to positive or negative feelings toward the destination due to previous perceptions. A potential limitation of this study might be that the potential for destination image to be perceived differently between those who are their first time to visit and those who have visited many times before was overlooked. To avoid the limitation that might present sampling errors, another question was asked to identify if the respondents were first-time visitors to Macao. Data were analysed with SPSS and AMOS version 19.

Results and Discussion

Several methods were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics was used to classify the demographic profile of respondents. In order to identify the underlying dimensionality of the image attributes, factor analysis (EFA) was used. After that, a correlation analysis was used to explore the associations of image and tourist experience. Then a path model was developed to test the associations of the image, satisfaction, and revisit intention.

Demographic profile of respondents

36% of the respondents were male and 64% of them were female. Most of the respondents (69%) were below the age of 18 to 25 years with university degree (58%). Over half of them were single (72%) and most of the respondents were students. A majority of the respondents (71%) travelled to Macao as their primary destination, and most of them were from mainland China (63%). Many had a monthly income lower than 10,000 HKD (64%) and had visited one to five times before (55%).

Factor analysis of destination image

In this study, factor analysis was used to identify the dimensionality of the destination image and for data reduction (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). As the dimensions of destination images were assumed to be correlated, a Principal Component Analysis and PROMAX rotation with the kappa value of 4 were used to extract the factor structure. All the 23 image attributes was used for this round of factor analysis. Four factors were extracted as a result of the analysis, which explained 74.744% of the total variance. Factor 1 consisted of 'Easy to find hotel', 'Good nightlife/adult-oriented', 'Place to have meeting/exhibition', 'Have a variety of entertainment', 'Friendly local people', 'Good hotel service quality', 'Ease of accessibility/transit', 'An inexpensive destination', 'Safe place to visit', 'Spectacular resort hotels', and 'Natural scenic beauty'. Items reflecting the different aspects of culture were extracted in Factor 2. Items in this factor included 'Important museum and art galleries', 'Unique architectural buildings', 'Rich cultural heritage', 'Many interesting festivals and shows', and 'Shopping paradise'. Some experiential elements which do not involve the visitation of core attractions for sightseeing were extracted in Factor 3.

'Convenient transportation', 'Place to do business', 'Unique cuisines', and 'Pleasant weather' were included. One item about 'Gambling opportunities' was extracted as the last factor. (See Table 1.)

Table 1. Factor analysis result (factor loadings) of the destination image of Macao

Items	Factor			
	imageF1	imageF2	imageF3	imageF4
15.Easy to find hotel	.903			
19.Good nightlife/adult-oriented	.896			
18.Place to have meeting/Exhibition	.842			
13.Have a variety of entertainment	.829			
21.Friendly local people	.798			
14.Good hotel service quality	.795			
12.Ease of accessibility/transit	.788			
22.An inexpensive destination	.753			
17.Safe place to visit	.742			
16.Spectacular resort hotels	.739			
23.Natural scenic beauty	.677			
5. Important museum and art galleries		.940		
2. Unique architectural buildings		.884		
3. Rich cultural heritage		.820		
6. Many interesting festivals and shows		.678		
4. Shopping paradise		.628		
7. Convenient transportation			.997	
9. Place to do business			.760	
8. Unique cuisines			.735	
20.Pleasant weather			.713	
1. Gambling opportunities				.857

RQ1) What is the relationship between the tourists' image perception of Macao and their travel experience?

The correlations between four image factors and nine travel experience variables were analysed. (See Table 2.) All the highlighted results indicate significant and positive relationships between the two variables at the significance level of .05. Overall, most of the image dimensions were positively and significantly associated with the importance of experience items. Visiting cultural and heritage site, sightseeing, and food and beverage were significantly correlated to all the image dimensions. In addition, some variations were found in the relationship between image perception and travel experience, especially with regards to gambling, nightlife, and accommodation experience. Only those who had strong image about gambling ($r=.288$, $p=.002$), not other image groups, considered gambling as an important experience during this time's visit to Macao. Noticeably, the same pattern was found with nightlife. Strong image about gambling appeared to be associated with the actual experience about nightlife. Other non-gambling images appeared not lead to putting importance on nightlife experience. In addition, only stronger gambling image, not other dimensions of image, was insignificantly associated with entertainment and shopping, implying that gambling-oriented image may overshadow the offering about entertainment and shopping as well as leisure options in Macao.

Overall, the analysis revealed that the diverse image perceptions have significant and positive relationship with major tourism activities, supporting the general notion that travel experience has a positive and significant relationship with destination image (Beerli & Martín, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). As can be found from the different pattern shown in the gambling image and experience variables, this distinct pattern partly implies that the specific image on a destination the tourists have before visiting is associated with tourism experience they consider important.

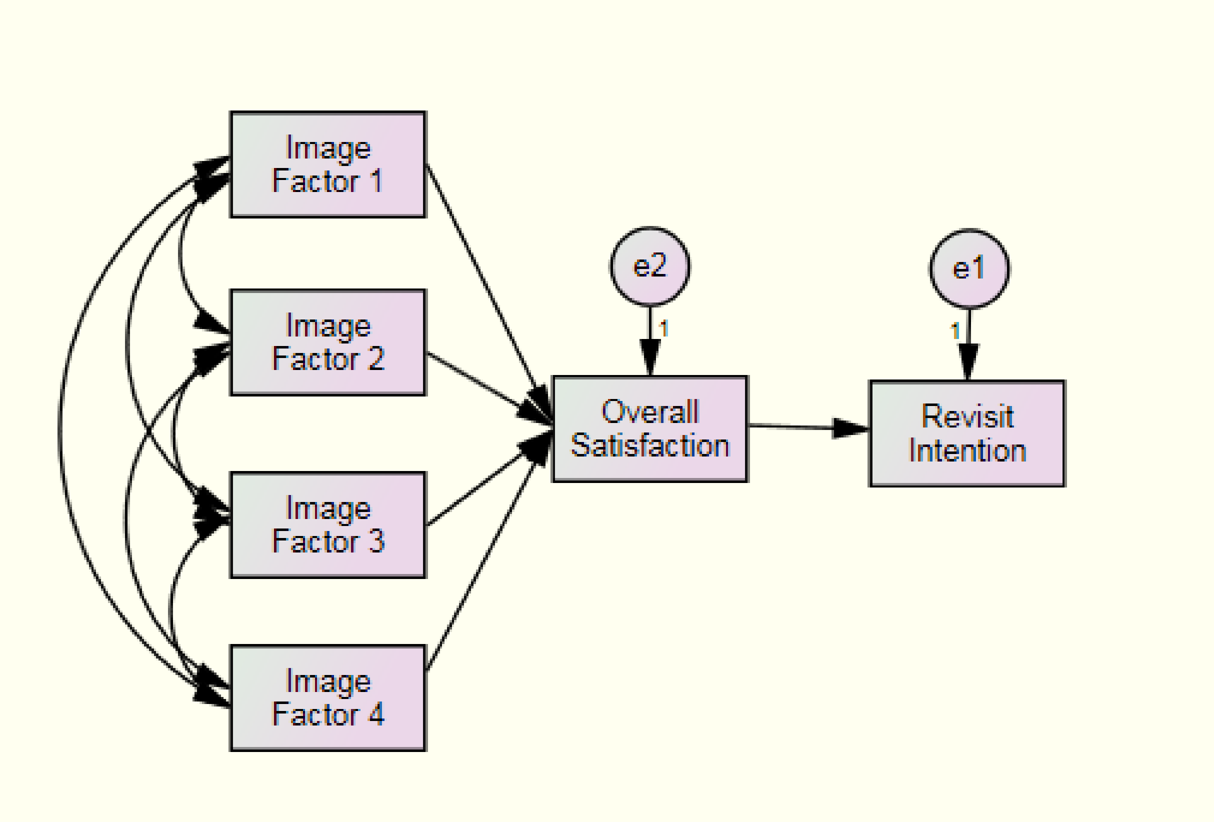
Table 2. The relationship between tourists' image perception and travel experience

		Image			
		Image Factor 1 Main activities and infrastructure	Image Factor 2 Cultural elements and shopping	Image Factor 3 Non-main activities	Image Factor 4 Gambling
Experience	[1. Gambling]	.135	.094	-.082	.288
	[2. Visiting cultural heritage sites]	.245	.284	.259	.204
	[3. Sightseeing]	.318	.410	.327	.242
	[4. Leisure]	.299	.083	.167	-.055
	[5. Nightlife]	.158	.129	.050	.260
	[6. Food and Beverage]	.329	.246	.229	.211
	[7. Entertainment]	.496	.369	.445	.157
	[8. Shopping]	.331	.336	.368	.047
	[9. Accommodation]	.187	.042	.146	.071

RQ2) How does destination image affect satisfaction and behavioural intention?

In order to empirically test the effect of destination image on satisfaction and behavioural intention, a path model was developed with AMOS 19. The aggregated mean value of each factor of image and satisfaction was used to represent each dimension. The four variables representing each image were set as four exogenous variables, and overall satisfaction was set as the outcome variable of the four images as well as the predictor of revisit intention. Last, revisit intention was set as the outcome variable of overall satisfaction, and the variable which is indirectly affected by destination image through satisfaction. The path model is shown in the Figure below. The model showed good fit with the data ($\chi2$ (4, n=100) = 7.806, $\chi2$ /df =1.772, CFI=.976, GFI=.977, RMSEA=.088, and SRMR=.082). (See Figure 1.)

Figure 1. A path model of image, satisfaction, and revisit intention



The relationship between four image factors and overall satisfaction

The results showed that image factors 1 and 2 did not have significant associations with overall satisfaction. Noticeably, an opposite pattern was found from factors 3 and 4 (Table 3). Surprisingly, the stronger image the respondents had about the aggregated image of transport, business, cuisines, and the weather, the higher the overall satisfaction was. On the other hand, factor 4 had a significant and negative association with overall satisfaction at the significance level of .05. The result implies that strong gambling image may lead to lower satisfaction. After considering the correlation analysis conducted in the previous section, it is possible that those with stronger gambling image may confine the prioritized experience in Macao as those oriented towards gambling—gambling, nightlife, and food and beverage. Although they may not ignore heritage and other places for sightseeing, they might miss other leisure offering in Macao, including leisure options, entertainment, and shopping. Such a missing experience and the gaming-oriented activities during the trip may even lower the satisfaction level. Such a result supports the Macao's efforts to diversify its tourism offering and diverting tourists who visit Macao mainly for gambling.

The relationship between overall satisfaction and behavioural intention

The result, surprisingly, shows that overall satisfaction does not function as a significant predictor of revisit intention (Table 3). This means that, different from many previous studies showing the direct linkage of overall satisfaction and revisit intention, there may be some other variables which are involved in the linkage of satisfaction and behavioural intention, and satisfaction solely cannot predict the revisit intention among the tourists to Macao.

The indirect effect of image relationship between overall satisfaction and behavioural intention

Because of the insignificant path of overall satisfaction to revisit intention, the sample for this empirical study did not support that image indirectly is associated with behavioural intention.

Table 3. Path coefficient analysis results showing the associations of image factors, satisfaction, and revisit intention

	β	B	S.E.	C.R.	*p*-Value
Image Factor 1 -> Overall Satisfaction	-.196	-1.247	.849	-1.469	.142
Image Factor 2 -> Overall Satisfaction	.199	1.268	.834	1.52	.128
Image Factor 3 -> Overall Satisfaction	.335	2.071	.749	2.765	.006
Image Factor 4 -> Overall Satisfaction	-.208	-.825	.371	-2.225	.026
Overall Satisfaction -> Revisit Intention	-.11	-.006	.005	-1.105	.269

Discussion

The first part of the empirical examinations of correlations of four image factors and the experiential items revealed that they are associated in general with variation. The important function of image about gambling in differentiating the experiential pattern was highlighted.
Considering that previous studies have identified tourist behavioural intention in relation to perceived value, satisfaction, travel motivation, service quality, and destination image (C.-F. Chen & Chen, 2010; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), the findings from the present study partially explains such conceptual linkage. However, further investigation of each of the associations, variation in the function across the four factors on overall satisfaction was revealed. Especially, the potential negative impact of gambling-oriented image may need to be highlighted in Macao's destination management.

Furthermore, the path model showed that the indirect effect of destination image on behavioural intention, suggested in many previous studies (Bigné Alcañiz et al., 2001; C. F. Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Lee, 2009) may not be applicable to some other contexts as this study shows. This may due to other variables which were not considered in this study, which may strengthen the associations. Many other factors, such as demographics or actual detailed experiences during the visit to Macao, or previous experience with Macao, may be such variables that need to be additionally considered to further discover a clearer linkage of satisfaction and behavioural intention.

Conclusion

This study attempted to highlight the role of destination image from two different perspectives—one with the association with experience and the other as an antecedent of satisfaction and behavioural intention. The findings of this paper revealed the influence of destination image to some extent and also diversified impact of it by its four different dimensions.

The findings of this study have important implications for the enhancement of Macao's destination image. Moreover, the results suggest that specific image tourists have before visiting may affect their travel experiences, and their actual experience may be based on how they perceived about the destination. In addition, the results show that image dimensions influence tourist satisfaction in different ways, and overall satisfaction cannot significantly predict behavioural intention with the sample used for this study. This may be due to the contextual uniqueness of the study—study on the destination with a very strong gambling image and the domination of casinos—or because of its small sample size of 100.

Still, considering the differentiated effect of destination especially on experience and overall satisfaction, destination image is an important indicator in today's tourist destination market. To be a successful destination, marketers should focus more on establishing the distinctive destination image since tourists decide to travel based on their image perception, and in the case of Macao, managing its destination image is important so that potential visitors would not have too strong image about gambling—it may limit the scope of their potential experience during the travel planning, and such an experiential pattern may harm the reputation of Macao, lower satisfaction with the travel experience as well as revisit intention. From this study, there are some suggestions for marketer to plan the stainable tourism development in the future. This paper provides sufficient information for marketers to know what elements are needed in the market because some of elements may no longer be needed in Macao. They need to continue to create new elements to meet the needs of tourists. Most of people acknowledge that the economic growth of Macao depends on the gambling industry because many tourists are attracted to this image. The results of this study showed that Macao does not only depend on the gambling industry but it also depends on its heritage attractions and other leisure options. Based on the quantitative information from tourists, this study sought to identify whether the government's contribution on destination image management is sufficient and efficient.

There are a few limitations in this study. Firstly, sampling error might have caused the biased results of the empirical study mainly due to the limitation of sample size. Moreover, the research was conducted around the shopping area and a majority of respondents were from mainland China, which showed their travel purpose and perceived image might focus on the specific responses. Thus, the sampling error might affect the findings of this paper. Future research can address the limitations of this study and conduct more comprehensive analysis with better samples. The destination image attributes were measured by calculating the mean value which is a simplistic analytic method. Further study may be able to examine destination image to analyse with different demographic characteristics. Replication of this study can make more robust and useful contribution. Last but not least, the current study failed to provide evidence that destination image importantly function in predicting revisit intention. Considering that many previous studies revealed destination image has indirect linkage to behavioural intention, future study can explore this linkage further by follow-up studies with additional data to provide additional evidence in such insignificant indirect associations.

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Apfu14 Determinants of China's Household Tourism Expenditure: Evidence from the China Family Panel Studies

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Abstract

Using the survey data from the China Family Panel Studies project conducted in 2012, this study explores the potential factors influencing Chinese households' tourism expenditure. Heckman's double-hurdle model is employed to decompose the tourist choice process into two stages: deciding to go on holiday and deciding on the level of tourism consumption. Three types of influencing factors had a significant impact on Chinese residents making the decision to go on holiday: economic factors (annual family income, total family deposits, and cash); socio-demographic attributes (age, marital status, gender, locality, region, education, number of children, and English proficiency); and a psychographic factor (family satisfaction). The level of household tourism expenditure was mainly determined by economic factors (family income, total family deposits, and cash holdings); socio-demographic attributes (age, marital status, gender, locality, region, education, and number of children); and psychographic factors (life satisfaction, family satisfaction, and number of days per week feeling confident about the future).

Keywords: China family panel studies, Heckman's double-hurdle model, Market segmentation, Tourism expenditure, Tourism management, Travel decisions

Introduction

Boosted by rising disposable incomes, an appreciating currency, improved travel facilities, and an easing of restrictions on international travel, China's tourism industry has grown at an unprecedented speed in the past three decades; this has made the nation one of the world's most-watched and hottest inbound and outbound tourism markets. In 2014, China ranked fourth worldwide (and first in Asia) in international arrivals (55.6 million) and third in tourism earnings (US$56.9 billion; UNWTO, 2015). The number of China's domestic tourists reached four billion in 2015, with an average annual growth rate (AAGR) of 10% over the period 1995 to 2015 (CEIC China Database, 2016). China's domestic tourism receipts hit a new record of US$617.6 billion in 2015, with an AAGR of 18.38% between 1995 and 2015. In terms of outbound tourism, China has been the fastest growing source market in recent years and has been the world's largest spender in international tourism since 2012. Chinese tourists spent a record US$165 billion abroad in 2014, generating about 13% of global tourism receipts (UNWTO, 2015). Such a huge domestic and international market size – and one with its growth rate and potential – is unique in the globe.

China's tourism market has gained some new features in recent years. *The Global Independent Travel Report 2015* released by the China Tourism Academy showed that in 2014 96.4% of China's domestic tourists and 64.1% of China's outbound tourists were independent travelers; these figures increased to 97.8% and 66.7%, respectively, in the first half of 2015. When traveling abroad, around 80 million Chinese residents chose to travel independently in 2015, and they spent a total of US$143.6 billion. In the first half of 2015, the number of domestic tourists organized by travel agencies increased by 7.8%, but their share of the total inbound tourism market declined by 38.9%. As for outbound tourism, its share of the total market increased by only 2.5% even though the number of organized tourists boomed by 35.2% (Xinhua Informatization, 2015). The above statistics suggest that independent travel is tending to become more popular than group tours among Chinese travelers. Ning (2000) suggested that as tourism products and services become more and more diversified, consumers start to make new demands, resulting in new features and characteristics of tourist demand. Tourism marketers and planners are paying more attention to niche markets. Answers to such questions as "Which types of travelers spend more?" and "What factors explain their spending behavior?" are of great importance in formulating market segmentation strategies for the tourism industry. Wang and Davidson (2010) asserted that the study of segmented markets could help tourism destinations maximize their economic benefits. There is an urgent need of empirical research based on high-quality data that reflect the reality in China's tourism industry and its dynamics. Powerful analytical tools (such as econometric methods that can effectively analyze the relationship between tourists' expenditure and the various factors that influence it) are crucial in examining tourists' travel spending patterns (Brida & Scuderi, 2013).

To the best of our knowledge, there is a lack of research that applies advanced econometric modeling methods to quantify the relationship between individual or household expenditure on tourism and identify the determinants of that expenditure in the Chinese tourism context. The use of micro data in this context is even rarer. A comprehensive analysis of household tourism spending behavior (as it relates to different economic, socio-demographic, and psychographic characteristics) can provide helpful information to assist destinations to provide tailor-made designs for their tourism products/services and devise appropriate marketing strategies to attract new visitors. Furthermore, a detailed knowledge of tourism expenditure can help managers to optimize tourism product structure, which is vital for adapting to dynamic changes in China's tourism market.

The purpose of this study is, therefore, to investigate the relationship between household expenditure on tourism and the determinants of this expenditure (including economic, socio-demographic, and psychographic factors), using nationally representative survey data for China. This study contributes to the research on tourism expenditure in the following ways. First, it considers not only economic and socio-demographic factors in analyzing household tourism expenditure in China but also psychographic characteristics that have been insufficiently studied; the aim is to provide a comprehensive analysis of tourism expenditure to assist in the formulation of efficient segmentation strategies for both domestic and overseas tourism destinations. Second, it uses the 2012 Chinese Family Panel Studies (CFPS) data, which comprises longitudinal individual-, family-, and community-level data covering such topics as economic activities, education outcomes, family dynamics and relationships, migration, and health in contemporary China from 2010 onward; these data enable analysis of tourism expenditure at the individual consumer level for both rural areas and towns and cities. Third, use of the Heckit model enables the development of a two-stage tourist decision model for analyzing tourism expenditure in China; the model is able to better reflect the reality of Chinese residents' tourism spending and allows use of the household expenditure data that have a number of missing cases (most of Chinese families did not have tourism expenditure).

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides a review of the tourism expenditure literature. Section 3 describes in detail the data and the modeling method employed in this study. Section 4 analyzes the data, explaining the regression results in detail, and sets out the important findings of this study. Section 5 concludes the study.

Literature Review

A large body of research has been devoted to investigating tourism demand and its determinants as well as to analyzing the characteristics and determinants of tourism demand (Brida & Scuderi, 2013; Song & Li, 2008). Due to data availability considerations, most of these studies have used macro data at the destination level, which has led to a lack of in-depth examination of individual or household consumption behavior in tourism (Brida & Scuderi, 2013). An upsurge of interest in the use of micro data has been reflected in a few empirical studies in the Chinese context (Lin, Mao, & Song, 2015). The advantage of using micro data has been acknowledged by Wang and Davidson (2010): they have pointed out that such data allows consideration of the diversity and heterogeneity of tourist behaviors.

Tourist arrivals and tourism expenditures are the two variables most commonly used to measure tourism demand (Song & Li, 2008; Witt & Song, 2000). Tourism expenditure is crucial not only as an important measurement of tourism demand but also as a good measurement of market outputs (Wang & Davidson, 2010). Tourists' purchasing behavior varies according to demographic characteristics, length of stay, accommodation type, purpose of visit, and many other factors. Tourist arrivals cannot be a precise measure of the impact of tourism on the economy of tourism destinations. From the perspective of tourism economics, tourism is expenditure-driven economic activity; tourism expenditures are thus theoretically a more accurate measure of tourism demand (Wang & Davidson, 2010). Tourism expenditure is therefore of particular interest for the current study. After reviewing past studies on tourism expenditure, we provide a summary of three aspects: macro data versus micro data, the determinants of tourism expenditure, and econometric models.

Macro data versus micro data

Studies on tourism demand have used either macro or micro data, but the majority of them have focused on destination-level aggregated demand, using macro data (Lee, Var, & Blaine, 1996; Pyo, Uysal, & McLellan, 1991; Li & Zhang, 2008; Wang & Davidson, 2010; Yu & Huang, 2013). A survey conducted by Lim (2006) found that only eight out of 124 studies used micro data, indicating that the application of micro data in tourism studies was much less popular than the use of macro data. Alegre and Pou (2004) summarized three advantages of favoring micro data over macro data in micro-economic studies. First, models based on micro data do not deviate too far from theoretical economic consumer models. Second, models based on micro data allow for the control of participation bias. Third, models based on micro data recognize the diversity and heterogeneity of consumer behaviors. Furthermore, Smith (1995) concluded that studies using highly aggregated data are less valuable for tourism planning and policy-making than those that are based on a lower level of aggregation.

The use of micro data in analyzing tourism demand has gained increasing popularity among tourism scholars in recent years. Nicolau and Más (2005) used national survey data to test the effects of personal characteristics – such as personal restrictions (level of income and household size), socio-demographic characteristics, and psychographic dimensions – on Spaniards' vacation behavior. Zhang (2014) examined the major determinants of Chinese household tourism expenditure (employing surveys conducted in 24 cities) and found that family assets, income, age of the household head, and risk perception were the key determinants of Chinese household tourism expenditure. Using China's urban household survey data, Lin, Mao, and Song (2015) analyzed the time-path of tourism expenditure at the individual consumer level and examined the relationship between age profiles and tourism expenditure of various kinds.

Determinants of tourism expenditure

In light of the findings of Wang and Davidson (2010), Brida and Scuderi (2013), and Lin, Mao, and Song (2015), we categorized the explanatory variables of tourism expenditure that are used in the existing literature into four types: economic factors, demographic factors, trip-related factors, and psychographic factors (see Figure 1). Economic factors, demographic factors, and psychographic factors are of particular interest in this study for three reasons: (1) economic factors and demographic characteristics are the variables most often researched; (2) psychographic factors have rarely been explored; and (3) the data for these variables is readily available.

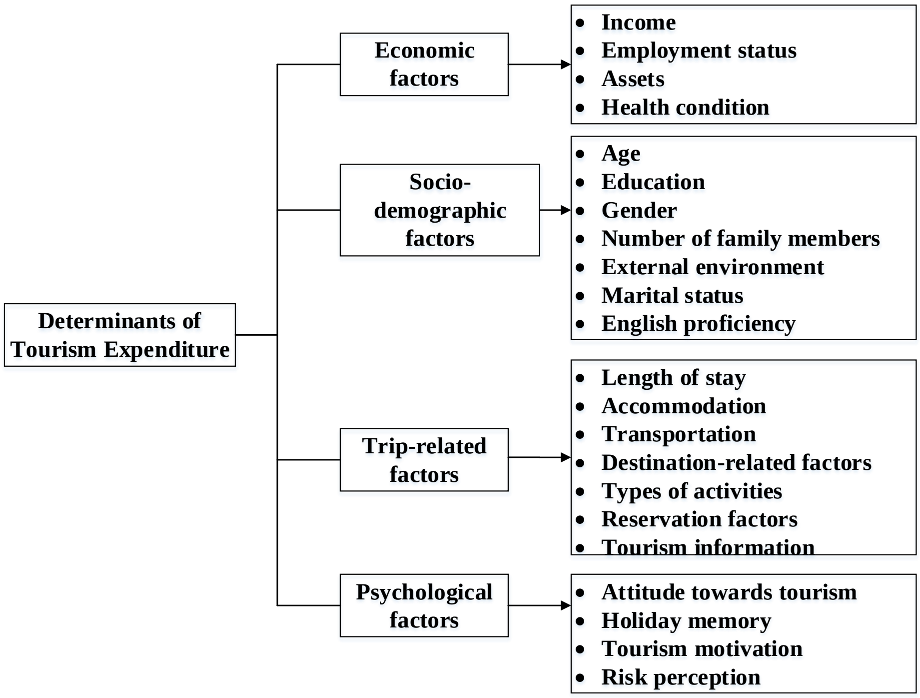

Figure 1. Determinants of tourism expenditure.

(1) Economic factors

Various studies have found that income, the most frequently studied explanatory variable, is a crucial determinant of tourism expenditure. Income can be measured on different levels, such as the income of households or of touring parties, the average income per family member, or the income of heads of households (Brida & Scuderi, 2013). The impact of income on tourism expenditure has been found to be positive (Davies & Mangan, 1992; Sömez & Graefe, 1998; Cai, 1998). Davies and Mangan (1992) examined the income elasticities of different income groups and found that low-income groups have high income elasticity.

The impact of economic factors other than income – such as employment status, assets, and health condition – on tourism consumption has also been examined. Muller (1996) found that retired people had a stronger motivation to explore the world, if their health condition allowed it. A few studies – such as those of Nicolau and Más (2005) and Alegre, Mateo, and Pou (2013) – have found that employment positively influences tourism expenditure. Riera (2000, cited in Nicolau & Más, 2005) pointed out that employment status is actually a broad indicator of income. Assets can be measured in terms of house ownership (Cai, 1998, 1999; Kuo & Lu, 2013), car ownership (Hung, Shang, & Wang, 2013), and family assets or bank deposits (Zhang, 2014). The empirical evidence for the relationship between assets and tourism demand is mixed. Several empirical studies have found that assets have a positive impact on tourism spending (Cai, 1998, 1999; Hung, Shang, & Wang, 2013; Zhang, 2014), while some studies have not found any relationship between them (Kuo & Lu, 2013). Health condition is also considered an economic factor because it is positively related to a family's income level. It has been found that health condition is a premise for tourism activities (Alegre & Cladera, 2010; Hung, Shang, & Wang, 2013).

(2) Socio-demographic factors

Age has been identified as one of the most important socio-demographic factors influencing vacation tourism expenditure (Mieczkowski, 1990; Brida & Scuderi, 2013). Collins and Tisdell (2002) examined tourism expenditure patterns based on age groups and travel purposes, and they constructed an age distribution of different travel purposes. A middle-aged person is more likely to travel more and spend more than a person belonging to other age groups (Perez & Sampol, 2000; Nicolau & Más, 2005). Hong, Kim, and Lee (1999) used age squared to examine the non-linear relationship between a person's age and travel expenditure. Hung, Shang, & Wang (2013) used the age of the head of the household as a variable and found a positive relationship between age and tourism consumption.

The literature reveals that tourism expenditure is affected not only by age but also by other socio-demographic factors, such as education, gender, marital status, household size (or number of family members), employment status, and external environmental factors. The empirical findings regarding the impact of socio-demographic characteristics on tourism expenditure are often mixed. Education, commonly considered a social-class variable, has been found to have a significant impact on tourism expenditure (Dardis et al., 1981). Kuo and Lu (2013) and Cai (1998) found a positive relationship between educational level and tourism expenditure, but Nicolau and Más (2005) found no relationship between them. Brida and Scuderi (2013) found that no significant relationship between gender and tourism expenditure had been identified in 88 out of 130 studies. A few studies have found that marriage exerts a positive impact on travel expenditure (Cai, 1998; Jang & Ham, 2009), while others have not (Hung, Shang, & Wang, 2013).

Several studies have shown that household size has a negative impact on tourism activities (Caswell & McConell, 1980; Eymann & Ronning, 1992, 1997; Walsh, John, & Hof, 1992; Nicolau & Más, 2005); the number of children (also termed an "interpersonal barrier") is one key indicator of household size (Crawford & Godbey, 1987). Collin and Tisdell (2002) suggested that families with no children have a higher propensity to go on holiday, and Zhang (2014) confirmed that families with children spent less on tourism than families without children did.

The external environmental factors commonly studied include birthplace (Oppermann, 1995), size of residence (Nicolau & Más, 2005), and the economic condition of the area in which they reside (Jang & Ham, 2009; Zhang, 2014). In general, people who live in cities and regions with good economic conditions are more likely to participate in tourism activities than are those who live in rural areas with poor economic development. Yang and Wu (2014) found that Chinese tourists who were more proficient in English were more willing to go on overseas trips.

(3) Psychographic factors

Psychographic factors consist of self-identity, lifestyle, attitudes, interests, and opinions on/perception of products' attributes (Demby, 1974; Lehto, O'Leary, & Morrison, 2002). In the tourism field, a few studies have examined such psychographic factors as attitudes towards tourism (Fredman, 2008), holiday memories (Romsa & Blenman, 1989), and tourism motivation (Laesser & Crouch, 2006). Risk perception is also regarded as one important type of psychographic factor; it covers perceptions of safety/security and confidence about the future. Zhang (2014) used saving preferences as a measure of risk perception. The inclusion of psychographic factors as one of the determinants of tourism expenditure is still rare in the tourism literature; but psychographic factors are worth further investigating in future studies (Brida & Scuderi, 2013; Wang & Davidson, 2010).

Econometric models

The analytical tools used in econometric modeling of tourism expenditure can be classified into "models for metric responses" and "models for categorical responses," according to the scale used to measure the response variable (Brida & Scuderi, 2013). Models in the first category can be further divided into two sub-categories based on the use of mean values or location measures for the metric regressors; models in the second category include logistic regression and Probit models (see Figure 2). A switching regression model is a special model, its dependent variables being either metric or categorical responses (Alegre & Cladera, 2010).

Dichotomous variables are often used in categorical responses measuring whether individuals' intend to participate in tourism activities or not. Logistic regression and Probit regression models are the two most frequently used models with categorical responses. A number of tourism studies – such as those of Nicolau and Más (2005) and Saayman and Saayman (2006) – have adopted these models. Specifically, a logistic model is used when the data follows a logistic distribution; a Probit model requires the data to be normally distributed.

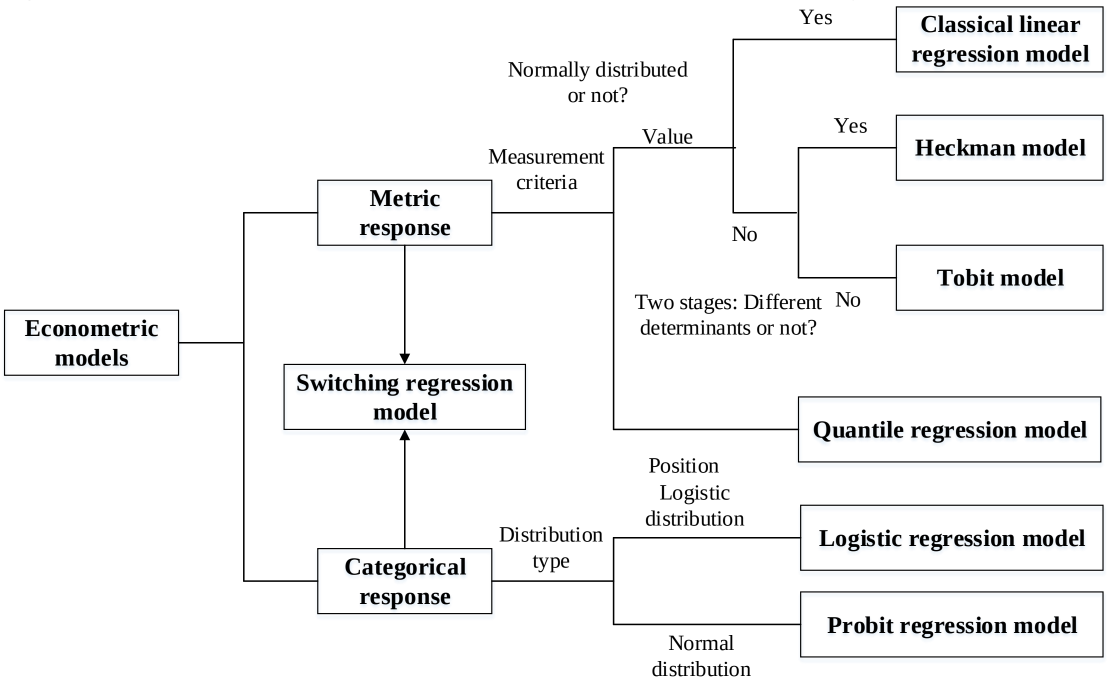

Figure 2. Econometric models in tourism expenditure studies that use micro data.

The most commonly used econometric model is the linear regression model, using ordinary least squares (OLS) estimation procedures. One crucial condition for applying this model is that the data should follow a normal distribution (Brida & Scuderi, 2013). If the data contains a number of zero values or missing values, the distribution will be left-censored, making the OLS estimates biased and inconsistent (Algere, Mateo, & Pou, 2013; Maddala, 1999). The Tobit model proposed by Tobin (1958) offers a solution to the aforementioned problem because it allows us to hypothesize that null-expenditure and expenditure come from the same consumption decision (which establishes a strict limitation of this model).

The application of Tobit models in analyzing tourism expenditure requires caution, as the factors that drive an individual to participate in tourism activities are likely to be completely different from those that motivate tourism spending decisions. This issue led Cragg (1971) to introduce a double-hurdle model to decompose tourism activities into two stages – tourism participation and consumption – on the assumption that they are independent of each other. Based on Cragg's work, Heckman (1979) proposed a model that can handle the selection bias problem by removing the randomness caused by zero-censored treatment. The use of the Heckman model has caught tourism scholars' attention (Nicolau & Más, 2005; Jang & Ham, 2009; Algere, Mateo, & Pou, 2013), but its empirical application in tourism research is still very limited. The quantile regression model is another econometric model – one proposed by Keonker and Bassett (1978) – to examine effects with relative ranking. Kuo and Lu (2013) used the quantile regression model to investigate various factors influencing the tourism consumption choices of elderly people.

Summary

Overall, the above analysis provides evidence that, according to the existing literature, socio-demographic characteristics, economic factors, and psychographic attributes have impacts on people's leisure and tourism expenditure. Yet only a handful of tourism studies have provided empirical evidence in analyzing the determinants of households' spending on tourism products and services; few studies have explored the major determinants of household tourism expenditure using advanced econometric tools; and very little research has been conducted in the Chinese tourism context. In addition, psychographic factors have often been neglected in past studies, because of limited data availability. The aim of this study is to fill the gap.

Methodology

Data and variables

The data used in the study were from the CFPS, which is a longitudinal, nationally representative, annual survey of Chinese communities, families, and individuals; it was launched in 2010 by the Institute of Social Science Survey (ISSS) of Peking University, China. The database contains data from 25 provinces in China; the areas not covered by it are the Xinjiang Autonomous Region, Tibet Autonomous Region, Ningxia Autonomous Region, Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region, Qinghai Province, Hainan Province and Taiwan District, Hong Kong SAR, and Macao (Xie & Hu, 2014). This study employed the 2012 data, which was a follow-up survey based on interviews conducted in 2010.

Figure 3. Regional distribution of the CFPS respondents.
Note. The areas marked in dark red are the provinces/cities selected for this study. They belong to four regions: (1) Eastern China (Beijing, Tianjin, Guangdong Province, Jiangsu Province, Hebei Province, Shandong Province, Shanghai, Fujian Province, and Zhejiang Province); (2) Central China (Anhui Province, Henan Province, Hubei Province, Hunan Province, Jiangxi Province, and Shanxi Province); (3) Western China (Chongqing, Gansu Province, Shaanxi Province, Sichuan Province, Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region, and Yunnan Province); and (4) Northeastern China (Liaoning Province, Jilin Province, and Heilongjiang Province).

A three-stage probability proportional to size sampling with implicit stratification method was used to collect the samples: counties in rural areas or administrative districts in towns and cities were chosen as the primary sampling units; neighborhood communities in towns and cities or administrative villages in rural areas were the second-stage sampling units; and households were defined as the final-stage sampling units (Xie & Hu, 2014). It is important to note that the CFPS survey did not employ a traditional sampling design that collects samples independently from cities and towns and rural areas (Xie, 2012). The traditional sampling method can better reflect the reality of China's rapid urbanization. The representativeness of the sample was evaluated by comparing the age-sex structure of the 2010 CFPS data and the 2010 Census data. The CFPS sample was found to be a good representative of the targeted population in the 25 provinces as the age-sex pyramid was almost identical with one from census (Xie & Hu, 2014). Our data sample for 2012 comprised 13,453 households, with 42,970 family members. In this study, household tourism expenditure (expressed in 2012 RMB/yuan) was adopted to measure tourism expenditure in China. Three types of determinants – economic, socio-demographic, and psychographic – were included in the model. Table 1 provides a detailed summary of the variables included in the model.

Table 1 Variables and measurements

Dependent variables	
Annual household tourism expenditure (Exp)	**Participation in tourism activities (Par)**
Measured in 2012 (RMB/yuan)	Family traveled in 2012
	Family did not travel in 2012
Independent variables	
Economic factors	
Annual family (net) income (Income)	**Total family deposits and cash (Deposit)**
Measured in 2012 (RMB/yuan)	Measured in 2012 (RMB/yuan)
Socio-demographic factors	
Gender	**Locality**
Male	Urban area (city)
Female[a]	Town[a]
Age	Rural area (country)
Age in years	**Region**
Marital status	East
Not married[a]	Central
Married	West
Education	Northeast[a]
Illiterate or semi-literate (Education 1)[a]	**Number of children (Child)**
Primary school (Education 2)	Value range: 0-10
Junior high school (Education 3)	**English Proficiency (English)**
Senior high school (Education 4)	Cannot speak English[a]
3-year college education or above (Education 5)	Can speak English
Psychographic factors	
Life satisfaction (Lifesat)	**Family satisfaction (Famsat)**
Very unsatisfied (1)	Very unsatisfied (1)
Unsatisfied (2)	Unsatisfied (2)
Neutral (3)	Neutral (3)
Satisfied (4)	Satisfied (4)
Very satisfied (5)	Very satisfied (5)
Number of days (per week) feeling confident about the future (Futcon)	
Almost never (less than one day) (1)	Often (3-4 days) (3)
Sometimes (1-2 days) (2)	Most of the time (4)

[a]This is the reference group for the variable.

The Heckman model

The Heckman model – proposed by Heckman (1979) – was adopted in this study for two reasons. First, tourism spending behavior often involves a two-stage decision making process: in the first stage, consumers need to decide if they are going to participate in tourism activities; and in the second stage, if they have decided to participate in them, they must then decide how much they will spend. The Heckman model is the appropriate option if the aim is to reflect such a two-stage decision making process. Second, our preliminary data analysis showed that there were numerous zero values in the reporting of household tourism expenditure, which was likely to make traditional OLS estimates biased. The Heckman model is a good solution to such a problem.

The Heckman model is a two-step modeling procedure. A Probit model was applied in the first step, to examine the likelihood of travel; it is set out below.

$$y_i^* = X_i \beta_i + \varepsilon_i, \quad \varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \delta^2) \qquad (1)$$

$$y_i^* = 1 \quad \text{if } y_i > 0$$

$$y_i^* = 0 \quad \text{if } y_i \le 0$$

where X_i is the vector of the independent variable for the i^{th} family, β_i is the coefficient vector of the independent variable for the i^{th} family, ε_i is the error term that follows the normal distribution, y_i^* is the latent variable, and y_i is the observed variable (the i^{th} household's tourism expenditure). If y_i^* is equal to 1, this indicates that there is tourism expenditure in the i^{th} family; if y_i^* is equal to 0, this indicates that there is no tourism expenditure in the i^{th} family.

The data was truncated by deliberately removing all the zero values before proceeding to the second step in the modeling. This data screening introduces the problem of selection bias, making classical linear regression unsuitable. The Heckman model introduces the inverse Mill's ratio (IMR) indicator to overcome the problem of selection bias. The IMR can be calculated by

$$\lambda = \phi(X_i \beta_i) / \Phi(X_i \beta_i) \qquad (2)$$

where ϕ is the standard normal density function and Φ is the standard normal cumulative distribution function. The IMR is extremely important in the Heckman model because it is an indicator of the presence of selection bias and shows whether a two-stage modeling process is appropriate. A significant IMR value confirms the need to use a truncated regression model in the second stage. The IMR is calculated for each observation and can be incorporated into the regression equation as below:

$$y_i^* = y_i \quad \text{if } y_i^* > 0$$

$$y_i^* = 0 \quad \text{if } y_i^* \le 0$$

$$y_i = Z_i \gamma_i + \lambda_i \alpha_i + u_i, \quad u_i \sim N(0, \xi^2) \qquad (3)$$

where Z_i is the vector of the independent variable for the i^{th} family in the second-stage regression; γ_i is the coefficient vector of the independent variable for the i^{th} family in the second-stage regression; α_i is the coefficient of the i^{th} IMR λ_i; and u_i is the error term, which is normally distributed.

An important restriction on the Heckman model is that the independent variables included in the second stage should be a strict subset of the variables in the first stage. A major implication of this is that at least one element in the second stage is not also in the first stage, indicating that at least one determinant of tourism participation does not have a partial effect on tourism expenditure. Although it is not necessary to satisfy the above restriction rule, inclusion of the same explanatory variables in the two stages yields less convincing results unless there is an exclusion restriction in Equation (3). The reason for this is that, while the IMR is a nonlinear function of the first-stage variables it is often well approximated by a linear function. If the independent variables are the same in both stages, the IMR may be highly correlated with the elements in the second stage regression and such a multicollinearity problem may lead to very high standard errors in the coefficients of the second-stage variables

(Wooldridge, 2013, p. 619).

Results

We limited our sample to respondents above 16 years of age; there were 28,373 valid observations. Table 2 shows that 12.75% of the respondents went on holiday in 2012; the rest (about 87%) did not participate in any tourism activities. The mean total household tourism expenditure was RMB 4667 in 2012 (the standard deviation was more than 3% of the mean). The minimum total household tourism expenditure was RMB 9 and the maximum was RMB 150,000. The above statistics suggest that the tourism expenditure of families with different backgrounds and from different parts of China was highly variable.

In our sample of the 2012 CFPS data set, 48.91% of the Chinese residents were male and 51.09% of them female. About 70% (70.02%) of the respondents were rural residents and about 30% (29.98%) were residents of cities and towns. China's radical urbanization strategy is to integrate the majority of rural residents into cities – the Chinese government is demolishing rural villages and building new cities and towns to which the rural residents are relocated. A cornerstone of this strategy is the *hukou* (household) registration system that controls migration. It should be noted that in this study "towns" refers to areas created by the transformation of rural areas. Finally, the mean number of children per family was 1.77 (the standard deviation was about 71% of the mean), which reflects the effects of the one-child policy (China's population control policy) that was adopted in the early 1980s and maintained until 2015, when it began to be phased out.

Table 2 Profile of the respondents

Variables	Frequency (%)	Variables	Frequency (%)
Participate in tourism activities		**Education**	
Yes	12.75	Illiterate or semi-literate	30.65
No	87.25	Primary school	21.78
Life satisfaction		Junior high school	26.93
Very unsatisfied	6.15	Senior high school	12.99
Unsatisfied	12.37	3-year college or above	7.64
Neutral	42.37	**Region**	
Satisfied	23.92	East	31.85
Very satisfied	15.18	Central	25.47
Family satisfaction		West	14.96
Very unsatisfied	4.79	Northeast	27.73
Unsatisfied	10.25	**Number of days (per week) feeling confident about the future**	
Neutral	38.47	Almost never	16.39
Satisfied	27.67	Sometimes	23.67
Very satisfied	18.81	Often	28.87
Gender		Most of time	31.08
Male	48.91	**Locality**	
Female	51.09	Urban area (city)	15.68
		Town	14.29
		Rural area	70.02

Table 3 Descriptive statistics for continuous response

Variables	Mean	Std.	Min.	Max.
Annual household tourism expenditure[a]	4,667.41	144.81	9	150,000
Annual family (net) income	52,099.47	69,731.16	1	3,036,046
Total family deposits and cash	29,762.15	103,544.40	1	4,000,000
Number of children	1.77	1.25	0	10
Age in years	46.67	15.75	16	99

[a]The null values of tourism expenditure were removed in calculating the descriptive statistics.

Heckman's two-step estimation procedure was applied to identify the determinants of the decision to go on holiday and the decisions regarding the level of tourism expenditure, in terms of the chosen variables; these variables were economic factors (income, total family deposits, and cash), socio-demographic attributes (gender, age, marital status, education, locality, number of children, and English proficiency), and psychographic factors (life satisfaction, family satisfaction, and number of days per week feeling confident about the future). All the continuous variables were in natural logarithmic form. A Probit regression model (labeled "Stage 1") and truncated regression model (labeled "Stage 2") were estimated in the first and second stage, respectively; the results are shown in Table 4. The English proficiency variable was included only in Stage 1, in order to meet the important restriction of the Heckman model. English proficiency was found to have a positive impact on the decision to travel but had no significant influence on the level of tourism expenditure.

Table 4 Determinants of going on holiday and tourism expenditure

Independent variables	Stage 1	Stage 2
Economic factors		
lnIncome	0.228*** (0.011)	0.710*** (0.112)
lnDeposit	0.070*** (0.004)	0.163*** (0.035)
Socio-demographic factors		
lnAge	0.276*** (0.043)	0.727*** (0.164)
Married	0.310*** (0.047)	0.717*** (0.186)
Child	-0.091*** (0.013)	-0.225*** (0.055)
Gender	-0.071*** (0.022)	-0.236*** (0.065)
East	0.128*** (0.032)	0.435*** (0.097)
Center	-0.107*** (0.035)	-0.085 (0.103)
West	0.052 (0.036)	0.511*** (0.095)
City	0.123*** (0.032)	0.316*** (0.092)
Country	-0.438*** (0.029)	-1.339*** (0.222)
Education 2	0.077** (0.035)	0.116 (0.102)
Education 3	0.185*** (0.034)	0.611*** (0.131)
Education 4	0.353*** (0.039)	1.087*** (0.201)
Education 5	0.735*** (0.047)	1.953*** (0.350)
English	0.043* (0.026)	-
Psychographic factors		
lnLifesat	0.070 (0.044)	0.214* (0.122)
lnFamsat	0.189*** (0.047)	0.416*** (0.155)
lnFutcon	0.020 (0.024)	0.129** (0.062)
Constant	-5.656*** (0.203)	-9.591*** (3.115)
Inverse Mill's ratio	2.364*** (0.595)	

*$p < 0.10$, **$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.01$.

Note. Values in parentheses are standard errors. The prefix "*ln*" in the first column indicates the log-form of the variables.

Discussion

Table 4 shows that the IMR was significant at the 1% level, which means that the correlation between the error terms of the decision to go on holiday and of the tourism expenditure was significantly different from zero. This indicates that the Heckman model is appropriate for decomposing the tourist choice decision-making process into two stages (deciding to go on holiday and deciding on the level of tourism expenditure), given that a large number of null values existed in the CFPS data set.

The significance tests of the individual parameters show that the decision to go on holiday for the Chinese residents in the sample was determined by economic factors (annual family income, total family deposits, and cash), socio-demographic attributes (age, marital status, gender, locality, region, education level, number of children, and English proficiency), and a psychographic factor (family satisfaction). The dimensions which appeared to have a significant effect on the level of tourism expenditure were economic factors (annual family income, total family deposits, and cash), socio-demographic attributes (age, marital status, gender, locality, region education level, number of children), and psychographic factors (family satisfaction and number of days per week feeling confident about the future). An in-depth analysis of the two-stage modeling results is presented below.

Stage 1: Going on holiday

Annual family income was found to have a significant positive relationship with the decision to go on holiday, suggesting that Chinese residents in the higher income groups have a higher propensity to take part in tourism activities. This conclusion is consistent with the finding in the existing literature that income is a stimulus for tourism activities (Davies & Mangan, 1992; Cai, 1998; Zheng & Zhang, 2011).

The effect of assets (measured by the total family deposits and cash) on the decision to travel was significant and positive, confirming that families with more assets are more willing to travel.

With regard to the socio-demographic characteristics, age, marital status, gender, region, locality, education level, the number of children, and English proficiency were all found to have a significant effect on the decision to go on holiday. (It should be noted that we removed explanatory variables if their estimated coefficients were not significant at the 10% level.) The effect of age on the decision to travel was found to be significant and positive, indicating that the propensity to travel increases with age. This is probably because an increasing number of middle-aged and elderly people in China now choose to go on holiday. The surge in the number of middle-aged people in China who choose to travel is related to their high income level, while the increasing popularity of travel among elderly people is related to the amount of spare time they have. China is facing a very challenging aging problem, mainly due to the implementation of the one-child policy in the early 1980s, and the elderly group needs to be emphasized in the context of Chinese tourism industry.

Females (for whom the estimated coefficient was negative and significant at the 1% level) were more likely to choose to go on holiday than males; which echoes the finding of Kuo and Lu (2013). Married people showed a higher propensity to go on holiday than unmarried people did (the latter category comprised those who were single, divorced, widowed, cohabiting, in a civil union or other domestic partnership, and unmarried partners). Furthermore, the significant but negative coefficient shows that families with more children were less likely to go on holiday, which indicates that family size is a barrier to family tourism. This finding is consistent with that of Collins and Tisdell (2002) and of Walsh, John, and Hof (1992).

Locality was found to have a significant effect on the decision whether to travel or not: the people who lived in cities had a higher propensity to travel than those who lived in towns and rural areas. This reflects the fact that people residing in towns and cities are much wealthier than those residing in rural areas in China, as the towns and cities offer a much greater number of well-paid job opportunities than do the rural areas. In addition, it was found that the decision to go on holiday displayed a significant regional difference: people in the East of China had the highest propensity to go on a holiday trip – higher than their counterparts in the other three regions (West, Central, and Northeast China) – which is in line with the finding of Nicolau and Más (2005) that people from developed regions are more willing to go traveling.

Education is a factor that significantly and positively influenced the decision to travel, suggesting that people with higher education levels have a higher propensity to take holiday trips; the coefficient of *Education 5* was significantly higher than the coefficients of the other categories. This finding echoes the finding of Sönmez and Graefe (1998) and of Parker (1976). Education helps people to develop an interest in tourism and facilitates access to travel information; it may also prepare people for several types of leisure activities. In addition, the English proficiency variable was found to have a positive influence on the decision to go on holiday (its coefficient was significant at the 10% level). This could be partly explained by the fact that Chinese residents who can speak English are likely to be more open-minded and are more confident about taking overseas trips. This finding partly echoes that of Yang and Wu (2014).

Of the three psychographic factors being examined, the level of family life satisfaction was the only significant one (the other two factors being examined were life satisfaction and number of days per week feeling confident about the future). The significant positive coefficient (0.243) of the family satisfaction variable indicates that people who are more satisfied with their family life have a higher propensity to travel.

Stage 2: Level of tourism expenditure

The effect of family income on the level of tourism expenditure was positive and significant at the 1% level, suggesting that higher levels of income are associated with higher tourism expenditure. This is in line with the empirical evidence found in the literature, such as in the studies by Mudambi and Baum (1997), Agarwal and Yochum (1999), and Cannon and Ford (2002). Furthermore, Table 4 shows that the elasticity of household tourism expenditure in China is lower than one (0.710) – a 1% increase in the family income led to an increase of 0.710% in household tourism expenditure.

Total family deposits and cash also had a positive effect on the level of tourism expenditure at the 1% level, but with a lower elasticity (0.163). That is, an increase of 1% in family deposits and cash led to an increase of 0.163% in household tourism expenditure.

Among the tested demographic factors, six factors (age, marital status, number of children in the family, locality, region, and education) were found to have a significant effect on household tourism expenditure. Age was found to be positively related to family tourism expenditure, which indicates that people spend more as their age increases. Our earlier analysis shows that the propensity to go on holiday increases with age; these two findings suggest that as people grow older they tend to have more leisure time that they can use to travel, and they tend to have more spending power as well, because they have had more time in which to accumulate more savings.

It is interesting to find that married people had a higher propensity to go on holiday than the unmarried group, and they spent much more than the unmarried group. This finding is in line with the findings of several studies, such as those by Cai (1998), Nicolau and Más (2005), Jang and Ham (2009), and Hung, Shang, and Wang (2013); these researchers too found that married families spent more than unmarried families. We also found that families with more children spent significantly less than those with fewer children did; this finding differs from that obtained by Nicolau and Más (2005). This may be explained by the fact that Chinese families with fewer children are more likely to be wealthy and thus more able to afford long-haul (both domestic and outbound) trips and to spend more on tourism than families with more children are able to. Families with fewer children are more likely to live in cities and towns, where the implementation of the one-child policy was much stricter and more effective than in rural areas because of the higher cost to town/city residents of flouting the rules (those who lived in cities and towns would be financially punished and even lose their jobs if they had a second child).

Rural residents were found to have a lower propensity to go on holiday and they also spent significantly less than the residents who lived in towns and cities, which corresponded to the different economic conditions pertaining in these different areas. The positive coefficients of all the education variables show that there was a positive relationship between household expenditure on tourism and education level. Furthermore, the coefficients increased as the level of education increased, which means that household tourism expenditure increased when the level of education increased. This may be explained by the fact that people with a higher level of education have more knowledge about and information on tourism, which can facilitate participation in a rich variety of tourism activities. This conclusion is in line with that of Nicolau and Más (2005).

Being male was also found to have a significant and negative effect on tourism expenditure of the sample, suggesting that females are likely to spend more on tourism products/services than males spend.

With regard to the psychographic factors, life satisfaction, family satisfaction, and number of days per week feeling confident about the future were all significantly and positively related to the household tourism expenditure; this indicates that people with a higher level of life satisfaction, a higher level of family satisfaction, and more confidence about the future are likely to spend more on tourism activities. These factors are all related to the perception of risk.

Conclusion

The two-step Heckman modeling procedure was utilized to identify the determinants of the decision to go on holiday and the level of tourism expenditure; three dimensions were considered: economic factors, socio-demographic attributes, and psychographic factors. The empirical results show that tourism spending decisions should be modeled jointly with the decision to go on holiday, due to the positive relationship between the decision to go on holiday and the level of tourism expenditure that the significant correlation shown by the IMR value suggests.

There are three types of influencing factors that had a significant impact on making the decision to go on holiday for Chinese residents: economic factors (annual family income, total family deposits, and cash); socio-demographic attributes (age, marital status, gender, locality, region, education level, number of children, and English proficiency); and a psychographic factor (family satisfaction). The three types of factors that had a significant impact on household tourism expenditure were economic factors (annual family income, total family deposits, and cash); socio-demographic attributes (age, marital status, gender, locality, education level, and number of children); and psychographic factors (life satisfaction, family satisfaction and number of days per week feeling confident about the future)..

It was found that a higher propensity to go on holiday was associated with higher family income (suggesting that tourism activities are normal goods), and families with higher income levels tended to spend significantly more than families with lower ones. Families with more money (family deposits and cash) were more likely to travel than were those with less money.

Age was found to be positively related to both the decision to travel and the level of tourism consumption, indicating that a person's travel propensity increases with age and her/his spending power also increases with time, due to the accumulation of savings. Married couples had a higher propensity to go on holiday than unmarried individuals and couples, perhaps because married couples need to make more family-related expenditures. Tourism activities become joint activities by husbands and wives, thus increasing the incremental expenses. Having children was found to be a barrier to deciding to go on holiday; however, if families with children did decide to travel, the families with more children spent significantly less than the families with more children. Females were more likely to choose to go on holiday than males, and they also tended to spend more.

The Chinese residents who lived in cities were found to have a higher propensity to travel than those who lived in towns and rural areas. This is mainly because, on average, city residents earn much more than people who live in towns and rural areas. It was also found that the decision to take holiday trips shows a clear regional difference: people in the East (the most developed region in China) were more likely to participate in tourism activities than were their counterparts in the other three regions (West, Central, and Northeast China).

The findings show that higher levels of education were associated with a higher propensity to take holiday trips and a higher level of tourism expenditure, due to the diversity of the tourism choices that people with a higher level of education have. Psychographic factors were also found to be important determinants of Chinese households' tourism decisions and activities. Families with higher levels of family satisfaction had a higher propensity to travel and to spend more on tourism, while life satisfaction and confidence about the future were found to positively affect only decisions on the level of household tourism expenditure.

The findings of this study provide an extremely clear picture of the causal relationship between Chinese household tourism expenditure and its major determinants; and findings of this paper have implications for governmental decision-makers and tourism planners, as well as for managers in the tourism industry, when they devise marketing strategies for both domestic and international destinations. Market segmentation, to be effective, should be based on the results of this empirical study. For example, the design of some holiday packages by tour operators should be adapted to meet the needs of married tourists who are without children and from Eastern China, as these tourists appear to have the most profitable tourist profile.

Despite the usefulness of the CFPS data, this study has some limitations that are mainly due to the ways in which the original data were collected. First, this study does not consider the effects of a number of tourism-related psychographic attributes (e.g., travel motivation and opinions about travel) due to the lack of data on them. Second, even though the 2012 CFPS data were found to be a good representative of the national population in China, the sample was limited to only 25 provinces and the data covered only the year 2012. It would be interesting to examine the effects of the major determinants of tourism expenditure from a longitudinal perspective that would allow for a dynamic analysis of the temporal evolution of the two-stage choice process. Third, due to the lack of data, tourism expenditure could not be further decomposed into items such as shopping, tickets of scenic spots, accommodation, and transportation; this made an in-depth analysis of the components of the tourism expenditure impossible.

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Apfu15 Travel Motivations of Domestic Film Tourists: A Netnographic Study of Chinese Tourists to the Hengdian World Studios

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Abstract

Past studies related to film tourism have examined the impacts of films on destination image, travel motivations, preferences, and experiences at film-shooting destinations. Despite these important insights, most – if not all – studies considered international film tourists. Yet limited research has examined travel motivators for domestic film tourists. To address this research gap, the objective of this study is to identify domestic tourists' motivations for visiting film-shooting destinations. This study uses netnography to identify motivators of domestic film tourists to Hengdian World Studios in China. Qualitative data from 23 Chinese blogs on Mafengwo.com was collected. The findings indicate seven key travel motivators for domestic film tourists: celebrity endorsement, visualization, escape and traversing, reliving, cultural value, destination authenticity, and mystery discovery. The first four motivators are consistent with previous research findings with international film tourists, while the latter three are unique to this study in the domestic film tourism context. Implications for destination management and recommendations for future research are provided.

Keywords: Chinese tourism, Domestic tourism, Film tourism, Hengdian World Studios, Netnography, Travel motivation

Introduction

Film tourism is defined by Hudson and Ritchie (2006, p.388) as "tourist visits to a destination or attraction as a result of the destination's being featured on television, video, or the cinema screen". It is alternatively called film-induced or movie-induced tourism and is loosely classified under the category of cultural tourism (Hudson & Ritchie, 2006). The formation of film tourism is the result of tourists' need for creative experiences (Richards, 2013), interactions with the destination resources (Oviedo-García et al., 2014), and fulfillment of emotional stimuli (Trauer, 2006). The rise of film tourism has brought benefits to both the destinations and tourists. As films create attractive scenery and sentimental values, film-related destinations benefit from the increase in destination awareness created by the films, especially for destinations that are little known to the public (Glen Croy, 2011; Frost, 2006). For popular destinations that have already experienced a large volume of visitations, there has been an increase in tourist arrivals after destination-related films are released (Butler, 2011). Apart from the influence on destinations, films also serve as an information source for tourists, suggesting them of the scenic spots to visit or the activities to do at the film destination (Croy & Heitmann, 2011). Film tourism also enables tourists to relive the plot, characters, and emotions as if they were watching the film again (Beeton, 2010).

There has been increasing research interest in the field of film tourism since 1990s (Oviedo-García et al., 2014), and film tourism remains a burgeoning area in tourism research over the years (Hudson & Ritchie, 2006). Research contributed to the understanding of film tourism phenomenon has mainly focused on the roles and impacts of films on destination image, travel intention, travel preferences, destination selection, and on-site experiences (Kim, 2012; Oviedo-García et al., 2014; Rittichainuwat & Rattanaphinanchai, 2015). For example, Hudson and Ritchie (2006) identify factors of marketing activities that encourage tourists to visit the destinations appearing in the film. Young and Young (2008) examine the relationship between the consumption of TV product and the consumption of tourism, and suggest that potential motivators for film tourists may be celebrity, destination physical features or themes but further research into this area is needed. Kim (2012) examines how film audience's emotional involvement impacts their on-site experiences at the film destination. Many researchers also looked into the area of travel motivation, which is the direct force driving tourist activities (Hudson and Ritchie, 2006). For example, Kozak (2002) applied the push-pull factor framework to film tourism for identifying intrinsic and extrinsic motivators of film tourists. Macionis (2004) identifies three types of tourists, namely the serendipitous film tourist, the general film tourist, and the specific film tourist, based on their varying levels of motivation.

Previous research findings have identified various factors influencing tourists' motivation to visit film-shooting destination, including storyline and plot, performance backdrop, celebrity and characters (Macionis, 2004; Beeton, 2010). These research findings are all obtained in an international setting, when tourists outside of the destination country come to visit the film-shooting destination. For instance, Oviedo-García et al. (2014) identify the travel motivators of British and French tourists to Seville in Spain; Rittichainuwat and Rattanaphinanchai (2015) examine the motivators for Thai tourists to visit the film-shooting destination Daejanggeum in South Korea.

Yet limited research has been conducted to examine the motivators for domestic tourists to visit a film destination. For example, the travel motivators identified in existing literature for international film tourists may not provide sufficient coverage of other travel motivators applicable to domestic film tourists who have arguably higher cultural proximity and knowledge of the heritage of the destination compared to international tourists (Chang, 2015). From a practical destination marketing perspective, the domestic film tourism market should not be neglected for its large number of visitations and high tourist spending. For instance, with Hollywood as the top entertainment demand generator in Los Angeles (Wallage et al., 2014), domestic tourists' total spending on entertainment in Los Angeles adds up to 1127 million dollars in 2012 (Weinstein & Stanford, 2013) and the domestic leisure tourism has taken up 60% of the total tourism of Los Angeles in 2014 (Los Angeles tourism by numbers: 2014 quick facts, 2015). Hengdian World Studios in China also enjoys a large number of domestic visitations, with a weekly visitation of 780,000 in the single week of the National Day holiday in October 2014, of which over 80% are self-driving domestic tourists (Huang, 2014).

The aim of this study is to review the current literature on factors impacting international tourists' motivation to visit film destinations and to identify factors influencing Chinese domestic tourists' motivation of visiting film-shooting destinations. The geographical focus of this study is Hengdian World Studios in China, the filming location for many famous historical or myth movies and TV products such as Master of the Crimson Armor, The Opium War, and The Mummy: Tomb of the Dragon Emperor (Hengdian World Studios, 2015). It is an AAAAA level tourism destination, which is the highest level of tourism destination in China based on service level, destination quality, and customer satisfaction; it is also the only recognized National Film and Television Industry Experiment Base in China (Hengdian World Studios, 2015). The whole studios consist of 13 scenic regions connecting through thousands of years of Chinese history and myth, with various performances and activities (Hengdian World Studios, 2015). Hengdian World Studios is a destination to study due to the huge volume of movies produced annually and the large number of domestic tourist arrivals (Zhang & Huang, 2011).

The study fills the gap of understanding domestic film tourist motivators and the differences compared to international film tourists. For instance, the findings of this study indicate seven factors that motivate tourists to visit domestic film-shooting destinations, which are celebrity endorsement, visualization, escape and traversing, reliving, cultural value, destination authenticity, and mystery discovery, among which the identification of cultural value, destination authenticity, and mystery discovery is unique to this study. This study provides insights into tourists' motivation to visit film destinations, and provides marketing and operational implications to film-shooting destinations that are targeting domestic tourists, such as arousing tourists' cultural proximity with the destination, diversifying the activities provided at the destination, and leveraging the production process to arouse tourists' curiosity, and meanwhile utilizing celebrity effect, creating a sense of traversing, visualizing film scenes and enabling audience to relive the storyline.

Literature Review

Film tourism

The research into film tourism largely emerged in 1990s (Oviedo-García et al., 2014), which is later defined as "tourist visits to a destination or attraction as a result of the destination's being featured on television, video, or the cinema screen" by Hudson and Ritchie (2006, p.388). It is featured for its wide coverage of an extensive body of knowledge, and interconnections among tourism, space, and media (Connell, 2012). Film tourism has aroused the interest of recognizing distinct tourism behavior, meanwhile integrating both academic and practitioner context, which makes the subject of film tourism worthy of attention (Connell, 2012).

Increasing numbers of studies have shown the growing impacts of film tourism, including growing destination awareness, enhanced destination images, and positive economic returns (Kim et al, 2012). In 2012, nearly 40 million international tourists selected travel destinations mainly because the destinations appeared in the films they had seen (Modiano 2013). The large numbers of film tourists constitute the base of film tourism research and imply the huge potential for this field of study. Another survey reveals that 82% of the respondents have stronger interests to visit New Zealand after watching the film series Hobbit trilogy, most of whose filming sites are located in New Zealand (Roesch, 2015). This shows that popular films have strong influence on tourists and are able to induce tourists' intentions to visit the film-shooting destination. Liou (2010) also conducts a study to identify the influence of Japanese films on Taiwanese people, and finds out that after watching Japanese films, respondents express strong willingness to visit Japan more than once, and report a positive change of image on Japan. This demonstrates that films will not only create an enhanced destination image, but also attract large numbers of repeat tourists. In US, the 450 major films and TV shows that are produced in the State of Georgia benefit the state with more than $3 billion of economic contribution (Poole, 2001).

Even though the production of films can take up to millions of dollars, the benefits to the film-shooting destinations can last for years after the screening of the films (Kim et al, 2012). In spite of being a niche element of tourism, film tourism continues to draw the attention of scholars as well as destination marketing organizations and economic development organizations, in an effort to understand tourists' mentality and capture implications for promotions (Connell, 2012).

Motivators for film tourists

One of the foundational fields for film tourism is identifying tourists' motivations, which is discovering what motivates spectators to select a place that they have seen on screen as their holiday destination (Oviedo-García et al., 2014). Various research has been carried out to identify the motivators for tourists to visit a film-shooting destination. Findings may vary according to the country of origin of both the destination and the respondent, while certain motivators appear more than once in different research context. Table 1 summarizes four major motivators for international film tourists that are commonly identified in previous research.

Table 1. Summary of major motivators for international film tourists

Motivators	Definition	Example	Reference
Celebrity Endorsement	The desire to visit a destination where celebrities shot famous scenes in a film	International tourists to Republic of Macedonia	Gjorgievski & Trpkova (2012)
		Taiwanese to South Korea	Su et al. (2012)
Visualization	The desire to personally be in the real environment of the scene that they have seen in a film	American tourists to Australia	Khan, Safri, & Pazil (2014)
		Japanese tourists to UK	Iwashita and Butler (2006)
Novelty and escape	The desire to be out of the real world and experience something alien but interesting	French and British tourists to Spain	Oviedo-García et al. (2014)
Reliving	The desire to relive the experience and emotions that are encountered when watching the film, or to reinforce the storyline and fantasy	Chinese and Russian tourists to South Korea	Whang, Yong & Ko (2015)
		No specific example identified	Beeton (2010)

Gjorgievski and Trpkova (2012) identify celebrity endorsement as one of the major motivators for tourists to visit film destinations, which is the desire for a tourist to visit a destination where celebrities shot famous scenes in a film. Gjorgievski and Trpkova (2012) find out that the higher the tourist's emotional involvement with the celebrity is, the higher the motivation for the tourist to visit the film-shooting destination will be. This means that some tourists may be attracted to the destination because certain celebrity that they like has been, will be or is there the moment they visit. In addition, the way that the celebrity interacts with the destination in the film also influence tourists' attitude towards the film-shooting destination (Su et al., 2012) However, it does not suggest whether there is certain relationship between the number of celebrities and the level of motivation of tourists.

Visualization is identified as another motivator for tourists to visit international film-shooting destinations, which is the desire to personally be in the real environment of the scene that they have seen in a film. In Iwashita and Butler's (2006) research, Japanese tourists who are appealed by the cultural heritage and beautiful scenery in British TV dramas express their intention to travel to the film-shooting destination and visualize the scene in person. This shows tourists' desire to break the limit of merely viewing the scenery on screen and transforming it into a real experience, to enjoy the scenery not just on screen but rather in person and on the spot. Khan, Safri, and Pazil (2014) also find that American tourists are highly motivated by the beautiful scenery in Australian films and express strong desire to see it in person.

Oviedo-García et al. (2014) also identify novelty and as a key motivator for tourists to visit international film-shooting destinations, which is the tourist being out of the real world and experiencing something alien but interesting. This means that tourists are attracted to a film-shooting destination for imaginary or unfamiliar settings and activities that do not exist or are not easily accessible in their daily life, especially for tourists to international film-shooting destinations, for they can see scenery that do not exist in their own culture and experience something totally new to them. This motivator is also interpreted as desire to escape from the real world (Oviedo-García et al., 2014), for some people would rather visit film-shooting destinations consisting of artificial establishment rather than natural views. However, this may not apply to all film-shooting destinations, as many destinations are natural environment rather than artificial ones.

Reliving, as Beeton (2010) suggests, is another motivator for tourists to visit film-shooting destinations. It argues that tourists come to a film destination to relive the experience and emotions that they encounter when they watch the film, or to reinforce the storyline and fantasy. This applies especially to tourists who have a high level of involvement with the film content or emotions, for the higher the level of involvement that the tourists are with the film, the higher the level of motivation they will have to visit the film-shooting destination (Whang, Yong and Ko, 2015). This means that if the tourists go through a strong emotional experience when they watch the film, or they are highly attracted by the storyline of the film, they will be motivated to visit the film-shooting destination to re-experience the emotions, or to live the story as a leading actor themselves.

In addition, many studies apply a push-pull framework to examine motivations for film tourists (Kozak, 2002). Push factors are the intangible and intrinsic desires of individual tourists (Kim, 2007), which are related to the intellectual, social and relaxation elements (Pan & Tsang, 2014) and may vary according to individual characteristics (Kim, 2007). The intellectual components comprise of vicarious experience, self-identity, novelty, ego enhancement, learning, and fantasy; social motivation contains status, prestige, fan activities and organizations; relaxation elements include escape and the desire to view beautiful scenery (Pan & Tsang, 2014; Oviedo-García et al., 2014). Of the four motivators identified above, reliving, novelty and escape fall within the push factor classification. Pull factors are related to the physical features of destination attractions, which are tangible and concrete (Kim, 2007), and involve the “where”, “what”, “who”, “when”, and “how” of the destination (Pan & Tsang, 2014). “Where” and “what” refer to the destination and attributes that were depicted in the film; “who” is related to the cast, characters and their lifestyles in the film; “when” is associated with the time period that the story happens; “how” refers to the directorship and the production of the film (Pan & Tsang, 2014). Since that these factors originally exist at the destination or in the film, and have a relatively low variance from tourist to tourist, push factors are always perceived as more important compared to pull factors (Kim, 2007). Of the four motivators identified above, celebrity endorsement and visualization fall among the pull factors. Macionis (2004) also explains motivation using the “3P” framework to subsidize the pull factors, namely place, performance, and personality. Place refers to the location and scenery of the destination that are immediately identifiable (Macionis, 2004), such as the natural scenery, backdrop, and the setting in the film; performance refers to the storyline and theme that connects the audience with the film and the destination, which motivates tourists to put themselves in the situation of the characters (Heitmann, 2010); personality refers to the human elements that attract tourists (Macionis, 2004), such as celebrity and cast of the film.

Although various research has been conducted to identify motivators for tourists to visit film-shooting destinations, very few of them actually examine the domestic film tourism context. Film tourists generally have a rather broader exposure and access to films and TV products of their own country compared to foreign ones (Zhang, 2015) and they may have already been familiar with the scenes or backdrop in the film which may be just similar to those in their daily life; thus the motivators for them to visit a domestic film-shooting destination may be different from international ones. The existing literature cited above is helpful for enriching the understanding of the film tourism in general. Within the film tourism sector, previous research has paid much attention to the international film tourism aspect, while very few studies have examined the domestic film tourism aspect. This study is built based on the research opportunity described above and a specific group of Chinese domestic tourists were selected as respondents, who have been to Hengdian World Studios and have also shared their travel experiences online. The core research question to be explored in the study is: what are the motivators for domestic tourists to visit film-shooting destination?

Methodology

Research setting: Hengdian World Studios

The geographical focus of the study was Hengdian World Studios, one of the most popular film-shooting destinations in China (Hengdian World Studios, 2015). It is located in Dongyang, Zhejiang Province, established in 1996 and developed from a remote rural area to the largest film-shooting destination in Asia (Shao & Liao, 2009). It consists of 13 separate scenic regions, connecting through thousands of years of Chinese history and traditional myths, featuring ones such as The Qin Palace, Riverside Scene at Qingming Festival, The Great Wisdom Temple, and Dream Valley (Hengdian World Studios, 2015). Over 1300 movies or TV products have been filmed there, some of which are world-famous like Master of the Crimson Armor, The Opium War, and The Mummy: Tomb of the Dragon Emperor (Hengdian World Studios, 2015).

Ever since Hengdian World Studios was established, China National Tourism Administration has attached great importance to the site development of cultural connotation. So far Hengdian World Studios have been ranked as an AAAAA level tourism destination, which is the highest level of tourism destination in China based on service level, destination quality, and customer satisfaction (Shao & Liao, 2009). It is also honored as the only recognized National Film and Television Industry Experiment Base in China (Hengdian World Studios, 2015). Hengdian World Studios receive high volume of domestic tourist visitations every year, with a peak weekly visitation of 780,000 in the single week of the National Day holiday in October 2014, of which over 80% are self-driving domestic tourists (Huang, 2014). The high level of popularity, the large amount of public attention and support, and the huge number of domestic visitations are relevant to the interest of this study.

Research technique: Netnography

An in-depth understanding of factors influencing domestic film tourism was conducted through netnography, which is a new adaptation of the traditional ethnography while using the Internet as a virtual fieldwork focus (Wu & Pearce, 2014). It is featured for obtaining insider perspectives from a specific online culture group and applied in marketing studies (Kozinets, de Valck, Wojnicki, & Wilner, 2010). The netnography is adapted to tourism research in recent years (Wu & Pearce, 2014), and proves to be powerful as an exploratory

approach to excavate naturally occurring conversation environment (Mkono, 2011).
Due to the characteristic of being timely updated, easy to be tracked, and widely communicable (Wu & Pearce, 2014), long blogs are selected as the source of data for the study. The online platform selected is Mafengwo.com, which is an online community widely used by Chinese domestic tourists. It is one of the most famous online blog sites in China (Yuan et al, 2013), providing timely updated travel tips generated by other users as well as destination services such as accommodation and transportation, and embracing a high volume of blog postings (Mafengwo.com, 2015). By mid-November 2015, Mafengwo.com has a total of 231374 active blog entries for domestic travel that have been reviewed recently by multiple users, covering 209 destinations in 31 provinces (Mafengwo.com, 2015), and 170 of them are regarding domestic travel to Hengdian World Studios no later than January 1, 2015 (Mafengwo.com, 2015). Blog authors provide rich information about their travel, including transportation and accommodation arrangement, detailed itinerary, ticket varieties and prices, and restaurant recommendations (Mafengwo.com, 2015). The large scope of coverage, the high volume of postings, and the rich information of content are relevant to the interest of this study.

Data collection: 23 rich blogs on tour to Hengdian World Studios
In this study, the keyword “Hengdian” was used to search relevant blog postings on Mafengwo.com. The timing of search was between October and November in 2014, for it was a reasonable period after the National Day Golden Week in October, whose volume of tourists was huge (Huang, 2014). Blogs that were written by the same blogger on different travel scenarios were treated as a single posting entry. A total of 23 most updated blogs, which were written no earlier than October 1, 2015, and contained detailed itinerary of their tour to Hengdian World Studios and multiple aspects on their motivation and experiences, were identified and retained for the study. This is a suitable number as previous research has utilized a similar approach with 22 rich blogs to draw conclusions (Wu & Pearce, 2014).

All the 23 elicited blog entries were presented in a mix style of pictures and text, and were read widely by other online users (Mafengwo.com, 2015). Online users also interacted with the authors and more detailed information was extracted in the review section of each blog. These 23 blogs were carefully read and relevant information from the content was systematically recorded. Since that these blogs contained abundant descriptive information and could be interpreted comprehensively, the data obtained could facilitate an effective exploratory research on domestic tourist motivation to film-shooting destination.

Data analysis: Manual coding based method

A manual approach was adopted to analyze the data collected from the online blogs, since that the quantity of data was reasonable and the data was organized the moment when recorded (Kozinets, 2010). An established qualitative analyzing technique was adopted for the study. Firstly, quotes generated by online blog users were identified; secondly, codes were developed affixed to the content of blog; thirdly, codes were transformed into identifiable labels and categories; next, data collected from the blog content was categorized into these identifiable labels. After that, the sorted data was examined for similar phrases, meaningful patterns and relationships. Finally, the patterns were evaluated with established research theories, and findings were summarized. With reference to other studies of online content, it was considered not necessary to seek permission from blog writers on accessing and coding the materials (Wu & Pearce, 2014).

Results

The findings in the following sections are organized based on the research questions of this study and the travel motivators identified.

Profile of Chinese tourists to Hengdian World Studios

The contextually abundant information presented in the 23 blogs and the information disclosed by the blog authors as well as Mafengwo.com enabled the collection of basic demographic characteristics of the research samples. Data regarding the authors' origins, gender, travel companions, travel time, and the length of the tour to Hengdian World Studios were collected and summarized in Table 2. Yet, no age information was disclosed for the research samples on Mafengwo.com, and not all blog authors authorized the public access to their personal data and travel information.

The majority of Chinese tourists who visited Hengdian World Studios were female and came from neighboring provinces and regions of the destination, such as Zhejiang, Jiangsu, and Shanghai. Traveling with friends were the most popular grouping, while traveling alone or with family also took up a large percentage in the samples. The average length of visiting was 3.9 days, with the majority of tourists spending less than 5 days in Hengdian World Studios. Even though all the blogs were screened by limiting the time period between October and November in 2014, the majority of tours happened in October 2014, which was the approximate date of National Day Golden Week.

Table 2. Demographic summary of the research samples

Demographic factor		**Frequency**
Gender	Male	5
	Female	15
Origins	Zhejiang, Jiangsu & Shanghai	11
	Guangdong, Guangxi & Fujian	6
	Other parts of China	3
Travel companions	Friends	9
	Family	5
	Alone	4
Length of the tour	1-5 days	8
	6 days or above	3
Travel Time	October	18
	November	5

Why travel to Hengdian World Studios?
Of the 23 informants, 22 mentioned their motivations for traveling to Hengdian World Studios, among which seven motivation factors were elicited. They are celebrity endorsement (11 mentions), visualization (18 mentions), escape and traversing (8 mentions), reliving (9 mentions), cultural value (8 mentions), destination authenticity (11 mentions), and mystery discovery (3 mentions).

Celebrity endorsement
Almost half of the informants mentioned celebrity endorsement as their motivation to visit Hengdian World Studios, and it was observed that the informants could be divided into two types: one who visited the destination for a specific celebrity who had shot scenes at Hengdian World Studios, and the other for any celebrity in general. The majority of informants would specify the name of the celebrity that motivated them to visit the destination, while there were also those who simply desired to take a chance and meet any celebrity at the destination, knowing ahead of time that the chance would be high, and to enjoy the sense of surprise when they actually met one. It is also concluded that even though some informants were satisfied when they saw pictures of the celebrity at the shooting venue (Figure 1), the majority were motivated to visit the destination in order to see celebrities in the flesh. Some typical statements are:

“But the thing that I care about more was Feng Lin who shot Eternal Happiness and Loved in the Purple here, as well as Ge Hu who shot Chinese Paladin III here (informant 5)”. （不过我更care的是我们林峰拍的再生缘、紫钗奇缘，胡歌拍的仙剑三取景的地方）

“I managed to catch up with the press conference for the new TV series WuXin: The Monster Killer there, and I got to meet Dongjun Han and Chen Jin in person (informant 8)!”（这次赶上了唐人的新剧发布会，所以看到了无心法师韩东君，还有月牙金晨）

“When having meals in the restaurant, tasting tea in the tea house, or even just walking on the street, I might run into celebrities anytime anywhere (informant19).”（在街头饭馆用餐，在茶楼品茶，一驻足、一抬头，都有可能与大小明星不期而遇）

“The biggest regret for this tour to Hengdian was that I didn’t manage to meet celebrities (informant 13).”（来横店没碰到明星估计是这次旅行最大的遗憾了）

Figure 1: The picture of celebrities that attracted informant 4 to visit the destination

Visualization

Visualization appeared to be an important factor in domestic tourists' motivation to visit Hengdian World Studios. The results also categorized the informants into two groups: one that visited the destination purposely for specific film scenes, and the other that desired to be at the venue first, knowing that many films were shot there, and then to recall their memories of the films that they had seen and that were actually shot at the destination. The majority of informants would do some research prior to their departure and visit the destination with a list of film-venue matching information for efficiently locating the venue that they were motivated to visit; yet there were also those who would come unprepared but enjoy the process of recalling their memories after seeing the shooting venue. Some statements indicating this factor are:

"This is where the movie series The Four was filmed. I finally got to see the legendary Shenhoufu and Liushanmen in person (informant13)!" （传说中的《四大名捕》就是在这里拍摄的，终于见到所谓的神侯府和六扇门啦！）

"Why did I choose to go to Hengdian? It was because my grandma heard from the granny living next door who had been to Hengdian before, that Hengdian was very interesting, that many TV shows and TV series were filmed there, and that all the palaces in Hengdian were just like those seen in the films (informant 15)." （为什么要选择去横店，因为我的奶奶听了隔壁家去过横店的奶奶说横店很好玩的，那些房子啊就和皇宫一样，还有很多节目，电视剧都在那里拍的）

"Now I take every journey as a relief. Once the vacation date is confirmed, I'll search online for pictures or movies for beautiful scenes and then go visit there. There were so many familiar movie scenes in Hengdian, and thus as a big fan of films I was thrilled (informant 14)!" （现在，我就把每次的出行当作是散心。确定有了假期就网上搜搜图片哪里好看些，或者看看电影，看看哪个风景镜头美丽，就选择那里。横店有很多熟悉的电影里的场景，作为完全电影迷的我来说还是有点小激动！）

Escape and traversing

Escape was mentioned by some of the informants as a key factor that motivated them to visit Hengdian World Studios. Some expressed their motivation to visit Hengdian World Studios for escaping from the daily routine to somewhere with fewer people and infrequently-seen scenery. The statement expressing such motivation is:

"With the mottled walls and the rhythm of the falling rains, I walked alone in the palace and felt traversed. I've always preferred peace and quietness to noise and excitement, and I've always loved places where there are fewer people. There was no one else around me and it felt really good (informant 14)." （斑驳的墙面，淅淅沥沥的雨，这样的情景，我一个人走在这宫里，似乎穿越了呢。不喜欢闹腾，就喜欢清净，特别是去哪儿玩，哪儿人少钻哪儿。我们身后一个人也没有，这样的感觉真棒）

Among all the statements that described the desire to escape, the word “traversing” appeared with high frequency, which is a transformed type of escape meaning traveling through time and space to the future, back to the past, or to a non-existing space-time. Typical statement is:
“Why is it called Dream Valley? We guess it is because this is a dreamy world, just like what we see in dreams. Right now my dream is about to come true. Let’s traverse to a dreamy world and wander in fairy tales (informant 17).” （为什么叫梦幻谷呢？我们猜都能猜到一半，就是梦幻般的世界，就像我们梦里见到的一样。如今，我的梦就要实现，就要变成现实了。让我们穿越一回，把我们带进梦幻世界，在童话世界里游荡）

Many informants also mentioned the performances provided at Hengdian World Studios as a crucial element attracting them, as these performances created an exotic atmosphere and traversed them to an imaginative environment that did not exist in their daily life. One of the statements is:
“There was nothing cooler than the last show Time Travel. It traversed me through Qin Dynasty with special effects and was even more real and exciting than roller coasters (informant 13).” （最后的那场时光穿梭简直不能更酷，带着特效的秦朝穿越，比过山车还真实、刺激）

Even though many informants indicated their desire to be traversed to a novel environment that they might have seen or read about but never been physically placed, all informants had certain extent of knowledge or understanding of the environment in advance, instead of stepping into a completely unfamiliar venue. This also illustrates that even though tourists are escaping from daily routine and seeking novelty when traveling to film destinations, they

Reliving

A fair number of informants also mentioned reliving as a crucial motivation factor for them to visit Hengdian World Studios. Some informants reviewed the storyline and of the film and recalled the fates of different characters in the film to strengthen their memories for the film. One of the informants even brought a picture of the TV series Nirvana in Fire (Figure 2) to the shooting destination to strengthen the storyline that happened at the venue. One of the typical statements is:

“When all the scenes in the films reappeared in front of me bit by bit, I couldn’t help feeling astonished and sighing with emotions about the fates of the characters in the story, so that I didn’t even want to leave this place (informant 7).” （影视剧中的那些个场景一点一点呈现在我面前的时候，除了惊叹还有对故事人物命运的诸多感慨汇集在我脑中，以致在里面转来转去都不想离开了）

Figure 2: Informant 4 brought the photo of the scene in the TV series Nirvana in Fire to the shooting destination to relive the storyline.

Other informants relived the emotions that they encountered when watching the film, and yet the destination with the same settings and atmosphere, which tourists had special emotional connections with when they watched the film, stirred up their feelings and acted as a symbol or medium for them to reflect on and express themselves. One statement that demonstrates such motivation is:

"The thing that still haunts me now is not choosing TV Directing as my major when I entered university. I was so passionate about films and TV…But my life never followed the path towards my dream…When I came to Hengdian, I saw how tough the real cast and crew worked. They had to carry heavy props in the coldest and hottest weather, eat really simple meals, drift around but are paid poorly. The film I Am Somebody truly revealed the life of these people…As long as we have a clear goal, we can still chase our dreams no matter how chaotic the environment is. Don't look down upon your dreams, for they might be the purest part of your heart (informant 14)." （提起来能让我内心隐隐作痛的一件就是考大学的时候没有选择电视编导的专业。我那么热衷电影电视……但人生轨迹从没有朝着自己梦想的小路走去……我来到横店，看到了真实的横漂和那些剧组人员，他们真的很辛苦，最冷的天气和最热的天气搬着沉重的道具，吃着简陋的饭，日晒雨淋，工资也不多，四海为家，《我是路人甲》里就真实呈现了他们的生活……只要目标清晰，明确，在乱中就可以寻找梦想。也千万不要现在鄙视自己当初的梦想，它或许是你内心最纯净的一块儿了）

Cultural value

Many of the informants demonstrated their knowledge, personal connections, or shared memories with the traditional Chinese culture, and expressed their distinct understanding and emotions for the destination. The name Riverside Scene at Qingming appeared frequently in the data collected, which represented both a scenic region in Hengdian World Studios and a great painting by a famous Chinese artist Zeduan Zhang from the Song Dynasty. The knowledge of the painting was embedded in the high school education for all the Chinese, for the painting's representativeness of a certain period of Chinese history, and thus the destination with the same name elicited shared memories. Some typical statements are:

“The scenic region Riverside Scene at Qingming was constructed based on the great painting Riverside Scene at Qingming by the famous artist Zeduan Zhang from the Song Dynasty. The scenic region took the essence of the painting and integrated the architectural characteristics of Earlier Song Dynasty (informant 9).” （清明上河图是根据北宋著名画家张择端的巨作《清明上河图》为蓝本，取其神韵，结合北宋时期的古建特色）

“The painting Riverside Scene at Qingming was created in the most prosperous dynasty in Chinese history. We learnt that in school and our art textbook even had this painting on it (informant 17).” （ 清明上河图，那不是中国历史上最富饶的朝代嘛，上学时，我们还学过。美术课本上还有这幅图）

“The reason why it is called Ming Qing Palace is that the place is a fortified point of the architecture, culture and history of Ming and Qing Dynasty (informant 17).” （ 之所以叫做明清宫苑，就是明朝、清朝保留下来的建筑、文化、一些历史的据点）

“The second door is Tiananmen, where Chairman Mao announced the establishment of People’s Republic of China in 1949 (informant 17).” （第二道门就是天安门，是毛爷爷在1949年成立新中国时，讲话的地方）

Destination authenticity
Even though tourists know the architectures and settings at Hengdian World Studios are counterfeit, many informants still demonstrated the desire to visit the destination for proving the authenticity of either objects or experiences. For the authenticity of objects, some informants who live in areas where the authentic relics are located, still desired to prove how similar the replications were compared to the real ones; others were eager to prove how truly the destination reproduced the objects that merely exited in literary or historical records but not in real life. Some of these statements are:

“They were all familiar scenery, for actually we live to the south of Yangtze River and these scenes could be found in any park (informant 3).” （都是似曾相识的场景，说实话我们就住在江南，这种格调的场景几乎每个公园里都能看到）

“The four major varieties of traditional Chinese architecture, namely capital palace, royal garden, feudal office, and Hutong dwelling, could all be found here. They truly reproduced the original appearance of the Forbidden City and former Beijing dwelling with vivid landscaping, and artistically revived the local features of Guangzhou and Hong Kong after the 1840s (informant 4).” （这里荟萃了京城宫殿、皇家园林、王府衙门、胡同民宅等四大建筑系列，真实地再现了北京紫禁城原貌及老北京民居，以逼真的实景建筑，艺术地再现了1840年前后的羊城旧貌和香江风韵）

For the authenticity of experiences, some informants desired to experience the feeling of standing in the palace and imagining themselves as a king or queen (Figure 3); others were eager to experience disasters that they have not and were not willing to experience in the real life. Typical statements are:
“Standing from this point, I felt like an emperor with the momentum to unify the country (informant 9)!” （站在这个角度看，感觉自己就是个君王，有种一统天下的气势！）

“I did experience the feeling of the empress and concubines accompanying the emperor to tour the royal garden (informant 13).”（真有种古装剧里嫔妃、皇后陪皇上逛御花园身临其境的赶脚）

“Rainstorm and Mountain Torrents was the first experiential disaster performance in China, and it really made me tremble in fear (informant 3).”（ 国内首家震撼体验性灾难表演“暴雨山洪”令人胆颤心惊）

Figure 3: Informant 11 dressed up and pretended to be the emperor

Mystery discovery

Three informants also demonstrated the desire to discover what were so far unknown to them in the entire film production process, especially the backstage mysteries that were usually not disclosed to the public. The informants, who learnt that they might have the opportunity to see the shooting scene at Hengdian World Studios prior to their departure (Figure 4), demonstrated high level of motivation to visit the destination, and were greatly satisfied when they actually managed to witness the film production process. All these informants were either students majoring in Film and TV Directing or amateurs who were strongly interested in film production, both of whom were motivated to systematically understand and explore the detailed facts of the film production process, rather than resting content with what was visually available on the screen. The phrase “filming crew” appeared frequently among those informants who were motivated to discover filming mysteries. Some typical statements are:

“It was the first time for me to see the daily routine of a filming crew, and it felt so wonderful (informant 7)!”（第一次这么近距离观看剧组日常，感觉还是很奇妙的！）

“Besides, I got to see many filming crews this time (informant 1).”（另外这次旅行中有见到很多剧组）

“I got to see many filming crew shooting the film at Hengdian. It felt so amazing (informant 18)!”（我看到了很多剧组的拍摄现场,感觉真是神奇！）

Figure 4: Informant 18 saw the film shooting process at the destination

Discussion

This study examined the domestic film tourism market, which is relatively novel because domestic tourists who could have easier access to the authentic heritages in their city of origin would still visit the film destination which consists of replications. The uniqueness of this study is defined by the three major features: assessing the film tourism market which is a burgeoning area of tourism research, focusing on an online cultural group in the digital era, and obtaining data from naturally occurring conversation. The netnography approach was implemented as the major research method of this study, which proves to be powerful as an exploratory approach in tourism research (Mkono, 2011). From the findings of the study, seven motivators were identified from the evidence that was directly available in the informants' statements. These factors were confirmed by the high frequency of occurrence in statements of different informants, and provided insightful managerial implications for destination marketing organizations.

Theoretical contributions

Of the seven motivators identified from the findings of the study, four of them aligned with the factors identified in previous research under the context of international film tourism. These factors are celebrity endorsement (Gjorgievski & Trpkova, 2012; Su et al., 2012), visualization (Khan, Safri, & Pazil, 2014; Iwashita and Butler, 2006), escape and traversing (Oviedo-García et al., 2014), and reliving (Whang, Yong & Ko, 2015; Beeton, 2010). This confirms the similarity between domestic and international film tourism regardless of the country of origin for both the tourists and the destination.

Yet, what is unique to this study is the identification of cultural value, destination authenticity and mystery discovery as factors motivating domestic tourists to visit film destinations. Cultural value (Chang, 2015) and destination authenticity (Bryce et al., 2015) were identified by previous research on identifying the distinctiveness of domestic tourism compared to international tourism in general. Under the context of film tourism, this study also testifies the unique motivating effects of these two factors on domestic film tourists. Mystery discovery, to the authors' knowledge, was never identified or defined by previous research. These findings would enrich the understanding of domestic film tourism and contribute to the academic developments of tourism motivation.

The motivators that were identified under the cultural value classification include cultural knowledge, personal cultural connections, and shared memories. The majority of informants demonstrated fair knowledge of the origins and stories of the heritage replications at the destination, which were reproduced based on physically existing or narrative form of ancient Chinese heritages. This shows a close cultural proximity between the tourists and the destination, which motivated them to visit the destination and see a collection of relatively comprehensive and complete replications of the Chinese heritages, which wholly, partially or even do not exist in physical form elsewhere. Some informants also depicted their personal connections with the destination, such as having learnt or read about the architecture style that Hengdian World Studios reproduced. These cultural connections as a motivator are on a personal basis, but were generated because of tourists' similar cultural background to the destination's and thus close cultural proximity with the destination products. Other informants commented that the replications at the destination could elicit their shared memories of monumental historical moments, such as the establishment of People's Republic of China in 1949 when they saw the replication of Tiananmen. These shared memories are also a unique factor for the domestic tourists, for foreign tourists are unaware of or not strongly influenced by these motivations. These align with Chang's (2015) findings, which point out that cultural proximity between the tourist and the destination can affect tourists' motivation to visit the destination. Chang (2015) argues that the more the tourist's culture aligns with the destination culture, the higher the tendency that the tourist will be motivated to visit the destination. In this case, since that many of the destinations in the country are established and reserved to reflect the culture of that country, and most domestic tourists are brought up under the influence of the same national culture, domestic tourists tend to have closer cultural proximity with the destination and thus higher motivation to visit the destination. Bogari, Crowther & Marr (2004) also confirm that the relationship between tourists' culture and destination culture can cast significant influence on tourists' motivation to visit the destination.

Even though tourists were aware that all the architectures and objects at Hengdian World Studios were counterfeit, they still demonstrated strong desire to visit the destination for proof of authenticity. Destination authenticity consists of the authenticity of objects and the authenticity of experiences. For objects, tourists were mainly those who lived in areas where the authentic relics were located or who had been to the authentic heritage destination, and they were here to prove how similar the film destination had replicated these heritages compared to the real ones. There were also tourists who were motivated to prove the authenticity of objects that merely existed in literary or historical records but not in physical form in the real life. Both types of authenticity are based on tourists' prior interactions with the authentic objects, in either physical or descriptive forms, to which domestic tourists would have easier access compared to foreign tourists due to geographical and cultural restrictions. For experiences, some tourists were motivated to mimic the characters in films or in history by cosplaying them at the destination, or to experience unusual scenarios such as mountain currents or earthquakes that they were curious about but would not want to encounter in real life. All these experiences were never or seldom available in tourists' daily routine, thus tourists could merely imagine how they would feel in such scenarios. Yet the destination provides a platform for tourists to experience and prove such scenarios compared to their perceptions. Since that most experiential scenarios are based on ancient Chinese historical background, foreign tourists might not have as strong desire as domestic tourists to prove the authenticity of such experiences. These align with previous research by Bryce et al. (2015), who also review destination authenticity as one of the motivators for tourism, for which tourists seek proof for the authenticity of the objects that they see at the destination. This suggests that even though all the objects at the film-shooting destinations are actually counterfeit, the travel motivator for Chinese tourists who could have easier access to the authentic heritages in their city of origin might be different from those for foreign visitors. In addition, domestic tourists to film-shooting destinations might also be searching for the authenticity of experiences (Bryce et al., 2015), which is seeking proof for the authenticity of the experience and feelings at the destination compared to what they have perceived. For instance, Chinese tourists who visit Hengdian World Studios could enact the experience and feelings of becoming an emperor or queen that they have imagined by actually sitting on the throne in the palace.

The last motivator identified in this study is mystery discovery, which was never identified or defined in previous research to the authors' knowledge. Here it refers to the desire to disclose hidden facts and to discover unnoticed details about the entire film production process. Unique to this motivator is that tourists were not motivated to visit a film destination after watching the film but before the film was even completed. From the results, only a small number of very passionate amateurs or students majoring in Film and TV Directing demonstrated their desire to discover the daily routine of filming crew and details of film production, and these informants demonstrated very high spirits once such desire was fulfilled. It was not because film production had so many mysteries that were deliberately hidden from the audience, but because when these tourists were presented with the film on screen, they would be naturally motivated to explore what was not displayed on screen, even if such content was not astonishing or essential at all. The relatively small number of tourists demonstrating such motivation reveals that the motivator might only apply to a specific population of domestic film tourists rather than the majority, or the majority of domestic film tourists may also have such motivation but are not yet aware of it, due to the lack of arousal. Therefore with sufficient and appropriate arousals, a large number of potential tourists might be motivated to visit film destinations. Yet as this motivator was never testified in the international film tourism context, whether it is unique to the domestic film tourists or whether it also applies to international film tourists is thus unknown.

Managerial implications

To destination marketing organizations (DMOs), this study provides several managerial implications that would assist the promotion and operations of the destination by incorporating the motivation factors identified above. There is the opportunity for DMOs to target the domestic market by arousing tourists' cultural proximity with the destination. This could be implemented through the use of physical form of culture, by integrating the objects and settings for historical films that are physically available at destination into the marketing mix, strengthening the cultural representativeness of the destination, and demonstrating the close relationship with authentic cultural destinations. DMOs could also arouse tourists' cultural proximity with the destination through the use of narrative form of culture, by releasing commercial advertisements that tell cultural stories and traditional allusions in history to recall audience's shared knowledge and memories, or sponsoring local cultural events and public service advertisements to arouse public cultural awareness and emotional connections with traditional cultures. Since that there were a large number of tourists visiting Hengdian World Studios for Riverside Scene at Qingming, DMOs could make good use of such popular features as a selling point when promoting the destination.

DMOs could also properly utilize the authenticity of products and experiences at Hengdian World Studios in order to motivate tourists to visit the destination. As tourists are highly interested and motivated to compare the film destination with the authentic heritage destination, DMOs could publicize such comparison and engage tourists in related activities. For example, DMOs could invite tourists to vote for the venue at the destination that they feel most authentic, either comparing to the real heritages if the authentic object is in physical form, or to their own perception of authenticity if the heritage only exists in narrative form; then lucky draw could be conducted from those who vote for the venue that receives the highest votes and prizes would be given. Thus tourists who are interested in proving the authenticity of the destination and participating in the activities will be strongly motivated to visit the destination for the desire to prove the authenticity and to win the prize. DMOs could also utilize the authenticity of experiences by providing cosplaying services at the destination, which enable tourist to dress in costumes and take photos. By centrally administering the cosplaying services, tourists will be motivated to prove the authenticity of acting as a certain film or historical character with a sense of security and trust. Since that a large proportion of tourists were motivated by the desire to prove the authenticity of experiences, the cosplaying services could be a strong marketing focus as well as a revenue center for DMOs.

It is also recommended for DMOs to leverage the film production process both in marketing and operational level and to arouse tourists' curiosity for discovering backstage facts, such as how special effects are generated, how shooting scripts are edited to create a coherent scene, and how actors and filming crew coordinate. In the marketing level, DMOs could create a sense of mystery in terms of the film production process and arouse audience's curiosity. It could be implemented by raising prize-related questions in commercials, such as "Do you know what this special effect is called?" The objective of such questions is not to challenge the audience but to draw their attention and to arouse their desire to explore more about the backstage mysteries at the destination after they figure out the correct answer. In the operational level, film production process could be integrated by diversifying the variety of activities provided at the destination, such as backstage tours that enable tourists to visit the filming venue, filming demonstrations that showcase the entire production process of a film, and filming workshops hat enable tourists to shoot their own film clips.

In the meantime, the utilization of celebrity effect, the creation of a sense of traversing, the visualization of film scenes, and the ability for audience to relive the storyline should also be incorporated into the whole marketing and operational package of the destination. For example, DMOs could invite certain celebrity who has shot a film at the destination to perform in the commercial and thus to attract and motivate those who are fans of the celebrity to visit the destination, or closely collaborate with film companies and organize press conference at the destination. They can also make use of the settings in the film and visualize them in the commercial for motivating the tourists to visit the destination and to be in the same venue, or raise prize-related question by showing the picture of a specific venue and inviting tourists to take photos with the venue in order to win a prize. It could also utilize traversing through time-space as the story or theme for the commercial, showing how amazing and interesting the experience is, or highlight the various performances that are offered at the destination, as a large proportion of tourists are motivated by them. DMOs could also organize blog competition and invite tourists to share their special experiences with films that were shot at the destination, so as to enable tourists to recall the stories and relive the emotions.

Limitations and future research

Since that the findings of this study are based on a relatively small amount of data and the time frame was limited to a specific period, which is during the October and November of 2014, it is thus worth stressing that further contributions of online blogs written by tourists who have traveled to Hengdian World Studios are monitored and examined. Due to the limitation of online information disclosure, the demographic data collected from research samples was incomplete. It is also worth acknowledging that the data collected from the online travel blogs are limited to the research samples who wrote travel blogs online regularly. Therefore it is also recommended for future research to utilize interviews or other qualitative research methods to further explore the motivation of domestic film tourists. Even though seven motivators were identified in this study, the degree of importance and relevance of each motivator with domestic film tourists' motivation are yet to discover. Therefore it is also worth recommending that a quantitative approach to be conducted so as to identify the different degree of influence of each motivator.

As the geographic focus of this study is on Chinese domestic film tourists, for their large number of visitations and high tourist spending, it is recommended that other domestic film tourism market with similar potential for domestic film tourism to be studied, such as motivators for US domestic film tourists traveling to Hollywood, to identify any regional or ethnical differences regarding domestic tourists' travel motivation to film destinations, using either a qualitative approach for exploring different motivators compared to the Chinese film toruists, or a quantitative approach for verifying the factors identified in this study in a different context of domestic film tourism market. Additionally, as the motivator – mystery discovery – was identified only under the domestic film tourism context, it is also worth examining in the international film tourism context to find out if it is uniquely applied to the domestic film tourists or to all film tourists. As the research area of domestic film tourism has not been largely assessed, it is thus recommended for future research to explore other aspects of the domestic film tourism, such as destination image, travel preferences, destination selection, and on-site experiences.

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Apfu16 Airbnb vs. Hotels: Explorations from Traveler's Perceptions, Psychographics and Factors of Considerations

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Abstract

Peer-to-peer accommodation rentals, such as Airbnb, have become a popular alternative to hotels. This paper aimed to identify the factors that can influence travelers' choices of hotels versus Airbnb. Travelers' personality, perceptions of Airbnb, previous experience with Airbnb, perceived importance of accommodation attributes, and willingness to use Airbnb under various travel scenarios were measured. Findings revealed that respondents who have tried Airbnb showed more positive perceptions of Airbnb, such as Airbnb being innovative and suitable for leisure travel. Moreover, respondents who have tried Airbnb believed Airbnb performed better than hotels in offering more authentic experience and more competitive pricing. Importance-Performance Analysis also found that the perceived security, cleanliness and reputation of Airbnb need to be improved. In addition, respondents were more inclined to choose Airbnb over hotels when trip duration was longer and party size was larger. Lastly, perceptions and psychographics of respondents were found to be related to their willingness to stay at Airbnb. Result suggested that Airbnb and hotels are suitable for different target markets. Recommendations were provided to peer-to-peer accommodation rentals and hotels to differentiate themselves from each other.

Keywords: hotels, intention to purchase, peer-to-peer accommodation rental, perception, traveler's psychographics

Introduction

In the past, whenever people wanted to travel, hotels were the top consideration. Searching for hotels on different websites and choosing the most suitable one is a "must-do" before departure. However, with the rise of the sharing economy, people are now considering Airbnb for overnight accommodation on top of hotels, as in the case of the decrease in pricing power of hotels during Pope Francis' historic US tour in September 2015 (Karmin, 2015).

Bed and Breakfast, which is usually shorted as B&B referring to small lodging that provides overnight accommodation and breakfast in private or family homes, has been popular in many cities long ago. Interaction between the hosts and guests is significant (Stringer, 1981). On the other hand, peer-to-peer accommodation rentals for short periods rises these years, such as Flipkey.com, Couchsurfing.com and HomeAway.com (Velikova, 2014). Similar business models exist before Airbnb launched officially. However, the case of Pope Francis made people realize that Airbnb has stood out from other similar competitors. During this rare visit of Pope Francis, the listings of Airbnb reached nearly to 20000 in New York City (Airdna, as cited in The Karmin, 2015), which led to an increase of 16% in lodging supply. Hotels rely on popular one-time or annual events to achieve the annual highest room rate. However, Airbnb and other home-rental companies are taking the market share of their business.

Nassetta, the CEO of Hilton Worldwide Holdings Inc., suggested that the emergence of Airbnb revealed the fact that different types of customers look for different types of experience (Karmin, 2015). As supported by The Economist (2014), Airbnb mainly hit the business of small hotels, meaning that price is one of the considerations for choosing Airbnb. Sommerville (2015) also suggested that travelers also fond of renting an entire house, enjoying quiet neighborhoods and the sharing of host's knowledge via Airbnb. Chen (as cited in Guttentag, 2013) stated that people expect to understand the local culture better through involving in the locals' daily life through staying in the private space of locals, as researched by CouchSurfing. All these opinions proposed that people are looking for new and more authentic accommodation experience, and Airbnb, as a home-rental channel, is one of the possible considerations.

Background of Airbnb

The idea of Airbnb was started by three young men living in San Francisco when they wanted to advertise their apartment to conference participants who wished to avoid high hotel price in that area in 2007 (Guttentag, 2013). This business idea resulted in the launch of official website in 2008 and the service expanded. Airbnb acts as an online platform for the public who would like to rent part or the whole of their spaces as accommodation for tourists. People who want to be the host just need to fill in a simple form on Airbnb.com. They can even hire professional photographers from Airbnb for free so as to better promote their spaces by high quality photos. On the other hand, potential customers of Airbnb can easily search the most suitable space for their future journey by entering the desired destination, period and number of people. A list of available spaces displaying the details of the apartment from price to reviews of past customers will then show up. Interested potential customers can reserve the rooms and communicate with the host directly without the intervention of Airbnb. Payments are made through the official website and the guests will be charged a 6-12% fee while the host will be charged a 3% fee for the commission revenue of Airbnb (Airbnb, 2015).

Whether Airbnb is legal has been a controversial issue in many cities. For example, in Hong Kong, an estimation of 3000 rooms was listed on Airbnb for rental but some of them were supposed to be residents' place but without premises (Apple Daily, 2015). According to the Home Affairs Department of the Government of HKSAR (2015), premises are required in which all accommodation is exclusively provided on the basis of a minimum period of 28 continuous days under the Hotel and Guesthouse Accommodation (Exclusion) Order. It means that accommodation without premises for tourists renting for less than 28 days is illegal. Similar case was also found in San Francisco, the headquarter of Airbnb, before 1 February, 2015 (Office of the Mayor, 2015). Currently, people in San Francisco can rent their primary residential units for less than 30 nights legally with registration. Even San Francisco has legalized short-term rentals with proper registration, many other cities in US including New York City have not. The issue has been well covered by media worldwide. Nevertheless, the total listing on Airbnb in over 34000 cities and 190 countries was more than 1,500,000 (Airbnb, 2015), and the company was valued at $25 billion (Speiser, 2015).This shows that, although the negative news of legal problems was wide spread, the popularity of Airbnb was noticeably increasing.

Moreover, it was estimated that Airbnb received 155 million guest stays in 2014, almost 22% more than that of Hilton Worldwide (Speiser, 2015). Also, hoteliers reflected that maximizing profits for events that attract big crowd became difficult owning to the pop-up room supply from home-rental companies (Karmin, 2015). Budget hotels were affected by the presence of Airbnb more significantly, with the decrease of revenue by 5% in two years to the end of 2013 (The Economist, 2014). As such, Airbnb has become a strong competitor of hotels today.

Research Objectives

Founded in 2008, Airbnb.com is considered new. Information shared and number of experienced visitors are limited in some regions. Compared to the hotel industry, the familiarity and acceptability of peer-to-peer accommodation rentals, such as Airbnb, of the general public are weaker as some people are reluctant to change. Also, perception of every individual is different. Since the media acted as a key middleman of transferring both positive and negative information of Airbnb to the public, it is possible that media can impact the general risk perceptions (Rundblad, Knapton & Hunter, 2010). Hence, the perceptions of people and the image of Airbnb can affect the consumer behavior. Reputations of Airbnb can be lost easily overnight during the "word-of-mouth" communication nowadays (Grieve & Ingram, 2013), especially when most people have not tried Airbnb before.

The main purpose of this study is to identify the factors that can influence travelers' choices of hotels or Airbnb.

Specifically, research objectives are:

-To compare the perceptions of Airbnb of the people who have tried and those who have not tried Airbnb.

-To investigate the importance of different factors people consider when choosing between hotels and Airbnb (e.g. price, photos, location, no. of reviews etc.)

-To evaluate if travel party and trip duration would influence accommodation choice.

-To examine the relationship between perception and willingness to try Airbnb, and different demographics and traveler characteristics.

Literature Review

Peer-to-peer accommodation rental

As suggested by Guttentag (2013), Yannopoulou, Moufahim and Bian (2013) and Zervas, Proserpio and Byers (2015), peer-to-peer accommodation permits one ordinary individual to rent parts of their own spaces, which is considered as underused assets, to another for a short period of time. This kind of model is described as shared economy or collaborative consumption. Airbnb is not the only online marketplace for this business model but also CouchSurfing, HomeAway and VRBO (Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2015). Peer-to-peer accommodation underpins the practices of traditional Bed & Breakfast (B&B). More, similar practice existed long before the 18th century but was less popular due to limited channels for hosts to promote their accommodations and difficulties in building trusts (Black, cited in Guttentag 2013, p.4). These challenges was overcome by the availability of Web 2.0 internet technologies (Forno & Garibaldi, 2015;Guttentag, 2013; Yannopoulou, Moufahim & Bian, 2013) that allows users, the hosts and guests, to generate and reviews content published in websites (O'Reilly, 2007; Shelly & Frydenberg, 2011).

Yannopoulou, Moufahim and Bian (2013) stated that peer-to-peer sharing economies, which is accommodation rental in this case, was fostered by User-generated branding (UGB). UGB allows consumers to exchange products, services and skills on top of only purchase. The active engagement between customers and staff (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) plays an important role in providing unique value to consumers on forming identities and building community, indicating "user engagement, value creation, transparency and authenticity" (Yannopoulou, Moufahim & Bian 2013, p.86).

With the introduction of Web 2.0, trust and reputation system implemented by Airbnb and CouchSurfing make interactions among the involved parties before making purchase decisions become possible (Guttentag, 2013; Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2015). Also, consumers can easily compare different accommodation choices and benefited from the low transaction costs and cost-effective and convenient forms of sharing (Forno & Garibaldi, 2015). Moreover, hosts and guests having the opportunities to post public reviews about each other allows users to build trusts and maximize the likelihood of successful online transactions resulting in offline transactions. Identity verification of users done by online marketplace (Guttentag, 2013; Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2015) such as Airbnb and Couchsurfing on peer-to-peer accommodation is also important for giving better confidence to consumers since some people may feel threatened about hosting a stranger or sleeping at the place of strangers (Guttentag, 2013).

As supported by the research done by CouchSurfing (Guttentag, 2013; Chen, 2011), travelers who preferred staying at the home of local people over hotels were in hope of experiencing the authentic everyday life of locals in that destination, wishing to understand the local culture better. Another advantage of peer-to-peer accommodation rentals like Airbnb is the competitive and flexible pricing over hotels due to lower primary fixed costs, labour costs and sometimes tax exclusion (Guttentag, 2013). With similar facilities offered, Airbnb could sometimes be an alternative to hotels for travelers who had budget concern, while it was less attractive for business travelers, as analyzed by Guttentag (2013) and Zervas, Proserpio and Byers (2015). In addition, as found by Zervas, Proserpio and Byers (2015), the penetration of Airbnb was possibly more significant in lower end hotels as consumers might think they were of better value of money at similar price point. It is expected that the lower end hotels may suffer greater risk in regions with high Airbnb penetration.

To summarize, peer-to-peer accommodation rental such as Airbnb is competitive in the hotel industry due to different experiences and benefits, consumer preferences and comparable pricing. Nevertheless, the findings of Zervas, Proserpio and Byers (2015) was limited to the state of Texas only. It might not be representative across other regions. Also, only properties listed on Airbnb was analyzed. Other similar peer-to-peer accommodation platforms including HomeAway and VRBO were missed out due to much smaller market share and slow growth (Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2015). However, this might indicate that the findings was not generalized enough to represent the whole peer-to-peer accommodation rental business.

Perception and purchase intention

Kim & Lennon (2010) supported the opinions of Dijkmans, Kerkhof and Beukeboom (2015) on the importance of information available on purchase intention, especially for intangible items. Information searched internally and externally can affect the judgment towards a brand and choices of customers. As stated by Schivinski and Dabrowski (2014), perception, brand equity and attitude could positively influence the purchase intention of consumers. Recommendations and resistance against other alternatives suggested by information available, provided by mass media and social media, were also influential (Hajipour, Bavarsad & Zarei, 2013; Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2014).

The research done by Schivinski and Dabrowski (2014) only focused on Europe, the result might have bias due to similar social, economic and culture background of interviewees. It is expected to explore people living in different places to obtain more generalized findings, especially when Web 2.0 and social media means people around the world can interact with each other regardless of distance and background.

Hypothesis 1: The perception of those who have used Airbnb is different from those who have not.

Hypothesis 2: There is a relationship between perception of Airbnb and willingness to use Airbnb.

<u>Characteristics of travelers and their travel behaviors</u>
Plog's psychographic model has been used by many scholars to analyze traveler personality and related travel behaviours (Babu, Henthome & Williams, 2013; Chandler & Costello, 2002; Griffith & Albanese, 1996; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Hoxter & Lester, 1988; Madrigal, 1995; McKercher, 2005; Smith, 1990). Plog's model explained the tourists' behaviour along a continuum ranging from allocentrism to psychocentrism (Madrigal, 1995). People who are psychocentric tend to have non-active lifestyle and less adventurous. They are self-inhibited and prefer seeking familiarity (Babu, Henthome & Williams, 2013; Hoxter & Lester, 1988; McKercher, 2005). In the opposite, allocentric individuals are more self-confident and more adventurous. They are free of anxiety (Babu, Henthome & Williams, 2013; Madrigal, 1995; McKercher, 2005).

Babu, Henthome and Williams (2013) and Huang and Hsu (2009) suggested that allocentrics (venturers) are the first wave of tourists to a new destination even few support services exist. Their word-of-mouth will then convince the near-venturers to that destination. The increase in demand of that destination will motivate the development of tourism and other related services, hence mid-centrics will find this destination appealing and the increase of demand follows on. The progressive increase in demand means the personality of travelers affects the demand for a newly developed thing, which will be peer-to-peer accommodation rental in this case.

Research done by Hoxter and Lester (1988) aimed to test the behavior of psychocentric by the scores of neuroticism and introversion, which could measure the personality dimensions. It was done by asking interviewees' travel history and preferences. It was found that the gender differences were not useful for differentiation. Also, the result was not representative enough as the majority of interviewees had limited budget and had never traveled or just travelled to neighboring countries. Another research done by Smith (1990) suggested that the Plog's psychographic model is more meaningful for evaluating the general travelling adult population, instead of only long-haul travelers. Moreover, the research done by Chandler and Costello (2002) showed that visitors with similar demographics background demonstrated similar characteristics in developing the profile of visitors to the same destination.

Referencing to the research done by Chow and Murphy (2011), Galloway (2002), Griffith and Albanese (1996), Hoxter and Lester (1988), Park and Jang (2014) and Smith (1990), the scholars measured travelers' psychographics by asking respondents to rate 10-28 features of personality characteristics of allocentric and psychocentric travelers as suggested by Plog's model using 4-5-point Likert Scale. The skewness of the distribution would then be compared with the normal distribution classified by Plog's instrument. Since the result was comparable to alternative measurements such as Nickerson scale (Griffith & Albanese, 1996) and Eysenck Personality Inventory (Hoxter & Lester, 1988) tested in the same research, similar approach will be used in this research.

To summarize the findings of the above research, the personality of travelers measured by Plog's model can be a better representation compared to demographics characteristics to differentiate the influences on their behaviours and preferences during travel.

Hypothesis 3: People who are more allocentric are more willing to try Airbnb.
Concluding the literature review, it is found that peer-to-peer accommodation rentals act as an alternative to hotels in terms of experiences and benefits, consumer preferences and pricing. Since the former is considered as an innovation, the perceptions of both consumers and non-consumers hence their willingness to use peer-to-peer accommodation rentals or hotels can be influenced by their psychographics and reviews shared by mass media and social media.

To fill the research gap of Yannopoulous, Koronis and Elliott (2011), it is necessary to evaluate travelers' perceptions of Airbnb and willingness to try Airbnb relative to hotels to test if external information could affect the perception and purchase intention of consumers.

Methodology

An exploratory research was adopted aiming to explore the factors affecting the considerations on peer-to-peer accommodation rentals and hotels as overnight rentals among travelers, as peer-to-peer accommodation rentals are considered as innovation and there were currently little research studies covering why peer-to-peer accommodation rentals and hotel industry are competitive in the viewpoints of the public. Airbnb, as the newest popular form of peer-to-peer accommodation rentals, is selected for this analysis. Quantitative research was employed in this research to examine the possible effects of perceptions, factors considered on the commonalities and travelers' psychographics on behavioral intention.

Questionnaire Design

Questionnaires was employed for collecting the data. The questionnaire was divided into 4 parts (Appendix 1). As suggested by scholars that reviews on social media and mass media act as a significant channel of "word-of-mouth today (Castells, 2000; Dijkmans, Kerkhof & Beukeboom, 2015; Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2014), the first part asked if the respondents knew and had previous experience of using Airbnb. Questions about information search were divided into two parts, namely the commonly used channels for searching information before booking the accommodation, and channels for obtaining information of Airbnb. This part was measured by nominal scale. As supported by Bornemann and Homburg (2011), Jiao and Zhao (2014), Labroo and Lee (2006) and Shukla (2012), the perceptions of respondents and purchasing intention could be evaluated by likert scale on their extent of agreement to some statements, regardless of whether they had real experiences in staying either or both.

The second part of the questionnaire asked the respondents to rate the importance and the expected performance on different attributes, which would be the commonalities between hotels and Airbnb such as price, location and cleanliness, by interval scale (1 = Very unsatisfactory to 7 = Very satisfactory) on both Airbnb and hotels in general. Four scenarios, namely travelling alone, travelling with spouse/partner, travelling with friends and travelling with families, were given to respondents to reflect their willingness of choosing Airbnb or hotels by likert scale. Since the research done by Hoxter and Lester (1988) was affected by the limited knowledge, travel budget and travel history of respondents, setting different scenarios aimed to overcome the issues, and also the variations of behavioral intention depending on the travel party and trip duration as Guttentag (2013) and Zervas, Proserpio and Byers (2015) mentioned that Airbnb was a strong competitor of part but not the whole hotel industry.

Questions investigating the travelers' psychographics of respondents were the third part of the questionnaire. Understanding the behaviours of allocentric and psychocentric helped assume that respondents who were more inclined to allocentric would be more willing to try Airbnb. To test this assumption, 5-point likert scale was used for respondents to express their level of agreement on statements featuring personality characteristics (Chow & Murphy, 2011; Galloway, 2002; Griffith & Albanese, 1996; Hoxter & Lester, 1988; Park & Jang, 2014; Smith, 1990) as suggested by Plog's model.

In addition to demographic background, including gender, age and occupation, of respondents, travel experience, such as frequency of travel and purposes, were also asked in the final part of the questionnaire to see if any characteristics could influence the result, such as the importance of factors considered.

<u>Sampling and Data Collection</u>
Since the research done by Chandler & Costello (2002) suggested that visitors with similar demographic background tended to demonstrate similar travelers' characteristics, and Smith (1990) mentioned that general travelling adult population, instead of only visitors, would be a better evaluation of Plog's psychographics. To explore if respondents from different social, economic and cultural background behaved differently, the targeted population was consisted of both Hong Kong residents and tourists in Hong Kong, half from Hong Kong's residents while another half from tourists. To eliminate the error in pre-filtering respondents based on their computer skills or reading abilities, paper questionnaires were distributed and verbally explained if any inquires by interviewers personally. The completed questionnaires were also collected by interviewers.

Pilot test was conducted before real survey began. It was carried out by distributing paper questionnaires to an estimation of 10 students in the School of Hotel and Tourism Management of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University, aiming to revise the questionnaires to be logical and understandable. The actual survey was conducted in February, 2016 at Tsim Sha Tsui Ferry Pier, Mongkok and Central Ferry Pier in Hong Kong, where both local people and tourists gathered and rested at these attractions.

<u>Data Analysis</u>
A total of 248 completed questionnaires were collected for data analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Science 23 (SPSS) was used for data entry as most questions are quantitative. Frequency analysis was used to summarize the demographics and travel experiences of respondents. Descriptive Analysis was then be used to find out the mean and standard deviation of score given to the two kinds of accommodation rental. It was also be used to find out the importance ranking and rating of each factor, as well as differentiate the travelers' characteristics.

Independent samples t-test was adopted to test the differences of perception between respondents who have tried Airbnb and those who have not. Paired samples t-test was used to measure the mean difference between the willingness of choosing peer-to-peer accommodation rental or hotels under different scenarios. ANalysis Of VAriance (ANOVA) was used to measure the mean differences between travellers' demographics, psychographics and willingness to try Airbnb.

Results

This research aimed to understand the perception of Airbnb and the willingness to try Airbnb, and also factors which could influence the accommodation choices between hotels and listings in Airbnb among different people. Therefore, the following data analysis will be divided into five parts: Profiles of Respondents, Perception of Airbnb, Factors of consideration, Effects of durations and travel party size, and Factors relating to the willingness to try Airbnb.

Profiles of Respondents

As presented in Table 1, the demographic background of respondents were analyzed. The sample (N=248) consisted of 45.6% Male and 54.4% Female. 54.8% of respondents were Hong Kong residents while another 45.2% were tourists. The majority of respondents were at the age of 18-24 (41.5%) and followed by the age group of 35-44 (19.8%) and 45-54 (19.0%). More, 64.5% of respondents were bachelor's degree holders while 20.2% of respondents were post graduate degree holders, which was the two largest group in terms of the highest level of education. Lastly, more than half of respondents were employed full-time (54.4%), followed by students (34.3%) as the employment status.

Table 1. Profile of Respondents

Demographic Characteristics		**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Gender	Male	113	45.6
	Female	135	54.4
Age	18-24	103	41.5
	25-34	46	18.5
	35-44	49	19.8
	45-54	47	19.0
	Over 54	3	1.2
Nationality	Local	136	54.8
	Tourist	112	45.2
Education	Primary School	1	4.0
	Secondary School	4	1.6
	Some College credits	31	12.5
	Certificate training	2	0.8
	Bachelor's degree	160	64.5
	Post Graduate Degree	50	20.2
Employment Status	Student	85	34.3
	Self-employed	7	2.8
	Employed Full-time	135	54.4
	Employed Part-time	9	3.6
	Unemployed	9	3.6
	Retired	3	1.2

Perception of Airbnb

To understand how respondents perceive Airbnb, respondents were asked to state their level of agreement towards 10 statements describing Airbnb. Higher the score represented higher level of agreement of respondents towards the statement. Independent samples t-test was used to compare the mean difference given by respondents who have tried Airbnb and those who have not tried Airbnb before.

As shown in Table 2, the result indicated that compared to respondents who have not tried Airbnb, respondents who have tried Airbnb significantly believed more that Airbnb was worth trying ($p<0.001$) and an innovative idea ($p<0.001$). More, they believed more that the listings of Airbnb was suitable for leisure travel ($p<0.001$), allowed them to understand local culture ($p<0.001$) and be involved in daily life of locals ($p<0.001$). Also, they agreed more that Airbnb is more preferable than hotels ($p=0.008$) and trustworthy ($p<0.001$), and have high privacy ($p<0.001$).

Table 2. Respondents' Perceptions of Airbnb

	Have tried Airbnb (n=119)	**Have not tried Airbnb (n=129)**	**Mean Diff.**	**t-value**	**Sig.**
1. Worth trying	**5.97***	**4.90**	1.076	6.645	<0.001
2. Innovative idea	**5.71**	**4.91**	0.8	5.169	<0.001
3. Suitable for leisure travel	**5.63**	**4.84**	0.793	4.626	<0.001
4. Understand Local Culture	**5.45**	**4.79**	0.663	3.655	<0.001
5. Involve in daily life of locals	**5.38**	**4.70**	0.68	3.696	<0.001
6. More Preferable than hotels	**4.58**	**4.09**	0.495	2.674	0.008
7. Trustworthy	**4.53**	**3.94**	0.591	3.617	<0.001
8. High privacy	**4.47**	**3.70**	0.773	4.323	<0.001
9. Positive Influence	4.33	4.17	0.157	0.867	0.387
10. Suitable for every city	3.58	3.71	-0.133	-0.684	0.495

*Items measured on a 7-point scale, from 1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree

To compare the perception of performance of Airbnb over hotels, respondents were asked to state their level of agreement on 11 items which were both applicable in describing Airbnb and hotels. Higher the score means respondents believed that the items described Airbnb better compared to hotels. Independent samples t-test was carried out to compare the mean difference given by respondents who have tried Airbnb and those who have not tried Airbnb before.

Referring to Table 3, significant differences in the level of agreement were found between two groups of respondents. Compared to respondents who have not tried Airbnb, it was found that respondents who have tried Airbnb significantly believed Airbnb performed better than hotels in providing more authentic experience ($p<0.001$) and offered more competitive pricing ($p=0.011$). However, they believed that Airbnb performed worse than hotels in terms of number of online reviews ($p=0.029$), reputation ($p=0.002$), facilities ($p=0.012$), service ($p<0.001$) and security ($p<0.001$).

Table 3. Respondents' Perceptions of Airbnb Compared to Hotels

	Have tried Airbnb (n=119)	**Have not tried Airbnb (n=129)**	**Mean Diff.**	**t-value**	**Sig.**
1. More authentic experience	**5.53***	**4.89**	0.638	3.677	<0.001
2. More competitive pricing	**5.41**	**4.98**	0.435	2.551	0.011
3. Better online reviews	4.14	3.95	0.189	1.082	0.280
4. Better location	3.96	3.96	-0.003	-0.021	0.983
5. Better overall performance	3.78	3.82	-0.040	-0.243	0.808
6. More online reviews	**3.43**	**3.84**	-0.409	-2.197	0.029
7. Cleaner	3.27	3.59	-0.320	-1.664	0.097
8. More reputable	**2.94**	**3.57**	-0.625	-3.097	0.002
9. Better facilities	**2.83**	**3.34**	-0.509	-2.535	0.012
10. Better service	**2.74**	**3.48**	-0.741	-3.910	<0.001
11. Better security	**2.42**	**3.33**	-0.913	-4.672	<0.001

* Items measured on a 7-point scale, from 1=Better Description of Hotels to 7=Better Description of Airbnb

Factors of considerations

Importance of factors

Respondents were asked to express their level of agreement towards the importance of factors considered for making an accommodation choice. 11 items were evaluated. Higher score implied that respondents emphasized more on that item. Independent samples t-test was adopted to compare the mean difference given by respondents who have tried Airbnb and those who have not tried Airbnb before.

As showed in Table 4, it was found that both groups of respondents placed "Cleanliness" as the priority but the difference was not significant (p=0.645). On the other hand, price was the second priority (p=0.003). The difference between people who have tried and who have not tried Airbnb was significant. More, respondents who have tried Airbnb emphasized security (p=0.020) more than the other group, but they cared less about the service offered (p<0.001).

Table 4. Importance of Factors Considered by Respondents

	Have tried Airbnb (n=119)	**Have not tried Airbnb (n=129)**	**Mean Diff.**	**t-value**	**Sig.**
1. Cleanliness	6.15*	6.09	0.058	0.461	0.645
2. Price	**6.24**	**5.84**	0.406	2.979	0.003
3. Location	6.03	5.84	0.180	1.408	0.161
4. Security	**6.03**	**5.68**	0.351	2.346	0.020
5. Overall performance	5.95	5.79	0.159	1.306	0.194
6. Online Review Score	5.66	5.50	0.159	1.126	0.263
7. Reputation	5.50	5.70	-0.202	-1.335	0.183
8. Facilities	5.28	5.36	-0.087	-0.591	0.555
9. Number of Reviews	4.95	5.02	0.687	-0.404	0.687
10. Authenticity	4.77	4.60	0.168	0.916	0.360
11. Service	**4.55**	**5.12**	-0.562	-3.578	<0.001

* Items measured on a 7-point scale, from 1=Extremely Not Important to 7=Extremely Important

Importance-Performance Analysis
Importance-Performance Analysis was conducted (Table 8 and Figure 1) to evaluate how Airbnb performs compared to hotels with the importance of factors considered by respondents when they made decisions on accommodation choices.

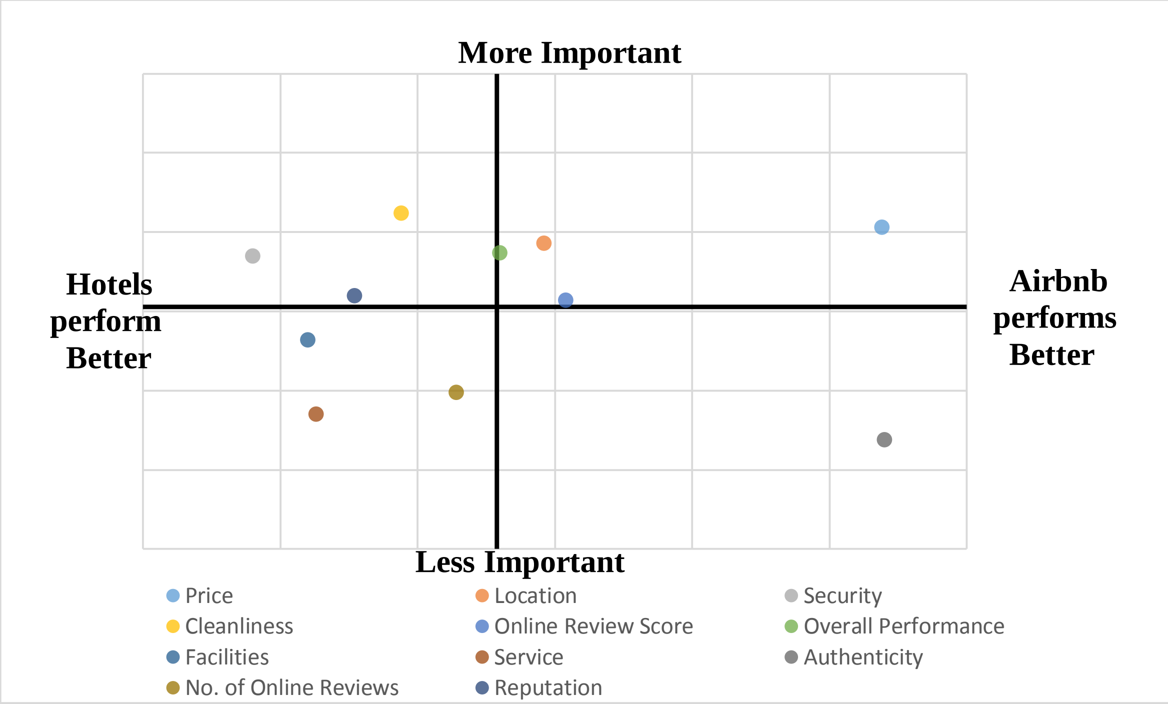
Items, which were considered more important and Airbnb was believed to perform better compared to hotels, were placed at the top right corner, vice versa. The graph shows that the authenticity of experience provided by Airbnb was better than expected. It also performed well in pricing. However, Airbnb needs to emphasize more on security, cleanliness and reputation to better persuade respondents to choose Airbnb.

Table 5. Mean Scores of Airbnb Performance Compared to Hotels and Importance of Factors

	Airbnb Performance compared to hotels	**Importance of factors**
Price	5.19*	6.03**
Facilities	3.1	5.32
Location	3.96	5.93
Service	3.13	4.85
Security	2.9	5.85
Authenticity	5.2	4.69
Cleanliness	3.44	6.12
Reputation	3.27	5.6
Online Review Score	4.04	5.57
No. of Online Reviews	3.64	4.99
Overall Performance	3.8	5.87
Average	3.788	5.529

*Items measured on a 7-point scale, from 1=Better description of hotels to 7=Better description of Airbnb
** Items measured on a 7-point scale, from 1=Extremely Not Important to 7=Extremely Important

Figure 1. Importance of Factors and Airbnb Performance



<u>Effects of trip duration and travel party</u>

To evaluate the influence of duration of the trip and size of travel party on the accommodation choices, respondents were given different scenarios to indicate how likely they would choose hotels and Airbnb for accommodation respectively. Paired-samples t-test was used to compare the likelihood of choosing hotels and Airbnb under the same scenarios.

As shown in Table 6, it was found that hotels would be more preferred ($M=0.637$, $p<0.001$) if the duration of the trip was less than a week when respondents traveled alone. However, if the duration of the trips was longer than a week, respondents would prefer staying in Airbnb instead. Similar phenomenon was found if the respondents traveled with spouses or partners.

On the other hand, it was suggested that when the respondents traveled with friends, they would prefer staying in Airbnb irrespective of the durations of the trip. In reverse, when the respondents traveled with families, they would prefer staying in hotels irrespective of the duration of the trip.

Table 6. Respondent Preferences under Different Scenarios

	Hotels	Airbnb	Mean Diff.	t-value	Sig.
Pair 1 Travel Alone Less than 7 days	**3.77***	**3.13**	0.637	5.044	<0.001
Pair 2 Travel Alone More than 7 days	**3.19**	**3.64**	-0.444	-3.582	<0.001
Pair 3 Travel with Spouse/Partners Less than 7 days	**3.96**	**3.42**	0.540	5.452	<0.001
Pair 4 Travel with Spouse/Partners More than 7 days	**3.49**	**3.65**	-0.226	-4.804	<0.001
Pair 5 Travel with Friends Less than 7 days	**3.44**	**3.77**	-0.335	-3.026	0.003
Pair 6 Travel with Friends More than 7 days	**3.00**	**4.02**	-1.012	-9.190	<0.001
Pair 7 Travel with Families Less than 7 days	**4.17**	**2.75**	1.419	7.046	<0.001
Pair 8 Travel with Families More than 7 days	**3.84**	**2.96**	0.879	7.087	<0.001

* Items measured on a 5-point scale, from 1=Very Unlikely to 5=Very Likely

Factors relating to the willingness to try Airbnb

Relationships between perceptions of Airbnb and willingness to stay at Airbnb

Correlation Analysis was used to find the relationships between perception of Airbnb and the willingness to stay at Airbnb. The result is presented in Table 7. Compared to respondents who would not try Airbnb in the coming three years, respondents who would try Airbnb in the coming three years thought Airbnb was an innovative idea ($r=0.167$, $p=0.008$). The result suggested that a significant positive relationship existed between respondents who thought Airbnb was an innovative idea and the willingness to try Airbnb. Hence, higher agreement of Airbnb as an innovative idea was associated with higher willingness to try Airbnb. Also, that respondents who thought Airbnb was suitable for every city also showed a significant positive relationship with the willingness to try Airbnb ($r=0.130$, $p=0.044$). Moreover, it is believed that respondents who agreed that Airbnb was worth trying was marginally significantly associated with the willingness to try Airbnb ($r=0.117$, $p=0.066$).

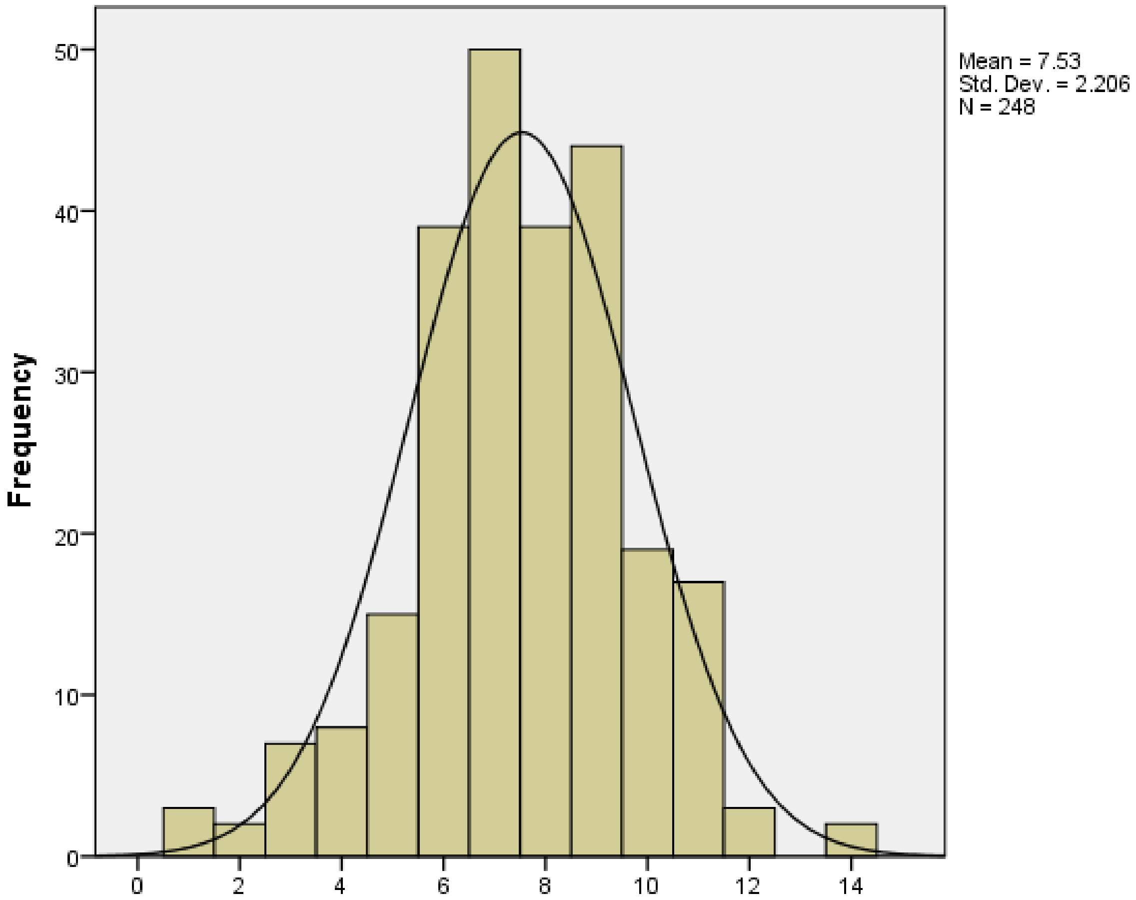
Table 7. Correlation between Perceptions and Willingness to try Airbnb

	Overall, how likely will you stay at Airbnb within the next 3 years?	
To what extent do you agree that Airbnb is…		
1. An innovative idea	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.167** 0.008 248
2. Positive influences to the hospitality industry	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.078 0.223 248
3. Trustworthy	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.075 0.240 248
4. Easy to understand local culture	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.009 0.893 248
5. Be involved in daily life of locals	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.041 0.525 248
6. High privacy	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	-0.009 0.883 248
7. Suitable for every city around the world	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.130* 0.041 248
8. Suitable for leisure travel	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.098 0.122 248
9. Worthy trying	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.117 0.066 248
10. More preferable than hotels	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	0.006 0.922 248

**.The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.
*. The correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Traveler's Psychographics and willingness to stay at Airbnb
As referenced to the research done by Chow & Murphy (2011), Galloway (2002), Griffith & Albanese (1996), Hoxter & Lester (1988),Plog (2001) and Smith (1990), respondents were asked 15 statements so as to categorize their personality into six groups by defining the boundary using standard deviation, namely psychocentric, near psychocentric, mid-centric but leaning to psychocentric, mid-centric but leaning to allocentric, near allocentric and allocentric (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Graph showing the Psychographics Distribution of Respondents



ANOVA was used to find the relationship between travel personality of respondents and the willingness to try Airbnb (Table 8). As stated by Plog (2001), only around 2.5% population can be categorized as psychochentric and 4% population as allocentric. This suggested the reason behind why only 8 respondents were categorized as psychocentric while only 4 respondents were allocentric. Nevertheless, no matter if the two extreme groups were excluded for analysis, the result was also significant. The result suggested a significant difference between the group and the willingness to try Airbnb (p=0.005 <0.05). Respondents who are more allocentric are more likely to try Airbnb.

Table 8. ANOVA test for Different Personality Groups

	Plog's Travel Personality of Respondents (N=248)			
Willingness to stay at Airbnb in the next 3 years?	Psychocentric (N=8)	Near psychocentric (N=25)	Mid-centric but leaning to psychocentric (N=91)	F
	3.25*	4.60	4.23	3.42
	Mid-centric but leaning to allocentric (N=90)	Near allocentric (N=30)	Allocentric (N=4)	Sig.
	4.40	4.97	6.25	0.01

* Item measured on a 7-point scale, from 1=Extremely Unlikely to 7= Extremely Likely

Discussion

Perceptions of Airbnb

Based on the results, it is found that respondents who have tried Airbnb before had better perceptions of Airbnb. They believed that Airbnb was suitable for leisure travel. As the designs and decorations of listings in Airbnb is similar to travelers' own home, travelers' can have "home-like" experience, and the familiarity made them feel more secure and relaxing (Callan & Fearon, 2011). Moreover, they hold a stronger belief that staying at Airbnb could help them understand the local culture and be involved in the daily life of locals. It could be induced by living in the neighborhood as locals, enjoying similar atmosphere, hence engaging in direct interactions with hosts and local people nearby.

Both groups of respondents (those who have tried Airbnb and those who have not) expressed positive level of agreement on Airbnb could offer more authentic experience when compared to hotels. The result was consistent with the findings of Chen (2011), Guttentag (2013) and Sommerville (2015). Travelers preferred renting an entire house, through staying at the home of locals instead of hotels, they could better experience the authentic daily life in that destination.

Moreover, both groups of respondents strongly believed that the pricing of Airbnb listings compared to hotels was more competitive. The result was also suggested by Guttentag (2013) and The Economist (2014). The pricing of Airbnb listings is flexible and competitive because of lower primary fixed costs induced by online platform instead of operating physically, as well as labour costs and tax exclusion. The Economist (2014) also mentioned that Airbnb mainly adversely affected the business of budget hotels. This research result supported Guttentag (2013) and Zervas, Proserpio and Byers (2015) and implied that peer-to-peer accommodation rentals, including Airbnb, could be the alternatives of hotels owning to budget concerns of respondents.

The phenomenon of respondents who have tried Airbnb gave more positive responses on this item could be explained by value-for-money. Price is often used as an indicator to estimate the quality of a product. Respondents might think that Airbnb was of better value for money and less risky at similar price point compared to lower end hotels (Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2015). Therefore, after real positive experience, respondents who have tried Airbnb might give high level of agreement on the statement of more competitive pricing.
Since the result suggested that the perception of Airbnb between respondents who have used Airbnb was different from those who have not, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Factors of considerations

Importance-Performance Analysis (Table 5) suggested that the perceived performance of Airbnb in terms of security, cleanliness and reputation could not meet the importance ranked by respondents.

The perceived performance of security ranked the lowest by the respondents. Guttentag (2013) explained this phenomenon as the threats felt by people about hosting a stranger or sleeping at the place of strangers. Moreover, it could be related to the fact that not every Airbnb listings have been legalized for renting (Apple Daily, 2015; Office of the Mayor, 2015). Even Airbnb and Couchsurfing have already adopted identity verification of users to offer better confidence to consumers, this implied that further practices need to be adopted for all peer-to-peer accommodation rentals business especially those are operated through online platform.

Cleanliness was of the top priority for considering accommodation choices among the respondents. It is important to have a clean and tidy place for accommodation. It was found that there is no clear cleaning standards provided by Airbnb (2015) to the hosts. Hosts of Airbnb can flexibly decide if they need to hire a professional cleaning service to their listings. This practice is flexible to the hosts but the assurance provided to guests is insufficient. This practice suggested that peer-to-peer accommodation rentals need to offer better assurance on the cleanliness since mostly no regular housekeeping teams would standby to fulfill emergency needs as hotel service. On the other hand, the negative association between the number of stay at Airbnb and the consideration of service in correlation analysis suggested that the service offered by Airbnb may not need to be comparable to hotels to gain more market share. Other attributes offered by Airbnb may be considered more important for repeat visit.

The result of this research also suggested that the reputation of Airbnb should improve. This can be explained by the fact that Airbnb was considered new to the public. The penetration was not strong enough as traditional hotel industry. As found by Alon and Vidovic (2015), the reputation of a company was positively associated with business performance, hence the sustainability of the business. This suggests that Airbnb as well as other peer-to-peer accommodation rental business should try to positively promote their business and penetrate into the hospitality industry more. The advance in internet technology should be utilized, hence higher penetrate into the market and reduce risks and fears by social media (Yannopoulous, Koronis & Elliott, 2011).

On the other hand, the perceived cleanliness, security and reputation of hotels met the needs of respondents. The result can be explained by the common knowledge about the practice of hotels among the public. For instance, guests can request housekeeping service anytime. Also, security guards are on duty during operations and CCTV are available. These items add value to the hotel rooms. Moreover, respondents suggested that Airbnb offered more competitive pricing. Considering that the majority of respondents were leisure travelers, it should be noted that hotels have more diverse markets including business travelers and group tours. Therefore, hotels should develop strategies for differentiation by improving aspects other than pricing.

To summarize, whether peer-to-peer accommodation rentals threaten the hotel industry is controversial. Understanding the factors of consideration and perception of the public towards Airbnb and hotels can provide a guideline for companies, including hotels and other peer-to-peer accommodation rental business, to differentiate from one another in the perspectives of both hardware and software.

<u>Effects of durations and travel party size</u>

Respondents indicated that they had higher possibilities of staying at Airbnb when the duration of the trip was longer and the size of party group was larger. The result can be explained by larger rental space especially when people can rent the entire apartment. People travel in groups can stay closer to each other in the same house, which is a uniqueness of trying Airbnb compared to hotels. Moreover, kitchens are available for cooking by travelers themselves in Airbnb listings (Airbnb, 2015).

On the other hand, respondents preferred staying at hotels regardless of the durations when they were travelling with families. This phenomenon explained by a phenomenon that there are different age groups in a family. The compositions of elderly and babies in family groups may need services and assurance offered by staying at hotels instead. Nevertheless, the result was inconsistent with the findings of Forno & Garibaldi (2015) that household families tended to opt for peer-to-peer accommodation rental. It might be induced by the cultural difference since the sampling in Forno & Garibaldi (2015)'s research was mainly Italians. This implies that attributes provided by hotels and peer-to-peer accommodation rentals are different for fulfilling the needs of different market segments.

Willingness to try Airbnb

The result showed that the perception of respondents towards Airbnb was positively associated with the willingness to try Airbnb. It was consistent with the findings of Schivinski & Dabrowski (2014), perception, brand equity and attitude could influence the purchase intention of consumers, which was the willingness to try Airbnb. The belief of "Airbnb is suitable for every city around the world" and "worth trying" implied that Airbnb would be included in the consideration sets during the evaluation stage in consumer decision making process. Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported.

The result suggested that respondents who were more allocentric were more willing to try Airbnb (Table 14). It was corresponding to the traveler's personality suggested by Plog (2001). People who are more allocentrics are more self-confidents and adventurous. Peer-to-peer accommodation rentals exist long before Airbnb has officially established. However, this kind of business is better known by the public in recent years, so it is still considered as new among people. Also, the legal issues in some regions are still questionable to both hosts and travelers. The considerations of safety and popularity underlies the reasons why Airbnb is more appealing to people who are more allocentric. Thus, hypothesis 3 is supported.

Conclusions and Recommendations for further research

As mentioned, Airbnb is not the only online marketplace for peer-to-peer accommodation rentals. The availability of Web 2.0 internet technologies increases distribution channels for peer-to-peer accommodation rental to promote the business and achieve two-way communication for building trusts. Since the business is considered as newly introduced to hospitality industry, the entry barrier is considered low, that more substitutes and competitors entering the industry to compete market share is expected. Understanding how the public perceives Airbnb can help identify the target market of peer-to-peer accommodation rentals, hence differentiate from hotels and develop new strategies.

In summary, this research has found that respondents who have tried Airbnb perceived the performance of Airbnb differently than those who have not tried. The result indicated that Airbnb should not be direct competitors of hotels owning to different target market and needs. Airbnb is suitable for people who are more allocentric, price consciousness, and when people are travelling with spouses/partners and friends for a longer overnight trip. It is important for both hotels and peer-to-peer accommodation rentals to identify their own target markets and needs so as to adopt more suitable strategies to differentiate from each other, instead of competing directly.

Although all hypothesis were satisfied and significant result was found, there were some limitations in this research. First, only Airbnb was evaluated, representing peer-to-peer accommodation rentals, and compared to hotels. Other websites such as HomeAway.com and CouchSurfing are also welcomed by travelers. More, it is found that traditional Bed & Breakfast (B&B) especially in Taiwan is very popular among tourists. B&B is another alternative over hotels as overnight accommodations. Another example is hostels, which is especially welcomed by backpackers and price-conscious travelers. To achieve broader understanding of the market situation, traditional B&B and hostels can also be included in future research.

In addition, the availability of online platforms nowadays allow people to express their opinions of an issue to friends and even strangers. The flow of information is uncontrollable. Since most peer-to-peer accommodation rentals are online marketplace, and many respondents suggested that they normally obtain accommodation information online, further research can be done by evaluating what kinds of online content and elements of reviews will be more influential to affect travelers' perceptions of to a company.

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