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FOREWORD

Agrotourism can contribute to regional development, a priority goal of each country in the region. Very similar to ecotourism, agrotourism emphasizes on cultural aspects of the rural areas that also help in improving the economy of the area, yet promoting agrobiodiversity. Rural tourism also encompasses ethnotourism, project tourism, health tourism, historical tourism, cultural tourism or adventure tourism. Therefore, researches relating to rural tourism and agrotourism hope to bring awareness to the farmers, tourists, and people concerned with the fate of both the people in and our mother planet. Furthermore, cultural and biological conservation in the rural areas can be harmonized.

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# CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VOLUME 1, Number 2</th>
<th>September 2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Expectation of Tribal Community to Develop Agrotourism Destination in Ban Pang-Khon, Chiang Rai, Thailand <em>Budi Guntoro and Weerapon Thongma</em></td>
<td>119-126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Rural Tourism Stakeholder’s Map and their Difference in Approaches <em>Anestis K. Fotiadis</em></td>
<td>127-137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The Effect of Museum Image on Visitors’ Perceived Service Quality and Satisfaction <em>Yu-Jen Chiang, Yu-Yun Chen and Shih-Shuo Yeh</em></td>
<td>138-151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The Influence of Tourists’ Experiential Value on Place Attachment and Revisiting Willingness <em>Ming-Ju Lee and Chung-Ming Chuang</em></td>
<td>152-167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The Encouraging Factors for Senior Citizen of Chinese Advanced Cities to Move to Senior Residential Hotel <em>Ting-Saw Weng</em></td>
<td>168-179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Branding Destination Events - The Case of Yilan International Children’s Folklore and Folkgame Festival <em>Hui-Ling Aileen Chen</em></td>
<td>180-192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The Jurisdictional Implication of Medical Tourism <em>June Wang</em></td>
<td>193-199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. An Empirical Model of Ecotourism Development in Taiwan: A Perspective from the Interactions between the State and Community <em>Yueh-Wen Huang</em></td>
<td>200-211</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EXPECTATION OF TRIBAL COMMUNITY TO DEVELOP AGROTOURISM DESTINATION IN BAN PANG-KHON, CHIANG RAI, THAILAND

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ABSTRACT

This study that generally aimed to analyze the expectation of tribal community in developing agrotourism destination in Northern Thailand was done in Ban Pang-khon village, one of underdeveloped villages in Chiang Rai Province of Thailand. Ban Pang-khon is multi-ethnics village located in Tambon Huay Chumphu, Amphur Muang, Chiang Rai. This village was selected as focal area due to the potentials of tourism attraction in agrotourism activities, which will be implemented by the community themselves. Aside from that, the government also developed the area under the King’s Project in agriculture. Research was done by triangulation methods which were survey by questionnaire study, in-dept interview by participant observation and it was completed by secondary data in order to ensure the validation of data. The results of the study showed that there were high expectations of tribal community on developing tourism destination in Ban Pang-khon. The tourism that they expected was focusing on coffee and other agricultural activities along with tribal culture as main attractions. However, due to many challenges that they will meet they should consider the social changes brought about by tourism such as meeting other cultures in their village, and losing their genuine culture would also be side effect of tourism development. This study concluded that development of the tourism destination in some area even in the remote area, should also consider the accessibility and infrastructure to support the tourism destination. Therefore, local government should support the needs of their people in increasing the income and improving quality of life in the local community.

Key words: Expectation, tribal community, agrotourism, Thailand
INTRODUCTION

Since the early 1980s, the trend in international conservation has been to manage people/local community-tourist site relationship through integrated conservation and development project. This approach is based on the idea that providing recognized and significant benefits to site neighbors can enhance local respect for and acceptance of national parks and other protected areas. Building local people appreciation and acceptance of such area can be accomplishing a number of ways. One strategy is to provide economic opportunities to local communities directly related to the protected area, such as employment in natural conservation or employment in the tourism industry, sale of food and handicrafts to tourists, provision of services to local communities, and allowing traditional land uses. Another strategy is the development of economic opportunities outside the protected area that reduce economic dependence on park resources, such as agricultural, agro forestry, forestry, or fisheries projects. In a document on tourism’s role in the conservation of large carnivores, World Wildlife Forum (WWF) argues that obstacles to community involvement in projects might include “pressure for more rapid economic growth” and also “conflicting aspirations of local farmers and hunters with the emerging tourism industry” (WWF-UK, 2000 in Butcher, 2006).

Agricultural tourism (also known as agritourism and agrotourism) is one of the alternative tourism that could be managed by local community and private company as well. Lobo, Goldman, Jolly, Wallace, Schrader, and Parker, 1999 said that it can have significant benefits for farmers and both agricultural-rural and urban communities. Results from visitor study indicate that agricultural tourism has substantial economic impacts on local communities. In addition, agritourism provides opportunities for diversification and economic incentives for growers, promotes economic development and helps educate the public about the important contributions of agriculture to the county’s economy and quality of life. Agritourism is defined as any business conducted by a farmer for the enjoyment or education of the public, to promote the products of the farm and to generate additional farm income (Hilchey, 1993). It includes a variety of facilities and activities such as agricultural festivals, farm visits, farm tours, demonstration farms, farm stays, wineries, nursery trails and agricultural museums.

The potential benefits of agrotourism for local agriculture are varied. First, agrotourism may generate diversification opportunities for local farmers to increase revenues and enhance the viability of their operations. Second, it may be an excellent tool to educate the public about the importance of agriculture and its contribution to the county’s economy and quality of life. Third, it may provide economic incentives and reduce friction in the agricultural-urban interface, thus helping to preserve agricultural land. Finally, agrotourism may enhance the appeal and demand for local products, foster regional marketing efforts and create value-added and direct-marketing opportunities that may stimulate economic activity and spread the benefits to various communities in the local.

Ban Pangkon, is one Akha tribe village, located in Huay Chomphu subdistrict, Muang district of Chiang Rai Province, Thailand, the mountainous area of agriculture dominated by coffee and vegetables. Since nearby this village a Royal Project for agriculture has been built, the community of Ban Pangkhon has started to have an expectation that in the near future, it could be the tourist destination. With such an expectation of
local community for developing agrotourism destination, therefore, the objectives of this study are: 1) to recover the expectation of tribal community of Ban Pangkhon in developing agrotourism destination and 2) to study the internal and external factors that support and challenge Ban Pangkhon as tourist destination.

**METHODOLOGY**

This research is qualitative research, and it was done by triangulation methods, that were field research with in-depth interview through participant observation. This research was also completed by secondary data. Ban Pangkhon was selected as the study focal point, since this tribal village occupied by Akha, Yao, Lahu and Chinese tribes in 11 sub-villages had rich cultural and agricultural activities. Besides, this village which has been built in the Royal Project for agriculture in the mountain area, and its Kun-khon waterfall, were often passed by tourists. In-depth interview was done by researchers with village leaders and three young leaders from three tribes of Lahu, Akha and Yao. Deep interview also done with ten village members which were selected by convenience sampling method, since few tribal people speak Thai fluently. The gathering of data by participant observation involved the daily activities such as planting and harvesting coffee, picking vegetable, eating together in daily life, joining in the weeding party, and working together to build the house of one village member. Through this method, the researchers could access easily to become a part of the village, and in such a way, can get the data from interview and observation.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Ban Pangkhon is bounded in the west by Tawee sub-district (Mae Suai District), the north by Ban Huay Maerim, the east by Ban Mae Mon, and the south by Ban Huay Shan. Ban Pangkhon had 11 Moo (sub-village), and its population was about 1654 people (892 male, 762 female) in 2009.

**Expectation from tribal community.**

From the deep interview of three representatives of young Akha, Lahu and Yao, it could break down to several statements as follows:

1. They hoped in coming future that they will have tourism destination in Ban Pang-khon, especially in agriculture, culture and nature tourism. Their expectation was coming from their deep hearts in order to develop their poor village to be improved, and calling people who work in the city to come back and work with tourism activities. Right now many young tribal people are going out to find jobs. A lot of them have low education, working in the factories as laborers, some as housekeepers and working at restaurants in Chiang Rai and other cities in Thailand. And also many of them work as labors outside the country. With existing tourism destination in their village, they expected that they will earn income from their village, open shops and sell handicrafts from their own culture.

2. The youths are ready to welcome the tourism project either from local government or non-governmental organizations (NGOs). They tried to look for some NGOs to come to their village so that they have chance to develop their village. They welcome missionaries because they can bring some information regarding their village to public. One young Akha, Mr. Meetapap, has tried to open a coffee shop. He has inspiration for serving the tourists who come to the village. Aside from that, he also tried to make small coffee garden and workshop for showing the tourist who visit the
village. Other young Akhas also have inspiration to open the museum of Akha culture, and make traditional Akha dance

3. To serve tourists, they hope that it will come soon.

4. They realized that the development of tourism in their area will affect their Akha way of life. From the interview, it concluded that they did not worry about cultural change from original Akha, Yao or Lahu, as long as the change can make their lives better. Although they said that not all traditional tribes will bring them to better of life, for the present situation, they open their minds for other people. However, they are still concerned about their old culture from their ancestors, that they have to maintain it for the next generations.

5. Agricultural activities are the major source of income of the village, especially coffee. They have some ideas that these activities could be created as tourism destination in agriculture. Today, they just process the coffee and sell to the middleman who come to Ban Pang-khon or to the company in Bangkok. They have planned that the village will grow, harvest, process coffee for making good seed, until packaging and marketing, and tasting of their skinned coffee. This is just small process, but it is so good for learning about coffee process in traditional way.

**Strengths of village**

From the observation, discussion and analysis, several strengths for Ban Pang-khon to be the tourist destination were drawn as follows:

1. The village is rich in tribal culture, such as Akha, Yao, Lahu and Chinese cultures. In some villages in Chiang Rai and Chiang Mai, it can be the main attraction of the community and nature based tourism. Tourists learn the way of life of tribal communities, that is very unique and artful. Guntoro et. al., (2010) mentioned that tribal culture with the colorful dresses make the location in the remote area become beautiful, although there are much nice natural scenery and resources. Most tourists just want to see the tribal people with the unique life, with a little interest to see other natural sceneries. They like to take picture standing beside local people and their houses. Few tourists have a journey to the village countryside, trekking to the high mountains, and camping in the forest. In some villages in Chiang Rai such as Ban Ruammit (Karen village), tourists come to the village in anticipation of seeing the colorful dress, tasting the exotic foods, and experiencing the Karen’s way of life. They tend to see the lifestyles of tribal people as different and exotic. Many tour companies and individual travelers fulfill an opportunity to get a glimpse of tribal villages and their simple way of life. For tourists, hill tribes would be considered the primary attraction of Northern Thailand.

2. Agricultural activities, such as vegetables and coffee, are the main source of income for the tribal community. Since they have changed the agricultural activities from the opium plantation to the coffee, it was hard work in the beginning, but for the past six years, developing the coffee plantation became daily life in Ban Pangkhon. Vegetables such as tomatoes, cabbage, cucumber, chili, and beans, are major vegetables that are sold at Chiang Rai market. Since five years ago, the local government had supported facilities for coffee machine for skinning and cleaning the coffee to the tribal villages. Ban Pang-khon has become the major producer of coffee in Muang district, Chiang Rai province for six years already.

3. Local environment. Aside from tribal culture, other interesting element for tourism is environment. Many local
environment become purpose for tourism to visit countryside. Local environment such as river, forest, high mountains, agricultural conservation, hill tribe agriculture, even though some objects are not in the Ban Pang-khon village such as waterfall, but those locations are related to Ban Pang-khon.

4. Hospitality resources. Tourists in tribal community tend to receive a general feeling of welcome from villagers. Most of the villagers appear to enjoy having tourists. In addition to liking most of the tourists, they acknowledge the important role that tourists have in generating income for the village. This acknowledgement is demonstrated by the following statement from one of the villagers: “everybody wants to have tourists because they can make money”. The impact that the tourists have on the daily lives of the villagers is at an acceptable level (Guntoro et al, 2010).

5. Pang-khon Agricultural Royal Project, has been established for developing agriculture in Ban Pang-khon area. This project also involved local people to maintain the area. In the near future, the community has high intention with this area to be the tourist destination.

6. Christian missionary had come to Ban Pang-khon for religious purposes. Within five years, almost 90 percent of the people were converted to Christian religion. It means that the socialization and civilization of the community is now open. They accepted other cultures to reach their culture.

Challenges:

1. Many tourist destinations are losing the soul of sustainability, decreasing number of tourist due to missing their natural resources, and exceeding their carrying capacity. This village which is rich in natural and cultural resources could be well maintained by having a good plan for making it a tourist destination. Many tourists will stop over for some days and nights.

2. Interaction between hosts and tourists. The contact hypothesis states that social contact between individuals from different cultures result to mutual appreciation, understanding, respect, tolerance and liking (Brochner, 1982). However, the same contact may also help develop negative attitudes, stereotypes, prejudices and increase tension, hostility, suspicion and often violent attacks. It was strongly argued that contact between people from different cultural backgrounds lead to tension, misunderstanding and stereotyping. According to Hofstede (2001) contact between tourists and hosts of different cultural backgrounds is “the most superficial form of cultural encounter”. Tourists’ and hosts’ perceptions of each other are highly distorted. Hosts develop their perceptions of tourists on the basis of symbols such as clothing or music. Tourists develop their opinions of hosts on the basis of host work status, responsibilities and the outcomes of their mutual commercial exchange. These perceptions are superficial and may create communication problems. In fact, tourist – host contact may result in a negative change of attitudes (Anastasopoulos, 1992 cited by Reisinger and Turner, 2003). Moreover, in Ban Pang-khon where cultural differences between tourists and local communities are greater, the negative effect that it will bring is direct tourist – host contact often generates exploitation, assault, victimization and numerous social problems. Pearce (1992) suggested that while all of these processes need not be present at once, they occur due to large cultural differences that are important elements shaping tourists’ and hosts’ perceptions of each other. There were negative stereotypes of tourists to the hosts and vice-versa. Moreover, most hosts of Ban Pang-khon are hill tribes. The hill
tribes are negatively stereotyped as very poor, and under-privileged. Some tourists viewed hill tribes as a host capable of exploiting guests during economic transaction. While the hosts have a negative stereotypes of the tourists, that the tourist is one who is rich, loud and insensitive to host community needs, being devoid of human qualities, and faceless strangers. Those negative stereotypes are harmful because they create distrust, leading to discrimination and rude behavior, and impede social transaction. This event can be anticipated through the community training to keep the attitude towards tourists who come to their village.

3. Tourism system of Ban Pang-khon. It is also hardwork for community, but it could be supported by local government to make tourism system in Ban Pang-khon. Of course, tourists will not go up to the mountain just to see Ban Pangkhon, but also, to look for other interesting areas at nearby village. This is a high effort to make promotion of this village, since this village is not well known yet. It is just a village located in the mountain (ban doi). Since tourism system also involves the good infrastructure, this has not been maintained well yet. Some roads are still in dusty soil, although some are already aspalted and cemented. Attraction and services are also very important. (see Figure 1). Promotion is the coordination of all seller-initiated efforts to set up channels of information and persuasion to sell goods and services or promote an idea. Promotion, backed by targeted information, is the most powerful commercial sector tools for communicating messages in leisure tourism. As a host, local community in Ban Pangkhon should have good planning regarding promotion. The promotion can be set by getting support from the local government at the same time promoting other tourism attractions in Huay Chomphu, since Ban Pang-khon is under the Huay Chomphu administrative organization. People do not travel vast distances and spend time and money to go somewhere that does not offer them something that is different from home. There is a complex interrelationship between people’s desire to travel and what attracts them to a specific destination. Attractions are arguably the most important component in the tourism system. They are the main motivators for tourist trips and are the core of the tourism product. Without attractions there would be no need for other tourism services. Indeed tourism as such would not exist if it were not for attraction especially categorized attractions as natural and created (Swarbrooke, 2002). Normally, natural environmental assets are attracting tourists, but they must also be preserved. Tourism can be ruined if those assets are exploited. Natural attractions can be subdivided into climate, scenery and wildlife. Ban Pang-khon, the land which is a combination of mountains, forests, agriculture, and unique cultures, motivate tourists from all over the world to visit this village. When this particular village receives a large number of tourists there will be an over carrying capacity if there are no controls in the entrance to this village.

CONCLUSION

Ban Pang-khon is just a tribal village located on the top of the mountain, but its people have desire to develop their village to be tourism destination with their weakness and strengths. Development of a tourism destination in the remote area, should also consider the accessibility and infrastructure to support the tourism destination. Therefore, local government should also have the same desire as their people have, training them and improving their awareness about environmental conservation, for increasing the income and improving the quality of life of the local community.
Figure 1. Ban Pang-khon in the tourism system
REFERENCES


RURAL TOURISM STAKEHOLDER’S MAP AND THEIR DIFFERENCE IN APPROACHES

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ABSTRACT

Rural communities lately are facing serious problems since there is a decrease in the formation of new employment posts and a decrease of the local society’s economic and social level. A possible solution to these problems is rural tourism, a development tool which is believed to be able to solve the various problems every local community faces.

Within this frame every stakeholder conceptualizes rural tourism in a different way. The expectations of the central government are different from the expectations of the local government and usually the expectations of the local and the non-local entrepreneurs differ totally. At the same time men and women realize that the incoming changes will influence their position in the society and they are trying to find ways to react and protect. Although these different parts are collaborate, they face multiple problems because usually it is not clarified who will actualize the plans, the extent to which the government should interfere, where to appeal for suggestions and how much money every part should spend.

Our aim is to recommend the appropriate strategies and techniques to implement for successful solution to the problems. We examine Greek and Hungarian villages that have different levels of rural tourism development, where with the help of personal field research, interviews and questionnaires to the local citizens and entrepreneurs working in rural tourism, we could get answers to the occurring questions.

Key words: Rural tourism, central and local government, local communities, sustainable development, rural tourism stakeholders.

INTRODUCTION

Rural tourism stakeholders’ attitudes toward the risks and benefits of the rural tourism development are shaping the outcomes of the policies which are implemented. Rural tourism is a particularly interesting case since it is considered to be an engine of change in rural territories. Rural communities lately face serious problems such as a decrease in the formation of new employment posts and a decrease of the local society’s economic and social level.
In recent years there has been a considerable interest expressed in development worldwide as a part of a continuing effort to upgrade the local economies. As it happens with all the incoming changes, rural tourism has positive and negative results and that’s why as growing incentives result in the expansion of rural tourism, their impacts attracted the attention of a range of specialists (Ashley 2000; Holland et al. 2003; Wilson et al. 2001).

Different kinds of rural tourism have developed in different countries. And different researchers like Przezborska and Majorek (2003) and Ratz and Puczko (1998) examined rural tourism development in these countries. During a comparison study between Greece and Hungary between December 2005 and March 2006, in the Hungarian villages Karasz, Magyaregregy, Szaszvar and the Greek villages Vria, Ritini and Elatochori, we realized from the interviews we made that there are many differences in the approaches for rural tourism. Although many researchers investigated tourism stakeholders, it is not proven yet which groups are interfering in rural tourism and which is their approach in the incoming changes. In this study we are trying to investigate the arguments, perceptions and interests of the stakeholders involved directly or indirectly in rural tourism development. An interesting outcome will be the identification of the major players of a rural tourism destination and a determination of their difference in approaches.

Rural tourism.

Rural tourism is an old phenomenon. Already during the 19th century people started to travel in rural areas to avoid the stress, which was created by industrialisation. It isn’t so easy to define rural tourism, since there are many definitions that might be called rural tourism but they define other tourist products like farm tourism or village tourism. According to a broader definition, rural tourism includes a range of activities, services and amenities provided by farmers and rural people to attract tourists to their area in order to generate extra income for their businesses (Fotiadis 2006). We could claim that any form of tourism that advertises rural life, art, culture and heritage, thereby benefiting the local community economically and socially as well as enabling and promoting interaction and communication between the tourists and the locals for a more enriching tourism experience, can be termed as rural tourism. Rural tourism is essentially an activity, which takes place in the countryside. It is multifaceted and may entail farm/agricultural tourism, cultural tourism, nature tourism, adventure tourism, and eco-tourism. As against conventional tourism, rural tourism has certain typical characteristics: it is experience-oriented, the locations are sparsely populated, it predominantly takes place in natural environment, it is linked with seasonality and local events and is based on preservation of culture, heritage and traditions.

As Ratz says the term rural tourism has different meanings in different countries. In Finland, for example, it usually means renting out cottages to visitors or providing catering services in the countryside. In Hungary, a special term of "village tourism" exists, indicating that only activities and services provided in villages are included in this kind of tourism. In Slovenia, the most important form of rural tourism is tourism in family farms, where guests stay either with the farmer family or in a guest house, but visiting farms in order to have a meal and explore the farmyard is also popular (Verbole 1995). In the Netherlands, the rural tourist product means particularly camping on the farm, with most farm services being linked to route-bound activities such as cycling, walking or...
Horse-riding. In Greece, the main provision of rural tourism product is bed and breakfast with accommodation in traditionally furnished rooms with traditional breakfasts often based on homemade products (Michalko and Fotiadis 2006; Fotiadis, et al., 2006). Complementary activities - currently still on a limited scale - include restaurants and refreshment facilities or the organisation of cultural and recreational activities (Turner 1993).

Rural tourism is one of the main priorities of tourism development in many European countries, including Hungary and Greece. The market for rural holidays is growing while at the same time the future of many rural regions is uncertain, due to changes in agricultural practice or to the increasing attractiveness of urban living standards. Rural tourism seems to be an appropriate tool to upgrade the declining rural areas and to ensure their sustainable future by job retention or even job creation, increased job diversity, service retention, farm support, broadened cultural provision, landscape and nature conservation or the maintenance of rural arts and crafts as tourist attractions. Rural tourism often provides an incentive (and part of the necessary funding) for infrastructural development, which accordingly promotes the growth of other economic activities in rural areas. A specific benefit of rural tourism development might be the increasing number of opportunities for social interaction for local people who often live relatively isolated lives in agricultural communities (Swarbrooke 1996).

Rapid and continuous changes in a rural area because of the incoming changes, create different reactions to the interfered groups. Every stakeholder conceptualizes rural tourism in a different way. The expectations of the central government are different from the expectations of the local government and usually the expectations of the local and the non-local entrepreneurs differ totally. At the same time men and women realize that the incoming changes will influence their position in the society and they are trying to find ways to react and protect. Although these different parts are collaborate, they face multiple problems because it is not usually clarified who will actualize the plans, the extent to which the government should interfere, where to appeal for suggestions and how much money every part should spend. With the following study we can realize which the main stakeholders in the rural tourism industry are and we can point out their differences in approaches.

METHODOLOGY

The Hungarian villages Karasz, Magya-regregy, Szaszvar and the Greek villages Vria, Ritini and Elatochori were selected for this study. The choice of these areas was based on several criteria, including: significant employment declines in natural resource sectors such as agriculture and forestry, and their locations in areas characterized by the presence of mountains, rivers, canyons and other natural amenities. The project investigated the similarities and differences in rural tourism development in Hungary and Greece and the sample incorporated several groups: tourists, local community, local and central authorities, NGOs, tourism and non-tourism organizations. Informal interviews were conducted with the tourists, local community and tourism and non-tourism organizations either by the authors or research assistants to collect their ideas and beliefs about rural tourism development. Groups like Local and Central Government and NGOs were conducted with formal interviews utilized semi-structured in depth interviews with open-ended questions, since it has been proved that these kinds of interviews can provide detailed information on the attitudes of stakeholders to
cultural tourism issues of a destination area (MacDonald and Jolliffe 2003). Twenty interviews were made by phone and nineteen were conducted face to face. The average interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. The interviews were given in confidence and therefore are presented here anonymously. After collecting and investigating the research data we identified the different stakeholders and we separated each group in different categories according to our prospective and we delineate them in a rural tourism stakeholder’s map. Moreover we discriminate the different opinions for rural tourism development according to the most important groups.

RESULTS

Rural tourism service in Hungary, according to the Hungarian Central Statistical Office is increasing rapidly and the same progress is occurring in Baranya County. From 1999 to 2004 the number of units was raised 34% in Hungary and bed places were raised proportionately 49%. If we examine the three villages in 2004, there were 32 units, 247 bed places for village accommodation and 5,343 nights spent at these bed places. This tourism activity is providing 794,000 HUF to the three villages, a 36.25% of the total local tax income. This percentage is obviously very significant for the local community and the Hungarian government should sponsor this growth with every method it has.

When our team tried to examine the Greek rural development, we realized unfortunately that even though Greece has been implementing rural tourism for several years and even though it is sponsored by the European Community, neither its Central Statistical Office, nor the Greek Ministry of Tourism or any other organization could provide us with the necessary data (Rural room service progress). Therefore we could neither see how rural tourism has developed in the country generally nor at the three villages more specifically. But according to the interviewers in Greece the rural tourism development is raising with a rate of 50%. Moreover, according to the interviewers in both countries the main problem is the small tourism period. More specifically, among the Greek villages there are hardly any visitors during the summer and at the Hungarian villages there are no visitors during the winter. As they say, this problem is occurring mainly because the visitors in Hungary are chiefly foreigners from Germany and Austria who go there for relaxing in a quiet environment away from their stressful city-life. The visitors of Greek villages are mainly Greeks who visit the sea during the summer.

As we can see on the following figures (Figure 1-2), most of the interviewees belonged to the local community and to the tourism and non-tourism organization sectors. According to the socio-demographic characteristics (table 1), the majority of the respondents were female (58.98%). The examined population was between the ages of 45-55 which represents a 35.92% of the total sample. The educational level seems to be very low, since only a 10.25% possesses a college or university degree.

After collecting the different opinions from the above mentioned interviewees we classified rural tourism stakeholders according to our personal opinion and the general literature about tourism stakeholders. Anyone of course might categorize the stakeholders differently but this is the view we got at the examined villages. For example we grouped together all the tourism enterprises, although we could classify them into more groups, such as hotel-owners, restaurant owners, etc.
Table 1. Socio-demographics characteristics.

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<td>45-55</td>
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<tr>
<td>College – University Degree</td>
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<td>10.25</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Profession</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Public Servant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Private Worker</td>
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<td>23.07</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entrepreneur</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>38.46</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pensioner</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rural tourism and its stakeholders.

Any kind of group or individual who can be or is affected (Freeman 1984) by rural tourism development, can be defined as a stakeholder in this development. Some prefer narrow frames (Cochran 1994) that only reflect very direct economic connections to the development, while others prefer broad midrange (Clarkson 1995). Rural tourism stakeholder is not a narrow framework which includes only farmers, who became hosts, and tourists. We believe like many other authors that it is useful to differentiate stakeholders as either primary or secondary (Carroll 1989). Clarkson (1998) has defined primary ones as those who have a “formal, official or contractual” relationship. Secondary are those who influence or affect, or are influenced or affected but not engaged in transactions with the corporation and not essential for its survival.

According to our beliefs, rural tourism can be separated into the following categories, which continually interact like a balance machine and they decide whether the development procedure will be successful or not:

Public authorities. The public authorities are divided into the central, the peripheral and the local level. They are the ones who determine the tourism policy. They are usually responsible for the services and the infrastructure, as well as for the conduct of sums and for the checking of effectiveness.

Tourism enterprises. They involve accommodation owners, restaurant owners, souvenir suppliers, etc. There can be a distinction between the entrepreneurs who come from the local community and entrepreneurs who do not come from the local community.

Non tourism enterprises. They include all the other entrepreneurs who do not take part in the tourism activity. They are divided into local and non-local entrepreneurs, too.

The working group. The working group can be classified into various categories such as the ones who come from the local market and the ones who come from the foreign regions. Moreover, the employees may be men or women and they may work in a tourism or in a non-tourism enterprise.

Local community. The local society may be the most crucial factor for the development of rural tourism in a region. We divide the population in terms of gender because there are different perceptions for each gender regarding competitiveness. Age is another important factor since there are different reactions towards changes across different age groups.

Tourists. The tourists are rural tourism’s demand and they are either foreign or domestic tourists. They usually have different demands depending on the country they come from and on their age.

Non-governmental organizations, environmental and cultural unions, and educational institutions. They are usually the ones who promote sustainable development and try to maintain the natural and the cultural inheritance of a destination. They are also interested in the education of the human potential and in the overall increase of the life level.

Antagonists. As a matter of course the antagonists do not wish for their rivals’ development. There are two kinds of antagonism; the internal one which takes place within the rural region and may be related to enterprises that are affected by the development of this activity, and the external one which is related to other rural regions which recognize the fact that another region’s development may decrease their own region’s income.
According to the stakeholder theory these various groups can and should have a direct influence on managerial decision making (Jones 1995). In rural tourism the government usually sets the plans and the local community decides on their implementation. In this procedure every stakeholder conceptualizes rural tourism in a different way. According to the interviewees we got the following approaches during our research at the examined villages.

Stakeholders difference in approaches.

Masculine and feminine differences in approaches. Geert Hofstede (2001) is a culture anthropologist, who is the prime expert in the intercultural communication area. He conducted a large study during the ‘60’s and the 70’s among more than 116000 people at a multinational giant, IBM in the Netherlands. He asked the employees of this company about their values in their job. He put the answers under a statistical analysis and he found the following problem range, which is the same during the answers with different solution for every country, and he created a four-dimension model:

The four-dimension model

1. large vs. small power distance
2. individualism and collectivism
3. masculinity and femininity
4. weak vs. strong uncertainty avoidance

This third part of his model is very valuable in rural areas. In these areas man is usually in a better “position” than woman. However, rural tourism development changes the status of man as women are becoming more autonomous by creating their own enterprises.

For example there are approximately 100 feminine rural-agro tourism cooperations with more than 2000 members according to Karasavvoglou and Florou (2006). These feminine co operations are found in villages or small towns, they usually produce traditional products, they
develop several programs or seminars in order to educate their members and they face problems with the organization and the promotion due to the insufficient capabilities of their female members.

In the masculine culture, which is typical of rural territories, the gender roles are in sharp contrast; men are supposed to be self-confident, ambitious, tough, focusing on financial success, while women should be modest, tender, concentrating on relationships and the circumstances of life. In the masculine cultures, the dominant value is that of the material success, of the progress. Money and material values are important. In the family, the father deals with money, the mother with feelings. These societies focus on work; people live in order to work; Japan is a typical masculine society.

Rural tourism is changing these masculine societies and that’s why women are the biggest supporters of this development. Although men understand that this development will add an income to their family, they don’t want to lose their position in it; therefore they might be negative to the development. This of course depends crucially on the country where rural tourism is developing.

Young and old people differences in approaches. The young people are in favor of a dynamic rural tourism development as they expect medium-term profit for themselves and also for their region. They are the most significant stakeholders regarding the tourism development procedures as well as the issues of managing this development. The young people are often the ones who face the most important problems in rural societies since there are not many chances for occupation and thus, they are forced to leave and stay in the cities. The older residents, on the other hand, are often the most negative towards rural tourism development, as they are generally negative to forthcoming changes, to new customs and manners brought by the tourists, and they usually have a stable job and life routine that they are not willing to change.

Local and non-local enterprises difference in approaches. In rural areas usually there are small sized enterprises which are either touristic or non-touristic and they either belong to local citizen or to lets say “foreigners”. There are a lot of studies that examine small enterprises’ behaviour and the factors that influence their development and their decision making (Gartner 2004). In these studies we can see that there are different opinions among the entrepreneurs regarding the environmental programs which a government implements in a territory. We believe that for local entrepreneurs rural tourism is the big lottery since it can help them to avoid hardworking in the fields and to become hotel managers. Therefore, the local entrepreneurs reinforce the development of rural tourism, but when they realize that someone else may also gain profit from this growth, they react strangely due to the lack of business knowledge. Sometimes they are even against development, because they find out that the “foreign” entrepreneurs are subsidized instead of them.

The non-local entrepreneurs are usually persons who were either born in the surrounding area and they have come back to their native place foreseeing the occurred chances or they are totally unrelated to the area, but they have also realized the beginning of a new business market and have resettled with the purpose of financial profit. They naturally approve the development of rural tourism activity and they take advantage of their business knowledge in order to seize all the occurring opportunities. The difference in approaches between the two groups lies in their preferred way of development of rural tourism activity. The “foreigners”, on
the one hand, lack emotional obstacles and thus, they usually think that the area should be transformed so as to provide whatever the customer wishes. On the other hand, the local entrepreneurs believe that certain activities should not take place in their area due to their moral bounds. Accordingly, another distinction of the entrepreneurs as stakeholders is the one between the tourism and the non-tourism enterprises. The non-tourism enterprises in many cases are against the development of this activity. For example, the small shop selling fertilizers and farming tools will inevitably face problems, if a totally agricultural area is transformed into a partially agricultural one.

The differences among the entrepreneurs are similar to the ones that exist among the working groups. The employees coming from the local market usually have more moral bounds in comparison with the employees coming from other markets whose only purpose is money. All the above mentioned components should be taken into consideration and evaluated during the development of the business plan by the local, the peripheral or the central government.

Local and central government difference in approaches. There are some differences regarding how these two parts are reacting to the rural tourism development. Even though the local government is usually better informed about the needs of its society, it is not involved in the decision making about rural tourism development and therefore, it does not apply the policies in an enthusiastic rhythm. The central government is the one who decides and usually the same policies are implemented in every territory. However, not all the territories display the same potential for success and the policies fail. Moreover, the local government normally cares “too much” for the voters and that’s why it supports plans which might be less successful for the territory but will satisfy the locals.

Naturally, there are more differences in the approaches. For example a loyal tourist in an area and a first time tourist might have different opinion about the incoming development but unfortunately during the research we couldn’t extract secure conclusions. The strangest thing during the interviews, especially in Greece was that everybody was accusing the others. The local entrepreneurs were accusing non-local and all the kinds of government; non locals were accusing the locals and so on.

CONCLUSION

Rural tourism stakeholders must understand that they are interdependent, and that they will benefit from their collaborations. Each category and each group must cooperate (central with local government, women with men, tourism and non-tourism enterprises) so as to find a way to benefit from rural tourism development. All the decisions must be taken after careful thinking and continuous communication across the different stake-holders.

Differences in the goal that each group has will always be an issue but these differences must be joined together for a common goal which will be no other than the general prosperity. We hope that with our research we discriminated each group (stakeholder) and we indicated the difficulties which a rural territory might face while it is developing. Rural tourism has mainly positive supporters but as we have proven in some cases within each stakeholder category there might be reasons for negative reactions. Further research should be conducted for a better understanding of the basis for various rural tourism stakeholders’ potential to threaten and cooperate. This paper provides the views that stakeholders have according to the impression they made to the authors.
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THE EFFECT OF MUSEUM IMAGE ON VISITORS’ PERCEIVED SERVICE QUALITY AND SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to understand museum image on visitors’ perceived service quality and satisfaction. Based on the theory of buyer’s behavior proposed by Kotler, Bowen and Makens (2003), the study hypothesized that visitors’ image of museum contribute to their perceived service quality and ultimately increase their overall satisfaction to the museum. The study adopts convenient sampling method to survey visitors of Mei Nung Folk Arts Museum and obtained 390 valid responses. The result indicates that the research hypotheses are supported by the data.

Key words: image, service quality, satisfaction, museum

INTRODUCTION

Due to the contemporary trend of culture awareness, many tourists are attracted by museum. A plan to establish museum has become an important indicator for measuring cultural tourism resource for a destination and thus a vital issue (Herreman, 2002). Research by S.L.J. Smith (1994) also asserts that museum is intermediary in the process of creating a final product. For a country or a destination, museum is a way to preserve its culture heritage. For travelers, museum is a way to glimpse at culture and characteristics of a destination. However, tourists nowadays show multifaceted traveling motives even within museum tourism (Combs, 1999). Therefore, researchers
started to explore the entertaining (e.g. Van Aalst & Boogaarts, 2002) and recreational (e.g. Stephen, 2001) functions of museum.

Researchers assert that image is a vital component for the success of destination marketing for a positive image act as a strong pull force to visitors (Alhemoud & Armstrong, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 2003). Museum often plays an important part in shaping the image of a destination (M. K. Smith, 2004) and thus warrants some attention. Researchers also indicate that museum can help to generate positive perceptions (McLean, 1997) and increase satisfaction (Tobelem, 1997). Therefore, understanding tourists’ perception on museum image can help to understand how to provide better service and generate higher satisfaction.

Service quality is an important criterion for evaluating managerial effectiveness (Backman & Veldkamp, 1995). As a type of service industry, tourism also relied on service quality to increase its competitiveness (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991). Researchers also assert that service quality contributes to satisfaction and consequently affects tourists’ visit intention (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Caldwell (2002) suggests that increase of museum service quality is required to cope with the increase of expectation of the visitors entailed by the admission fee.

Museum, as a heritage preserver and an image creator, is important to a destination or a city, which is the basic motive behind this study. Based on the above discussion, one can conclude that image is vital component in generating good museum service quality and subsequent visitors’ satisfaction. The study adopts the buyers’ behavior model proposed by Kotler, et. al., (2003) to examine the visitors of Mei Nung Folk Arts Museum.

Literature review.

Museum image.

As mentioned previously, museum helps a destination to preserve its culture and thus contributes to the destination image creation. Therefore, the study is interested in museum image in terms of its marketing implication.

Researchers have attempted to define “image” and have gradually come to a consensus, which is defined as the integration of belief, idea, attitude, impression, and perception on a particular entity or phenomenon (Crompton, 1979; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Hunt, 1975). As for the composition of “image”, researchers tend to possess slightly different views. Beerli and Martín (2004) assert that “image” can be categorized into three aspects namely cognitive, affective and overall. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) examine the formation of “image” and propose that it can be divided into organic, induced and complex image. From the differences of the categorization, one can conclude that image formation is multi-facets and multi-leveled process. The study focuses on examining the complex aspect of museum image.

Museum image is an overall mental map generated by the visitors when they are exposed to information related to a museum. Vaughan (2001) divided museum image into two aspects, which are functional and cognitive images. Gil and Ritchie (2008) proposed that affective image is much more effective than cognitive image in terms of creating overall image. These studies are good examples of applying destination image concept on museum context.
Service quality.

Levitt (1972) defines service quality as service provided that can meet preset criteria. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) propose confirmation-disconfirmation paradigm which argues that service quality is the gap between customer’s experiences/evaluations and their expectations of a particular product. Garvin (1984) makes similar assertion and further states that service quality is highly subjective to each individual. PZB model proposed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) is the most popular way to evaluate service quality. The reason for its popularity is because of the factor in customer expectation in service quality evaluation. Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (2002) further elaborate that service quality can be categorized into five dimensions namely reliability, tangibility, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. Most service quality evaluation criterion is developed based on these five dimensions also known as SERVQUAL and is widely used in many industries including tourism.

Satisfaction.

Satisfaction has long been used by academic and practical organization as an indicator for management efficiency. Oliver (1981) argued that satisfaction is a post-purchase and post-use evaluation and thus can only be formed after consuming a particular product or service. Baker and Crompton (2000) hold similar views and further suggest that the formation of satisfaction is influenced by personal and social factors. For example, most people purchase expensive vehicle to impress their friends. Kotler (1991, 2003) argued that satisfaction is formed when function of a product or service can coincide with customer’s need.

The concept of satisfaction can be applied to tourism field. Baker and Crompton (2000) suggest that tourist satisfaction is formed when tourists interact with a destination or participate in an activity or is the gap between pre-visit expectation and post-visit evaluation Bultena and Klessing (1969).

Satisfaction researchers have dispute on how to measure satisfaction, which can generally be divided into two factions namely single item (e.g. Czepiel, 1974) and multiple items (e.g. Bigné, Sánchez, & Sánchez, 2001; Fornell, 1992; Singh, 1991). The believers of single item advocate that satisfaction can be measured with a single item of overall satisfaction. The believers of multiple items, on the other hand, argued that satisfaction can be divided into many aspects, which all need to take into account in order to truly evaluate satisfaction. This study adopts the former view. The reason for the decision is due to the inclusion of service quality dimension, which already investigates visitors’ perception on various aspects of museum quality. Given the study’s intention to use regression, it is more appropriate to utilize single item method.

Interrelationships between image, service quality and satisfaction.

Image is an overall mental map and impression of an individual towards a particular product, service or place (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Hunt, 1975; Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 2002), which include cognitive, affective and overall aspects of image (Beerli & Martín, 2004). From the statement, one can postulate that the formation of image is highly subjective and often involves emotional elements. Therefore, image is not just related to service quality and satisfaction, but also shares certain similarities (Bigné, et al., 2001). For example, it can be argued that image help to reshape one’s perception on the service quality of a museum and re-determine their expectation (Font,
1997), which is incorporated in their evaluation of the service (Kawashima, 1998). Most of the researchers believe that the relationship between image and service quality is positive in nature (McLean, 1997; Tobelem, 1997) and good image often translates to higher satisfaction (Gil & Ritchie, 2008). Therefore, one can conclude that image can affect perceived service quality and satisfaction (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 1993).

Academic regards service quality and satisfaction related but are different components. For example, Oliver (1997) asserted that service quality is one’s perception towards particular attributes, while satisfaction is more of a holistic judgment of a service or a product. Bigné, et. al., (2001) proposed that service quality is one’s cognitive judgment while satisfaction is an affective and emotional perception. Although service quality and satisfaction are believed to be different, empirical evidence supports the fact that good service quality leads to higher satisfaction (Cronin Jr & Taylor, 1992), which is also true in tourism related studies (e.g. Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Oliver, 1981). Furthermore, the study of Bigné, et. al., (2001) supports the idea that image, service quality and satisfaction are interrelated with each other.

METHODOLOGY

Research framework and hypotheses.

The study modifies the buyers’ behavior model proposed by Kotler et. al., (2003), and postulates that image of museum affects visitors’ perceived service quality and consequently affects their final satisfaction. The proposed relationships are illustrated in Figure 1 below and the corresponding hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis H1: museum image affects visitors’ perceived service quality of museum.

Hypothesis H2: museum image affects visitors’ satisfaction of museum.

Hypothesis H3: museum service quality affects visitors’ satisfaction of museum.

Hypothesis H4: museum image affects visitors’ satisfaction through service quality.

Sampling method and research subject.

The survey was conducted at the Mei Nung Folk Arts Museum, a museum dedicated to the preservation of Hakka culture. Hakka is a minority population in Taiwan who originated from Henan and Shanxi. Due to its small number, Hakka people are slowly assimilated by Taiwanese people, thus making the preservation of Hakka culture an important task for Hakka people. A substantial proportion of Hakka people reside within Mei Nung (Wu, 2009), which makes it an ideal place for establishing a Hakka museum.

The study uses purposive sampling method to survey the visitors of Mei Nung Folk Arts Museum. The visitors were asked to participate in the survey after finishing their tour of the museum and completed the questionnaire on site. The survey was done by distributing 412 questionnaires of which 390 of them were valid.
Questionnaire design and analytical method.

The questionnaire is divided into four sections namely museum image, service quality, satisfaction and socio-demographic background. The first part of the questionnaire is museum image, which is designed to collect information regarding visitors’ perceived image of the museum. The questions are developed based on the works of Vaughan (2001) and Gil & Ritchie (2008). There are 18 questions that are in the form of 5 point Likert type scale. The second part of the questionnaire is designed to collect information regarding visitors’ perceived service quality of the museum, which is developed based on the modified SERVQUAL model proposed by Parasuraman et. al., (2002). The questions can be further categorized into five dimensions namely reliability, tangibility, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. These dimensions are than elaborated into 19 questions in the form of 5 point Likert type scale.

As discussed before, the study adopts the view of single item in terms of measuring satisfaction. Based on the work of Gil & Ritchie (2008), the study includes three satisfaction questions, which are “happy with the decision to visit the museum,” “overall satisfaction with the experience of the museum,” and “the visit was enjoyable.” The questions are in the form of 5 point Likert type scale.

The final part of the questionnaire is designed to collect basic socio-demographic information of the respondents and their description of the visit. The socio-demographic part includes 7 questions, which are age, gender, education level, occupation, monthly salary, residence, and marital status. The nature of the visit part include 8 questions, which are source of information, frequency of visit, time of visit (when), length of visit (how long), transportation, companion, primary motive, and repeat visit intention.

The study uses a statistical software SPSS12.0 for the analyses of the data. The analytical techniques include descriptive, reliability, factor, correlation, multiple-regression and hierarchical multiple-regression.

Data analyses.

Before further analyses, the study conducts reliability test on museum image, service quality and satisfaction part of the

Figure 1. The research framework
data. The Cronbach’s α value of the three parts are 0.918, 0.948 and 0.735 respectively, which met the minimum requirement of 0.7 that is generally accepted by researchers (e.g. Failde & Ramos, 2000; Itzkovich, et al., 2007).

Sample characteristics.

The respondents are fairly divided into male and female (50.8%), and married and not-married (51.5%). Nearly third of the respondents are between the ages of 21-30 years old (30.8%), while 23.1% of the respondents are between the ages of 31-40 years old, and 12.3% of the respondents are between the ages of 41-50 years old. Most of the respondents are students (27.4%) and others work in service industry (24.9%). There are 152 respondents earning less than NT$ 15,001 per month that account for 39.2% of the total sample and 19.5% of the respondents earning NT$ 15,001-30,000 per month. Only 3.8% of the respondents earn more than NT$ 75,000 per month. The reason that most of the respondents earn relatively low monthly salary is probably due to the fact that a substantial amount of the respondents are students. Most of the respondents are from the southern part of Taiwan (72.6%) with some from northern part of Taiwan (15.9%).

Most of the respondents learn about Mei Nung Folk Arts Museum through word-of-mouth from their friends or relatives (45.1%) and some through the Internet (13.6%). More than half of the respondents (63.6%) are first time visitors of the museum. The respondents are mainly accompanied by family or relatives (48.7%), and friends and co-workers (34.9%). Only 4.1% of the respondents visit the museum alone. In terms of the primary motive for visit, 31.3% of the respondents are motivated by entertain-

ment. In terms of the length of stay, 45.4% of the respondents stay for roughly one hour. Most of the respondents (86.2%) express repeat visit intentions.

Factor analysis.

Museum image.

The study uses factor analysis to reduce 18 museum image items into four underlying factors. Before the analysis commenced, certain criterion must be met. First index is the Cronbach’s α value reported before (0.918), which shows that the data possess adequate reliability. The significance level of Bartlett’s test of sphericity reaches 0.000 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value is equal to 0.925. All these values indicate that the data are adequate for factor analysis.

The result of the factor analysis is shown in Table 1 where four factors were extracted. Reliability tests were commenced to obtain Cronbach’s α value for each factor in the attempts to further examine data reliability. The factors and their corresponding Cronbach’s α value are: informative (0.838), in-depth culture materials (0.819), important culture preservation organization (0.779), and comfortable environment (0.792). The four factors account for 62.584% of the variances of the initial 18 items. These four factors generally describe respondents’ perceived image of the museum.

From the mean scores of the museum image items, one can determine that most respondents believe the museum to be a good place for Hakka culture preservation for all the mean scores of the items in factor three reaches 4.20 or above. However, the mean scores of the items in factor one are relatively low (below 4).
Table 1 Factor analysis of the museum image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Informative</th>
<th>In-depth culture materials</th>
<th>Important culture preservation organization</th>
<th>Comfortable environment</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Often host Hakka event</td>
<td>0.739</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient information source</td>
<td>0.717</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.871</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibit new content frequently</td>
<td>0.671</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.791</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractive exhibition</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.807</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide Mei Nung travelling information</td>
<td>0.618</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.850</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.879</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich Hakka reading materials</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Hakka style architecture</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.688</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Exhibit Hakka artifact</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.750</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hakka history materials</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.588</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.08</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interesting display</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn new things</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Hakka people of their own culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.628</td>
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<td>Culture preservation site</td>
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<td>0.682</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Hakka style</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.533</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not crowded</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.832</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough pen space</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.825</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy access facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.583</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.838</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>0.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Variance explained</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>19.507</td>
<td>35.738</td>
<td>50.173</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KMO=0.925, Bartlett’s test=3177.905(P <0.000)

Service quality.

The KMO value of the service quality part of factor analysis is equal to 0.954 and the Bartlett’s test is significant with p<0.000. Therefore, the factor analysis was conducted using Varimax, which extracted three factors. The three factors explained 65.059% of the variances of the original 19 service quality items. Furthermore, Cronbach’s α value of the three factors was calculated to ensure data reliability which are 0.93, 0.89 and 0.83, respectively.

The service quality part of the questions was designed based on SERVQUAL model proposed by Parasuraman et. al., (2002), which includes five dimensions namely reliability, tangibility, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. One can see that the five
dimensions were regrouped into three factors in the result. The first factor is a combination of responsiveness and assurance dimensions in the original model. The items in the first factor are mostly related to service personnel and intangible aspect of museum service. The second factor contains tangibility and reliability dimensions of the original model. The items in the second factor are mostly related to the physical layout of the museum and the actual content of the exhibitions, which are more tangible aspects of service. The empathy remains unchanged.

Table 2: Factor analysis of perceived service quality of the museum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Intangible</th>
<th>Tangible</th>
<th>Empathy</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Service personnel are enthusiastic</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.745</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service personnel are skillful</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service personnel are knowledgeable</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.746</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service personnel have good manner</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.754</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient information center</td>
<td>0.697</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service personnel are efficient</td>
<td>0.638</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content of exhibition is professional</td>
<td>0.613</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service personnel are properly dressed</td>
<td>0.579</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>0.658</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting multimedia advertisement</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficient spatial layout</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.775</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clear signs and directions</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.718</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenient and adequate facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.729</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour flow is smooth</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display is easy to understand</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display is educational</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.660</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>0.651</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enough place to rest</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good opening hours</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.751</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>0.726</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide service specifically for kids</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.794</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide service specifically for disabilities</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.523</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.926</td>
<td>0.889</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Variance explained</td>
<td>26.091</td>
<td>50.119</td>
<td>65.059</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMO=0.954, Bartlett’s test=5,131.816 (P&lt;0.000)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Factor analysis of the satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Satisfaction</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Happy with the decision to visit the museum</td>
<td>0.878</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall satisfaction with the experience of the museum</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The visit was enjoyable</td>
<td>0.735</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach’s alpha</td>
<td>0.766</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Variance explained</td>
<td>68.227</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMO=0.651, Bartlett’s test=337.615 (P&lt;0.000)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effect of Museum Image on Visitors’ Perceived Service Quality and Satisfaction

Y. J. Chiang, et al.

Table 4: Correlation analysis of the dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Satisfaction</th>
<th>Informative</th>
<th>In-depth culture materials</th>
<th>Important culture preservation organization</th>
<th>Comfortable environment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall Satisfaction</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.417*</td>
<td>0.547*</td>
<td>0.417*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>0.537*</td>
<td>0.600*</td>
<td>0.639*</td>
<td>0.420*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible</td>
<td>0.607*</td>
<td>0.617*</td>
<td>0.703*</td>
<td>0.578*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible</td>
<td>0.519*</td>
<td>0.545*</td>
<td>0.682*</td>
<td>0.577*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* indicates p<0.05

Table 5. Regression analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Museum Image</td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>0.185**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-depth culture materials</td>
<td>0.413**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important culture preservation organization</td>
<td>0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>0.315**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted-R²= 0.675; F =203.283; p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Museum Image</th>
<th>Overall Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informative</td>
<td>0.026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-depth culture materials</td>
<td>0.387**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important culture preservation organization</td>
<td>0.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>0.173**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted-R²= 0.318; F =46.445; p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Quality</th>
<th>Overall Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>0.185**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible</td>
<td>0.387***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tangible</td>
<td>0.121*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted-R²= 0.393; F=84.781; p=.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* indicate p<0.05; ** indicate p<0.01

From the mean scores, one can see that all the perceived service quality items exceed the figure of 3.90 except for two: (1) provide service specifically for kids (mean=3.89), and (2) provide service specifically for the disabled (mean=3.67). The disabled requires special assistances, where a public place may not be fully equipped for those. Although the mean score is still well above the mid point of scale 3, it must be noted that the survey is targeting general population and thus may not reflect the true perception of the disabled.
Satisfaction.

The satisfaction part of the questionnaire only contains three questions, which explains why the Cronbach’s alpha (0.766) and the KMO (0.651) values are relatively lower than the other two parts. Although the KMO is inadequate, Bartlett’s test still reaches the significant level of p less than 0.001, and so the factor analysis is commenced. The three satisfaction items are grouped as one factor, which explained 68.227% of the original items. One can see from Table 3 that “overall satisfaction with the experience of the museum” is the only item that has means below 4. Despite that, the mean scores of all three items were very high indicating high level of satisfaction from the visitors.

Correlation analysis.

The study conduct correlation analysis with the factors derived from the above factor analyses and found that the correlations between the factors are significant. As indicated in Table 4, four museum image factors show significant level of correlation with the three service quality factors. Furthermore, the overall satisfaction is strongly correlated with museum image and service quality factors. This result suggests that all the factors are interrelated with each other. The study commenced further analyses to examine whether there are casual relationships between the factors, which will be reported in the next section.

Regression analysis.

Table 5 shows the regression analysis that is done to examine the validity of the hypotheses H1, H2 and H3. Hypothesis H1 postulates that museum image affects visitors’ perceived service quality of museum. Therefore, the study uses service quality as the dependent variable and factors of museum image as independent variables. The result shows that F value is equal to 203.283 with p<0.001. The Adjusted-$R^2$ is equal to 0.675 suggesting that the factors of museum image account for 67.5% of the variation of service quality. Closer examination indicates that in-depth culture materials (beta=0.413) contribute the most to the service quality.

Similar regression analysis is conducted to test hypothesis H2, which postulates that museum image affects visitors’ satisfaction of museum. Although the significance level reaches p<0.001, the Adjusted-$R^2$ is only 0.318. This indicates that although casual relationship can be found between museum image and satisfaction, the museum image only contributes moderately to satisfaction. Closer examination reveals that only two factors significantly contribute to overall satisfaction, which are in-depth culture materials (0.873**) and comfortable environment (0.173**).

The final regression is conducted to test hypothesis H3, which states that museum service quality affects visitors’ satisfaction of museum. Again the significance level reaches p<0.001, but the Adjusted-$R^2$ is only 0.393. Despite the relatively low Adjusted-$R^2$, all three service quality factors show significant casual relationships to overall satisfaction, especially the intangible aspect of service quality.
Hierarchical multiple regression.

The study uses hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test hypothesis H4, which states that museum image affects visitors’ satisfaction through service quality. In stage 1, only museum image is introduced as independent variable, which produces same result as Table 5. In stage 2, service quality enters the equation, which alters some of the figure in stage 1. Table 6 clearly indicates that the $R^2$ increases from 0.325 to 0.413 when service quality is introduced ($\Delta R^2=0.088$). Furthermore, $\beta$ value of in-depth culture materials is 0.387 in stage 1 of the analysis, but reduces to 0.186 in stage 2. From the result, the study concludes that only in-depth culture materials contribute significantly to satisfaction through empathy and intangible aspect of service quality.

Based from the result, one additional observation can be made that is in light of the fact that “in-depth culture materials” is the core function of the museum; one can postulate that peripheral function does not contribute to satisfaction. The observation is consistent with Foster’s (1999) assertion that some factors only act as a deterrent, but not as an incentive for destination preference.

CONCLUSION

To sum up the results, the study must reflect the proposed research framework and hypotheses. As indicated in Table 7, three of the hypotheses are only partially supported by the empirical evidence. This suggests that the museum image significantly affects visitors’ perceived service quality ($R^2=0.675$), but only moderately affects satisfaction ($R^2=0.318$). From the test in Table 6, the study is able
to determine that the core function of the museum is the only factor that is able to generate visitor satisfaction through service quality. Therefore, it can be said that museum service is rather different from general service that relied greatly on service quality. Visitors of the museum expect their visit to be educational and thus demand certain level of expertise on the museum’s part. The result of this study is quite different from past museum studies (e.g. Gil & Ritchie, 2008) that assert that every aspect of museum image contributes to visitor satisfaction. The result of this study cautions that assumption, that is, some of the images that the museum possesses may not be relevant to the visitors and do not contribute to visitors’ satisfaction. Taking this study for example, the respondents regard Mei Nung Folk Arts Museum an extremely competent organization for Hakka culture preservation (mean score exceed 4.2). However, the visitors may not care about it except maybe for the Hakka people. Therefore the image is not an effective satisfaction contributor.

Table 7: Summary of the research results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Proposed relationship</th>
<th>Table</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>Museum image → Service Quality</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.675</td>
<td>3/4 support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>Museum image → Satisfaction</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>1/2 support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Service quality → Satisfaction</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.393</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>Museum image → Service Quality → Satisfaction</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.325 → 0.413</td>
<td>1/4 support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above discussion, the study can conclude that the respondents place different levels of importance on various aspects of the museum image. For example, the educational quality of the museum is clearly more important than its ability to provide entertainment. One cannot deny that failure to provide entertainment may severely compromise visitors’ satisfaction, but as Foster (1999) suggests, provision of the quality may not increase visitors’ satisfaction. Given that some aspects of image are more important than others, it might be a good idea to include it in future studies.

REFERENCES


The Effect of Museum Image on Visitors’ Perceived Service Quality and Satisfaction

Y. J. Chiang, et al.


ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate the influence of heritage tourists’ experiential value on place attachment and revisiting willingness. The close-ended questionnaire is used as instrument to survey tourists’ experiential value, place attachment, and revisiting willingness for visiting Erkan Village in Penghu. Through the occasional delivery, we gain 448 valid questionnaires. Based on the research purpose and hypotheses, this study conducts structure equation modeling to analyze data, and the results found that experiential value of village tourists, first, has a significantly positive effect on place attachment. Second, experiential value of village tourists has a significantly positive effect on revisiting willingness. Finally, place attachment of village tourists does not have significant effect on revisiting willingness. In conclusion, this study further provides suggestions for recreation development of Erkan Village.

Key words: Activity involvement, experiential value, revisiting willingness, Erkan village

INTRODUCTION

Recently, nostalgia of the old days has been so trendy that a visit to historical sites becomes popular (Herbert, 1995). Traveling which centers on heritage is called heritage tourism, a tour of special interests in understanding local life styles and history. Tours of this type include activities and trips of knowledge learning or culture experiencing. People enjoy festivals and culture activities, visit monuments, memorial halls, historical heritages, and appreciate the folk arts (Apostolakis, 2003). Due to the wide scope of heritage, the traveling model of heritage tourism keeps expanding its product value and its development cannot
be under-estimated (Prentice, 1993).

Penghu owns numerous tourism resources of culture heritage, such as Penghu Mazu Temple, Twin Heart Stone Weir, Pokua, Pain, Erkan Historical House, Chungshe Historical Houses, and Old Town Wall (Lee & Chen, 2008), among which Erkan Village is a landscape in Magong, Penghu Main Island that tourists are interested in. According to Penghu National Scenic Area Administration (2010), Erkan Village, a must visit spot, has drawn 215,262 people to be their place of interests. Its popularity is only slightly inferior to that of Mazu Temple. The tourism value of Erkan Village, therefore, becomes obvious. Besides, because Erkan has gone through village preservation and culture promotion for a while, this study aims at looking into tourists who choose Erkan Village to serve as their settlement tour in Penghu.

Currently, travelling in Penghu is developing through the public tour pattern, visitors coming and going in a hurry. Taking a quick glance of residential characteristics and activating the business are two present developing conditions of Erkan Village. However, heritage tourism is an activity of experiencing consumption (Chen & Chen, 2010). Herbert (1995) also thinks that heritage tourism is a combination of leisure, recreation and education. Tourists demonstrate interests not in searching historical evidences but in the experience of special imagination, speculation, and exploration. Obviously, the heritage tourism development should emphasize not only on the tourists’ experience but also on the uniqueness of the heritage sites themselves. In order for the tourism improvement and promotion of Erkan Village, this study is intended to hypothesize that experience value, place attachment, revisit willingness are influential factors of heritage tourism. If the findings are supported, it means that tourists to Erkan Village do enjoy the experience, feel place attachment and would pay a second visit. Then practical suggestions will be presented, based on the findings, to promote the heritage tourism development of Erkan Village.

**Literature review.**

**Erkan Village.**

Located in Shiyeu Town, Penghu, Erkan Village is a preserved area on Shiyeu Island. With Magong city to the east, Shidong village to the west, Dashi village to the northwest, Tsima village to the south, Erkan village has surface area of 9400 m². Until March in 2009, according to Penghu local government, there are 64 families, about 163 people with Chen as their surname, residing together in Erkan village. Their ancestors came to stay in Erkan 400 years ago in the late Ming Dynasty from Shashin Township, Jimmen.

In 1989, under the efforts of local civilians, Council for Culture Affairs, Executive Yuan, took over the project and implemented Folk Village plan to continue the village preservation. In 1993, the work was included in six-year national development projects and conservation of old villages started. In 1994, villagers of Erkan learned to plan and set up Erkan Village Association for settlement remodel. In 2001, The Committee of Construction and Planning Agency of Ministry of Interior first made Erkan Village a traditional settlement preservation area. Meanwhile, Erkan Village was also selected to be the one of the historical construction heritages in Taiwan.

Presently, 20 houses have been restored in the village and the house restoring and landscape designing are proceeding. In Erkan, more than 10 ancient houses turn into museums. In 2002, to go with the local folk house promotion
by Council for Culture Affairs, Erkan Village Association and local inhabitants featured “One House, One Museum” for full use of the houses and spaces of community.

Experiential value.

(1) Definition of experiential value.

Lately, experience is viewed as a factor of influencing consumers’ behaviors. On the other hand, value created has evolved from individual viewpoints of a product or service to those of businesses and consumers altogether. The term, experiential value, is an integration of the above viewpoints. Mathwick et al., (2001) defined elaborately that experiential value is the cognition and preference of product attributes and service performance. The value could be enhanced by the interaction in between, and the interaction can either help or hinder consumers’ goal of achieving. In tourism industry, customers’ perception value has been proven to be the key to maintain the competitive advantage (Sanchez, Callarisa, Rodriguez & Moliner, 2004). Therefore, measuring the experiential value can advance tourism by understanding tourists’ special tour interests and cognition.

(2) Theory of experiential value.

Theory of experiential value developed by Mathwick et al. (2001) is derived from eight categories of customer value of Holbrook (1994). The framework is constructed based on three dimensions: Extrinsic versus Intrinsic Value, Self-oriented versus Other-oriented Value, and Active versus Reactive Value. The interaction among three dimensions leads to eight value categories. Mathwick et. al., (2001) only retains the first and last dimensions and has the second one deleted. Ultimately, four value factors are created: consumer return on investment, service excellence, aesthetics and playfulness.

Consumer return on investment means the main extrinsic active value which includes valid financial investment and the potential return of time, behavior and mind. Consumers perceive the quality to experience the return of economic efficiency and the benefits in the transaction (Holbrook, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988).

Service Excellence refers to the extrinsic reactive value. Consumers recognize the service and marketing offered by the industry, and reflect good feedback to the service ability. The main point is the results of a message passed from the service providers to consumers (Holbrook & Corfman, 1985; Holbrook, 1994).

Aesthetics stands for the intrinsic reactive value from a whole sensational response to objects, arts, acting or design, such as a poem or a drama show (Olson, 1981; Veryzer, 1993). The attention is drawn to the design, landscape match, and interior beauty (Holbrook, 1994). Albrecht (1996) thought that one’s sense of beauty comes from the experience of a customer’s inner perception of a product with sense of watching, listening, smelling, object - touching, comfort, heart feeling, beauty sensation, visual feeling of environment and mental atmosphere.

Playfulness is the source of intrinsic active value, reflecting the inner joy of a consumer’s activity participation to temporarily escape from the bonding of the reality (Huizinga, 1955; Unger & Kernan, 1983). The interest in being away from reality is an idea that contains the element of meditation and is based on looking for joy and dodging reality (Huizinga, 1955).

The domestic research in the tourism field applies the theory of experiential value to understand tourists’ perception
after experiencing certain activities and tours Mathwick et. al., (2001). Lee and Chen (2010), for example, measure tourists’ experiential value after their island tours. Tseng (2009) tests the differences of research participants, tourists mainly, with dissimilar personal background. Yang (2009) adopts the cross validity as a method to construct and confirm the experiential value model. All these studies demonstrate that the theory of experiential value is adaptive in tourism industry.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intrinsic value</th>
<th>Extrinsic value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Playfulness</td>
<td>consumer return on investment, CROI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>Service excellence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.** Categories of experiential value


**Place attachment.**

(1) **Definition of place attachment.**

Place attachment is an emotion or a feeling resulting from a combination of an individual and the specific site where he is (Giuliani & Feldman, 1993). Hernández et. al., (2006) argue that it is a sensation linkage between people and a certain location. According to the Human Geography and Environmental Psychology, researchers advocate place attachment comes from visual feeling of landscape which reveals hidden meaning and connection (Altman & Low, 1992). From the viewpoints of user psychology, it is how the users feel about the environment and what the environment symbolizes (Williams et al., 1992). All in all, place attachment means an individual’s attachment to a particular place but demonstrates the sensational function of the specific place for an individual.

(2) **Theory of place attachment.**

General speaking, place attachment includes two constructs: place dependence and place identity. The former is a functional attachment, reflecting the substantial function of the importance of a place (Williams & Patterson, 1999). It is to satisfy users’ goals and needs in a special place, depending on the substantial features of the environment (Stokols & Shumaker, 1981; Williams et. al., 1992). Therefore, it emphasizes a continuous attachment to an environment to meet users’ frequent activity demands. This dimension is more activity-oriented. Tourists’ attachment to a place depends on whether the place can provide good tour condition and convenient tour activities. Except for the attachment of activities, emotional attachment, also called place
recognition, is one of the factors of place attachment as well. It is a sense of recognition of location. People can tell the differences between it and others (Moore & Graefe, 1994). Stedman (2002) points out that place recognition is a sense of belonging after a person’s interaction with specific place. Place recognition represents attitudes, value, thoughts and beliefs, meanings, behavior tendencies and perception of specific places (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000). It stresses the recognition of an individual to a place, distinguishes one place from the other (Lynch, 1960; Moore & Graefe, 1994). Tourists’ feelings toward a place are established on place recognition. They consider the place to be a part of themselves and possess a strong feeling connection and identification.

**Revisiting willingness.**

Revisiting willingness is the actualization of an individual’s behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). It signifies whether tourists are willing to visit a place or a scenic spot once more (Kozak, 2001), and whether customers will purchase particular products or services again (Jones & Sasser, 1995). Generally speaking, to assess revisit willingness, one has to measure willingness of personal intuition and recommendation (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). Many researchers determine tourists’ revisit willingness in this way. For example, Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez (2001) employ two constructs to study consumers’ behaviors: return and recommend. Chi and Qu (2008) adopt return and recommend to be measuring questions. This study will follow the same way to discuss tourists’ revisiting willingness.

**Relationships among variables.**

(1) **The relationship between experiential value and place attachment.**

Past studies (Shen et al., 2008; Chu, 2006) have clarified the relationship between experiential value and place attachment. Place attachment can explain tourists’ preference and recognition of a scenic location through the discussion of variables in the leisure tour behaviors (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Kyle et. al., 2003; Hwang et. al., 2005). Kyle et. al. (2003) thought a specific place would have a symbolic meaning for an individual who accumulates experience in that place. Therefore, tourists after visiting a place will have experiential value which shows their preference and cognition. Accordingly, the first hypothesis is formed as below.

H1: Experiential value has a positive influence on place attachment

(2) **The relationship between experiential value and revisiting willingness.**

At present, experiential value is frequently discussed with constructs like repurchase willingness and loyalty. In the study by Hsu and Lee (2006), they find that experiential value and post-purchase behaviors show significantly positive correlation. Chen et al. (2007) study experiential quality, experiential value, satisfaction and loyalty of tourists to tea plantation. Their findings are that tourists’ experiential value will affect satisfaction, and then their loyalty. Lin (2006), at Formosa Aboriginal Culture Village, conducts a research regarding experiential value, customer satisfaction, and repurchase willingness. She concludes that experiential value with four constructs, consumer return on investment, service excellence, aesthetics and playfulness, has a positive relation with customers’ satisfaction and re-purchase willingness. The above studies do not discuss the influence of experiential value on revisiting willingness, although revisiting
The Influence of Tourists’ Experiential Value on Place Attachment and Revisiting Willingness

M. J. Lee and C. M. Chuang

willingness equals to repurchase willingness (Chang & Huang, 2009) and they are factors needed to measure tourists’ loyalty (Chang & Chong, 2008). Accordingly, the second hypothesis is formed here with an assumption that experiential value will influence revisiting willingness.

H2: Experiential value has a positive influence on revisiting willingness.

(3) The relationship between place attachment and revisiting willingness.

Many studies look into the influence of place attachment on revisiting willingness. In Kenting National Park, a case study is conducted by Tsai et. al., (2008) on the relationship among tourist information, satisfaction, place attachment and revisiting willingness. Results indicate that place attachment of tourists significantly influence their revisit willingness. Chen et. al., (2007) study on leisure farm visitors’ activity involvement, place attachment, and revisiting willingness. They come to a conclusion those leisure farm tourists’ revisiting willingness increase due to their place attachment. Therefore, a third hypothesis is formed as following.

H3: Place attachment has positive influence on revisiting willingness

METHODOLOGY

Research framework.

This study is intended to understand the relationships among place attachment, experiential value and revisiting willingness of visitors of traditional settlement. Factor analysis will be used in the structural equation modeling to construct factors model. The research framework (see fig. 2) is established based on the reviewed literature and formed hypotheses.

Research participants and locations.

Erkan traditional village situated in Shiyue Town, Penghu is the site where the study is conducted on settlement visitors. Questionnaires are distributed by trained interviewers and purpoive sampling is the method to collect data from visitors. On the other hand, due to the environmental and seasonal factors of Penghu, the tourist seasons are from July to September, and the study done has environmental seasonal factors taken into consideration. Questionnaires are distributed from August 21, 2008 to September 8, 2008 of which 448 copies out of 500 given are analyzed after discarding those with incomplete and invalid answers. The return rate is 89.6%.

![Figure 2. Research framework](image-url)
**Research instrument.**

The research instrument in this study is a closed questionnaire composed of four parts: experiential value, place attachment, revisiting willingness and population statistic variables. Experiential value is based on the study of Mathwick et. al. Aiming at measuring experiential value of tourists to Erkan, Penghu on the heritage tourism, it has 19 items from four constructs: consumer return on investment, service excellence, aesthetics and playfulness. Regarding place attachment, Williams and Vaske’s (2003) scale on leisure sites evaluation is adapted to determine the level of tourists’ attachment to Erkan Village. The scale contains 12 items from two constructs: place identity and place dependence. As for revisit willingness, two original items borrowed from Sánchez and Sánchez’s (2001) study is used. Finally, population variables include 12 questions. Ranging from “5-point strongly agrees” to “1-point strongly disagrees,” five-point Likert-scale questions are employed to score participants’ answers.

**Item analysis and reliability analysis.**

Both item analysis and reliability analysis are conducted on the valid return questionnaires to test the scale discriminability and the internal consistency. For item analysis, Chu (2000) points out that the CR value should be over 3 and p-value should be under 0.05 to show the significant difference. For reliability analysis, Cronbach’s $\alpha$ value and items left after deletion are used (Wu, 2006). Nunnally (1978) suggests that if Cronbach’s $\alpha$ reaches over 0.7, the scale is reliable. Chu (2000) thinks a scale, after ineffective items are deleted, should maintain summary coefficient standard over 0.3.

In this study, the item CR value of experiential value scale is between 11.36 and 17.79 with p-value below 0.001. It reaches the significant level. The summary coefficient is between 0.46 and 0.68, Cronbach’s $\alpha$ is 0.919. The item CR value of place attachment scale is between 8.00 and 23.95 with p-value below 0.001. It reaches the significant level. The summary coefficient is between 0.422 and 0.760, Cronbach’s $\alpha$ is 0.905. The item CR value of revisiting willingness scale is 19.2 and 36.14 respectively with p-value below 0.001. It reaches the significant level. The summary coefficient is between 0.74 and Cronbach’s $\alpha$ is 0.850. The testing results indicate that the scales constructed in this study are all qualified and each item achieves discriminability and internal consistency.

**Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).**

Statistic software, LISREL8.80, is used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test experiential value and place attachment models. The first step is testing the indicators of the model. According to Huang (2002), multi-indexes are proper for evaluation, including Absolute Fit Index, Relative Fit Index, and Parsimony Normed Fit Index. Absolute Fit Index contains five indexes, $\chi^2$, df, GFI, SRMR, RMSEA; Relative Fit Index is composed of two indexes, NNFI and CFI; Parsimony Normed Fit Index has two parts, PNFI, $\chi^2$/df. In addition to testing fit index of every model, both reliability and validity of models are tested as well. Anderson and Gerbing (1991) advocate that when t-value of observed variables in a model are above 1.96, it means it has achieved the significant level (p<0.05) and the model shows convergent validity. Huang (2004) points out that when the reliability value of potential variables is above 1.60, the model shows constructive reliability. Below are the results of confirmatory factor analysis of experiential value and place attachment.
The Influence of Tourists’ Experiential Value on Place Attachment and Revisiting Willingness

M. J. Lee and C. M. Chuang

Table 1. Fitness index of models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fitness Index</th>
<th>χ²</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>NNFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>PNFI</th>
<th>χ²/df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experiential value</td>
<td>366.87</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.048</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place attachment</td>
<td>31.81</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.057</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>2.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Threshold value

The smaller, the better  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>χ²/df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.0-5.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Summary of validity and reliability of experiential value, place attachment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed variable/ potential variable</th>
<th>S.C</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>S.E</th>
<th>C.R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Consumer return on investment</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The schedule of this activity is well-managed.</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The leisure plan of the activity is what I expect.</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>10.83</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The tour to Erkan Village is worthy of the expenses.</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>11.77</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. In general, I am satisfied with the price of Erkan Village.</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>11.52</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I think products sold at Erkan Village are worthless and far below my expectation.</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>9.83</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service excellence</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Thoughts of Erkan Village are associated with excellent service.</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I think tourism products provided at Erkan Village are very professional.</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>11.51</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Places of interests at Erkan Village are attractive.</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Places of interests at Erkan Village are attractive aesthetically.</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>14.39</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I like the landscape arrangement of Erkan Village.</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>14.96</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I think Erkan Village activities are very interesting.</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>14.31</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I like the atmosphere of Erkan Village.</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>14.97</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Erkan Village not only sells products but also is pleasant.</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>14.78</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>2.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P.s. S.C: standardized coefficient; S.E: standardized error.

(1) Fitness measure converge.

Both experiential value and place attachment converge to models of a second-order factor. However, these two models do not reveal good fit measures and have to be modified. The modification indexes show they are now standardized and present good-of-fit (see table 1).

(2) Convergent validity and constructive reliability.

The modified models of experiential value and place attachment are acceptable after going through the test of convergent validity and constructive reliability. Standardized coefficient lies between 0.59 and 0.77, with t-value over 1.96. The constructive reliability of potential variables is 0.80, 0.72, 0.87, and 0.75. As for place attachment, standardized coefficient lies between 0.64 and 0.84, with t-value over 1.96. The constructive reliability of potential variables is 0.80, 0.83. Both models after modification are reliable.
Table 3. Summary of validity and reliability of place attachment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed variable/ potential variable</th>
<th>S.C</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>S.E</th>
<th>C.R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place dependence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Erkan Village is the best place to do what I like.</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>----</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Erkan Village means more to me that other places I have ever visited.</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>13.67</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Activities at Erkan Village are more important than that elsewhere.</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>13.70</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place identity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Erkan Village is a place that I strongly identify with.</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>----</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I have a strong attachment to Erkan Settlement.</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>12.05</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Visiting Erkan Village is a way to show my personality.</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>13.50</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Erkan Village means significantly to me.</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>14.05</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P.s. S.C: standardized coefficient; S.E: standardized error.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Sample analysis.

An analysis of the effective samples indicates the results: male participants (52.2%), age ranging from 20 to 29 (45.3%), mostly single (65%), working in business, industry, and humanity fields, with college degrees (46.2%), average monthly salary under 10,000 dollars (24.3%), and residing in northern areas (38.2%).

Tourists receive tour information from travel agency (31.7%), stay mostly half a day (81.3%), and spend less than 1,000 dollars (70.3%). Their tourist companions are mostly friends and colleagues (46%), then family members (39.5%). They visit Erkan Village by tour buses (44%), due to the fact that most visitors are tourist companions.

Model fitness test.

After the Measurement Model test, experiential value and place attachment will move to the construction and test of Causal Model. Before forming any hypotheses, the model fit test should be completed. The study will first construct the Casual Model of experiential value, place attachment, and revisiting willingness. The fit index RMSEA is 0.095, which is above the standard value, 0.08, suggested in Huang (2004). Therefore, the model is modified, reset the fit index, and release parameters three times. The RMSEA now changes to 0.063, and other index also meets the standard (see table 4). The Model is then built to start the Casual Test.

Table 4. Modified models fitness index

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fitness index</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>NNFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>PNFI</th>
<th>$\chi^2$/df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Casual Model</td>
<td>41.92</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>2.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold value</td>
<td>The smaller, the better</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>≥0.05</td>
<td>≤0.08</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>≥0.90</td>
<td>≥0.05</td>
<td>1.0-5.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypotheses test.

Table 5 is a summary of the study results. It reveals standardized regressive coefficient of experiential value to place attachment ($\gamma_1$ is 0.66 and t-value is over 1.96). The result shows it reaches the significant level (p<0.05). Therefore, H1 is confirmed that experiential value has positive influence on place attachment. Regarding H2, the finding reveals standardized regressive coefficient of experiential value to revisiting willingness ($\gamma_2$ is 0.80 and t-value is over 1.96). The result shows it achieves the significant level (p<0.05). H2 is also confirmed that experiential value has positive influence on revisiting willingness as well. Finally, for H3, shows standardized regressive coefficient of place attachment to revisiting willingness ($\beta_1$ is 0.05 and t-value 0.94 is below 1.96). The result shows it does not reach the significant level. H3 is not confirmed. Thus, place attachment has little influence on revisiting willingness. Figure 3 is the casual model chart of this study.

Table 5. Hypothesized structure model path coefficients and hypothesis test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Path relation</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Test result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_1$</td>
<td>Experiential value $\rightarrow$ Place attachment</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>13.24</td>
<td>H1</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma_2$</td>
<td>Experiential value $\rightarrow$ Revisit willingness</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>12.35</td>
<td>H2</td>
<td>confirmed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta_1$</td>
<td>Place attachment $\rightarrow$ Revisit willingness</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>H3</td>
<td>Not confirmed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. The overall pattern of path analysis and standardized coefficients
Discussion.

Parameter estimates of the study make it obvious that experiential value influences revisiting willingness positively. Therefore, after a visit to Erkan Village, tourists with higher experiential value are willing to visit Erkan Settlement again. The finding is similar to those found in the studies by Hsu and Lee (2006), Chen et al. (2007), and Lin (2006). On the other hand, experiential value also has positive impact on place attachment. It means that the experiential value of tourists to Erkan helps enhance their place attachment. The two paths, from experiential value to place attachment ($\gamma_1$) and to revisiting willingness ($\gamma_2$) propose that experiential value can predict 44% (0.66 x 0.66) of the place attachment and predict 64% (0.80 x 0.80) of revisiting willingness. The influence of experiential value on place attachment and revisiting willingness is obvious, although the latter is affected more. The possible reason for the result may be due to the local government’s tourism operation, the public pattern tourism, where tourists are arriving and leaving hurriedly. They may be able to experience activities provided at Erkan Village, but they are unable to deeply understand the true meaning of activities. Consequently, their visit does not make them want to come back or recommend others to come. It is because their place attachment to Erkan is low.

The path analysis for place attachment to revisiting willingness ($\beta_1$) indicates that place attachment has no influence on revisit willingness since t-value (0.94) is below 1.96 to reach the significant level. It means that Erkan Village cannot provide tourists with high place attachment to increase their revisiting willingness. The finding here is different from that of studies by Tsai et. al. (2008) and Chen et. al. (2007). The two studies present the positive influence of place attachment on revisiting willingness. According to the statistic in this study, the mean of place attachment is 3.30, in a medium position of 5-point scale. The number tells that tourists in Erkan do not have strong place attachment after their visit. This may be the reason that place attachment has no influence on the revisiting willingness. Moreover, the reason of low place attachment is that tourists’ experiential value is not strong enough to cause any influence on place attachment.

A look at the model as a whole, shows experiential value has little influence on place attachment. It indirectly causes the low revisiting willingness. On contrary, experiential value can directly increase tourists’ revisiting willingness. Therefore, experiential value is the driver of place attachment. This means that heritage tourism is about activities which emphasizes experience. The inference is the similar to Chen and Chen’s (2010) viewpoint. Moreover, it is also found that among the four constructs of experiential value, the top two standardized coefficients are 0.85 for aesthetics and 0.81 for playfulness. The two constructs represent the main components of experiential value. Therefore, Erkan Village is superior in aesthetics and playfulness. In the future, if the service and consumer investment return are strengthened, tourists’ experiential value will be more complete.

Finally, in modifying the model, service excellence, one of constructs of experiential value and constructs of place attachment, place identity and place dependence have the same errors. Hence, service excellence and place dependence are related. The theory in between can be the future research focus.
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions.

This study is intended to discuss the relationship among activities involvement, experiential value, and revisiting willingness of tourists to Erkan Village in Shiyeu, Penghu. It then attempts to construct the casual relationship among them. The conclusions are as following.

(1) The positive influence of Erkan Village tourists’ experiential value on place attachment implies that the higher experiential value of tourists, the higher their place attachment.

(2) The positive influence of Erkan Village tourists’ experiential value on revisiting willingness implies that the higher experiential value of tourists, the higher their revisiting willingness.

(3) The weak influence of Erkan Village tourists’ place attachment on revisiting willingness implies that tourists’ place attachment cannot increase their revisiting willingness.

Recommendations.

Based on the research conclusion, the following are recommendations to the practicality and academics.

(1) Diversify experiential activities. Results indicate experiential value is the antecedent which influences revisiting willingness so that more scenic spots and diversified activities should be added. It is recommended here that Erkan Village should take advantage of features of settlement to truly illustrate the rarely seen settlement of single surname, Chinese herb store, Pokua and ancient residential houses with specialties. Therefore, visitors will be totally attracted by the reminiscence atmosphere to increase their experiential value and to perceive the essence of Erkan Village. Once they are willing to explore Erkan Village, they probably will revisit the place and recommend others to pay a visit as well.

(2) Strengthen the development of sophisticated tourism. Village should not be only a place for taking a walk or purchasing souvenirs. Erkan Village should develop more sophisticated tourism such as strengthening interpretation service to allow visitors to have a deeper appreciation of Erkan Village. Meanwhile, effective environmental interpretation can change visitors’ behaviors, awake their emotion toward settlement. Other alternatives to enhance visitors’ place attachment are that have local residents act as interpreters, offer life experiential courses or set up a data base of Erkan Village for those who want to learn more about Erkan Village and cultivate special feelings toward it.

(3) Conduct a whole-year-round research. The study only sample tourists from July to September, during which are tour seasons in Penghu. Although weather factors of Penghu make the year-round tourism promotion impossible, off-season tourism is still worth attentions of researchers. A recommendation made here is that expanding the sampling time to a whole year may change the research results.

(4) Duplicate the same research in other similar tourism locations. This study is a case study, centering on Erkan Village, in Shiyeu, Penghu. The same research can be reproduced in other tourism interests of Penghu, like Du-Shing 10th Village, the most ancient housing of military dependents. It is suggested that the same research is reproduced in heritage sites of many kinds both domestically and internationally to make a distinction.
(5) Repeat the study on experiential value, place attachment, and revisiting willingness. The casual relationship constructed in this study has never been discussed in past studies. Therefore, retesting the three hypotheses is strongly recommended. Moreover, why do the potential variables of experiential value share the same error with constructs of place attachment? The answer can be traced by investigating the tourists’ place attachment which is suspected to be influenced by the various services provided at places of interests.

Acknowledgement

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THE ENCOURAGING FACTORS FOR SENIOR CITIZEN OF CHINESE ADVANCED CITIES TO MOVE TO SENIOR RESIDENTIAL HOTEL

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ABSTRACT

The combination of the increase in life expectancy of Chinese people (Yi & Vaupel, 1989) and the birth control policy (Chesnais & Wang, 1990) contribute to the change in the age structure of Chinese population. Due to this change, the demand for senior residential hotel (SRH) continuously increases. Furthermore, Chinese people have been bonded by the traditional norms of filial piety (Zhan & Montgomery, 2003), but now are gaining acceptance for institutional eldercare (Zhan, Liu, & Bai, 2005). The facts discussed above guide to the motive behind this study, which aims to understand the encouraging factors for stay in an SRH.

Key words: Senior residential hotel, institutional eldercare, encouraging factors

INTRODUCTION

For a long time, Chinese people had been bonded by the traditional norms of filial piety (Zhan & Montgomery, 2003) and believed that eldercare is the sole responsibility of the children. Due to the increase in life expectancy (Yi & Vaupel, 1989) and the birth control policy (Chesnais & Wang, 1990), Chinese population structure has now become a 4:2:1 ratio. The ratio denotes that one adult child is responsible for caring two parents and four grandparents. The reverse pyramid structure is a heavy burden for adult children who might soon have a child of their own. The increase in the disposable income (Hsu, Cai, & Wong, 2007) and implementation of health care program (Lloyd-Sherlock, 2000) give Chinese senior citizens an alternative choice, which is an institutional eldercare.

This study is interested in understanding the encouraging factors that drive senior citizens of Chinese advanced cities to stay in senior residential hotel (SRH). Furthermore, the study attempts to investigate whether respondents’ socio-demographic profiles affect their reason for staying in the SRH. The result of the study provides the authority a better understanding of eldercare issues and helps some hotels to transform themselves into SRH.
Literature review.

Definition of elder or senior citizen.

The definition of senior citizen can be vary depending on the purpose of the definition, but usually refers to an individual who reaches an age of retirement or eligible for elderly benefits (Wikipedia, 2010). In most developed countries, the qualified age for retirement is about 65 years old and thus accepted by researchers (e.g. Scudds & Robertson, 2000; Sun & Morrison, 2007) as a definition of senior citizen, while some researchers (e.g. Dimopoulos, et. al., 2007) use 60 years old as the definition.

Background of Chinese population structure.

The implementation of one-child birth control policy in China leads to rapid growth in its elderly population (Yang, 1988), which consequently changes the composition of Chinese household to smaller and nuclear family (Zhan & Montgomery, 2003). Due to the fact that females have longer life expectancy (Malcovati, et. al., 2005) and the fact that it is more likely for an older male to marry a younger female (Oppenheimer, 1988), there are more widows than widowers in most countries (e.g. in USA., Dubois & Crouch, 2008). These facts have contributed to the fact that China is now a country with both the largest population and the largest number of elderly people, and the elderly population is estimated to increase to 270 million by the year 2050 (Olshansky, Carnes, & Cassel, 1993). Meanwhile, Chinese economic capability is not growing fast enough to keep up with the aging population (Feng, 2004).

The Chinese family structure is now at a 4:2:1 ratio stage which denotes that one adult child is responsible for caring for two parents and four grandparents. The tremendous burden often exacerbates family relationship (Johnson & Bursk, 1977). As a result, Chinese people have been gaining acceptance for institutional eldercare. The concept of intimacy from a distance (Laslett & Wall, 1977) is now a preferred relationship for modern adult child and their elderly parents.

Although the demand and acceptance for institutional eldercare is growing, the number of eldercare facilities is no way near adequate (Chu & Chi, 2008). Due to the fact that most Chinese populations are concentrated in metropolis cities, the problem of inadequate eldercare is much more severe in cities such as Beijing. The local news indicate that by the end of 2007, there are 2.43 million people over the age of 60 years old living in Beijing account for 14.9% of its total population. There are, however, only 336 registered eldercare institutions and a total of 39,994 beds in Beijing (Lai, 2009). The inadequacy of eldercare in Beijing makes it an ideal subject for the study.

Encouraging factors for stay in SRH.

The aim of this study is to understand the encouraging factors that motivate an individual to stay in the SRH. An individual’s choice of consumption is often influenced by his/her culture, social, personal, and psychological characteristics (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 2003). Therefore, it is logical for the study to postulate that the respondents’ socio-demographic profiles affect their encouraging factors for stay in the SRH. Furthermore, due to the objective of the study, it is important to examine the composition of the encouraging factors. The concept of buyer’s decision-making process (Mathieson & Wall, 1982) suggests that an individual is prompted by his/her need to search for a specific product or service to satisfy that need.
Hence, the first step towards the understanding of the encouraging factors is to understand the need to stay in the SRH.

As stated before, the traditional norm of filial piety is often a deterrent for adult children to send their parents to an institutional eldercare. As the result, Chinese people’s willingness to stay in SRH is relatively low. The people only choose SRH due to certain medical problems such as cardiovascular, neurological and skeletal muscular diseases that require professional medical care (Tinker, 2001). Furthermore, institutional eldercare is a way to improve family relationship by alleviating the burden of adult children (Laslett & Wall, 1977) and preserving the elder’s dignity (Bode, 2005; Rein, 1991).

Given the reason for choosing institutional eldercare, it is not difficult to surmise the type of services the elders are seeking. The very first need for eldercare is perhaps daily life assistance, such as cleaning and washing clothes. Some elders may desire physical exercise with professional assistance for rehabilitation or to maintain their healthiness (Bodenheimer, 1999). The desire for education is also a need for elders for it is suggested that learning is therapeutic in slowing intellectual decline (Kiel, 2005). Furthermore, institutional eldercare provides an opportunity for elders to interact with people of their own generation (Ajrouch, 2005). Researchers stated that the need for socialization is particularly great with widows for it leads to certain psychological loss (Teo & Mehta, 2001). Adult children also play a minor role in the decision-making process for stay in SRH (Mutchler & Burr, 1991), while financial resources and health issue remain the main determinants.

**METHODOLOGY**

**Research framework and hypotheses.**

Based on the literature review, the study hypothesized (H1) that respondents’ socio-demographic profiles influence their level of encouraging factors for stay in SRH. The proposed relationship is presented in Figure 1 below.

![Figure 1. Research framework](image)

**Sampling method.**

The study focus on Beijing, thus Beijing Sun City International Aged Apartment (Sun City) was chosen as the site for the survey. The customers of Sun City are mostly above 60 years old, which is an acceptable age for the definition of senior citizen. Given the relative deteriorate health conditions, the elders tend to be reluctant to participate in the survey. Therefore, the study is forced to use structure personal interview as a means to obtain sufficient number of
responses. The study collected 220 valid responses.

**Questionnaire design.**

The questionnaire is comprised of two sections: (1) socio-demographic profiles, and (2) the encouraging factors. The first section of the questionnaire is designed to collect personal information of the respondents. The second section of the questionnaire contains questions regarding the encouraging factors that motivate the respondents to stay in the SRH. This section of questions is in the form of 5 point Likert scale where 1 denotes that the respondents is not encouraged by the factor and 5 denotes the contrary.

**Data analyses.**

**Data reliability and sample characteristics.**

The study uses Cronbach $\alpha$ to evaluate the data reliability, in which the value is equal to 0.802. Past studies generally accept 0.7 or higher as adequate level of reliability (e.g. Failde & Ramos, 2000; Itzkovich, et al., 2007), and the result of this study is clearly exceeding that figure.

The sample consists of 128 females and 92 males, which is consistent with the past studies indicating that there are more females utilizing eldercare services (Lookinland & Anson, 1995). There are 42 respondents below 65 years old, 54 respondents between 65-69 years old, 50 respondents between 70-74 years old, 34 respondents between 75-80 years old, and 40 respondents above 80 years old. Most of the respondents are local Beijing citizens (172) while 12 respondents from He Bei province (other cities surrounding Beijing) and 16 respondents from other places. There are 192 married respondents and 28 divorced/deceased (DD). Most of the respondents are highly educated with 136 university graduates and 6 Master degree holders. All the respondents have children. In terms of main financial source, 94 respondents live on their pension, 36 respondents relied on children to support, 52 respondents have investments, and 38 respondents still hold salary. In terms of monthly disposable money, 94 respondents have RMB1000-2000, 72 respondents have RMB2001-3500, 36 respondents have RMB3501-5000, 14 respondents have RMB5001-7000, and only 4 respondents have more than RMB7000. Given the history of the culture revolution in China, it is not surprising that 162 respondents hold no religion. In terms of health status, 76 respondents are healthy, 102 respondents are fairly healthy, and 22 respondents exhibit mild problem with their mobility.

**Encouraging factors for stay in SRH.**

This section of analysis examines the level of the encouraging factors where the result is shown in Table 1. Given that the questions are in the form of 5 point Likert scale, a mean score of 3 or above denotes at least moderate level and 4 denotes high level of encouragement. The result in Table 1 indicates that there are four items score meaning higher than 4, which are “emergency system,” “provide daily meals,” “hotel quality service,” and “cleanliness of the environment.” Amongst the items, one is associated with health care, and two are associated with daily life assistance. Some of the encouraging factors with the lowest mean scores are “Children absent,” “comfortable environment,” and “spouse deceased.” Two of the factors are associated with absence of family members. The result is similar to the study of Mutchler and Burr (1991) who suggests that adult child only moderately affect elders’ decision for selecting institutional eldercare.
Table 1: Encouraging factors for stay in SRH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emergency system</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide daily meals</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel quality service</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the environment</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet friends</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete facilities</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving dignity</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice view</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversify community activity</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open spaces</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children absent</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse deceased</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis testing.

This part of analyses is to test the research hypothesis, which suggests that the socio-demographic profiles of the respondents affect their encouraging factors for stay in the SRH. The analyses were commenced with ANOVA and independent sample t-test.

Gender vs. encouraging factors.

Table 2 is an independent sample t-test commenced to test the relationship between gender and encouraging factors. The result indicates that there are only three factors that are significantly affected by the respondents’ age. Two of the factors are associated with the absence of respondents’ family members. Male respondents are more likely to choose SRH due to “children absent,” while females are more likely to stay in SRH for “spouse deceased.” The results correspond to the past study (Lookinland & Anson, 1995) indicating females utilize more institutional eldercare.

Age vs. encouraging factors.

The respondents who are over 80 years old are more likely to be encouraged by “children absent” to stay in SRH (mean=4.15) while respondents between 65-69 years old are less likely encouraged (mean=3.33). On the other hand, respondents between 65-69 years old are more likely to be encouraged by “providing daily meals” (mean=4.52). Generally speaking, group B (65-69 years old) tends to score higher means than the other age groups in most items except for the items “children absent” and “spouse deceased” though the later item shows no statistical differences. Given that 65 years old is a defined age for retirement and eligible for government healthcare, it is not surprising that respondents in this age group show higher level of tendency in choosing SRH. Respondents’ level of encouragement started to decline once they reach 70 years old with only few exceptions such as “children absent.”
### Table 2: Gender vs. encouraging factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children absent</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency system</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide daily meals</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>-1.59</td>
<td>.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice view</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>-.55</td>
<td>.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel quality service</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the environment</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete facilities</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>-1.45</td>
<td>.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversify community activity</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet friends</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>-.39</td>
<td>.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving dignity</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>-.77</td>
<td>.440</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open spaces</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse deceased</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>-2.33</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| No. of respondents | 92 | 128 |

### Table 3: Age vs. encouraging factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>A 60~64</th>
<th>B 65~69</th>
<th>C 70~74</th>
<th>D 75~80</th>
<th>E 80†</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tukey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children absent</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>13.70</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>E&gt;all;AD&gt;B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency system</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.294</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide daily meals</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>7.96</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>B&gt;all;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice view</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>15.66</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>all&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel quality service</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>20.47</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>B&gt;all;AC&gt;D;C&gt;E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the environment</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>11.14</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>B&gt;all;A&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete facilities</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>17.57</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>all&gt;E;BC&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversify community activity</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>12.92</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>all&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet friends</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>8.37</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>B&gt;CDE;A&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving dignity</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>7.82</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>B&gt;CDE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>10.91</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>A&gt;DE;B&gt;CDE;C&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open spaces</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>9.46</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>B&gt;CDE;A&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse deceased</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.411</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>10.93</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>AB&gt;DE;C&gt;D</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| No. of respondents | 42 | 54 | 50 | 34 | 40 |
Table 4: Material status vs. encouraging factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Married</th>
<th>DD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children absent</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.491</td>
<td>.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency system</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>3.265</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide daily meals</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>4.889</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice view</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.777</td>
<td>.076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel quality service</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>4.401</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the environment</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>4.334</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete facilities</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.860</td>
<td>.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversify community activity</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>6.136</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet friends</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>4.002</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving dignity</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>5.732</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>2.977</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open spaces</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.843</td>
<td>.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse deceased</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>-1.313</td>
<td>.190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>4.486</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of respondents</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>106</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Material status and encouraging factors.**

Table 4 is the result of independent sample t-test commenced to examine the relationship between material status and the encouraging factors. There are five items exceeding p value greater than 0.05 denoting no significant differences. All other items were found with significant differences with married respondents scoring higher means than DD respondents. The only item that is in contrary is “spouse deceased” where DD respondents score higher mean, which is understandable (not significant). Contrary to common beliefs, respondents with companion are still willing to submit themselves to institutional healthcare. This fact might potentially indicate that the respondents’ choice to stay in SRH is not due to necessity but desire.

**Social and financial status and encouraging factors.**

Table 5 is the result of independent sample t-test commenced to examine the relationship between social and financial status and the encouraging factors. The social and financial status of the respondents was calculated using their monthly disposable money, levels of education, and financial source, which divided the respondents into four groups: (1) low, (2) middle, (3) high, and (4) extremely high status. The idea is that people with higher social and financial status are more resourceful and thus possess more choices. Therefore, the encouraging factors of people of different status should be different. The result indicates that only six items were found with significant differences. In terms of “children absent,” respondents with lower status tend to score higher means. For items “provide daily meals,” “nice view,” “complete facilities,” “good reputation,” and “comfortable environment,” group C (high status) tend to score higher means than other groups. Group D (extremely high status) often scores the lowest means for most items. The fact that respondents with high social and financial status are more encouraged to stay in the SRH indicates that Sun City is a desirable eldercare facility.
Table 5: Social and financial status vs. encouraging factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>A:low</th>
<th>B:mid</th>
<th>C:high</th>
<th>D:exe</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Tukey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children absent</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>10.804</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>all&gt;D;A&gt;C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency system</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>1.859</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide daily meals</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>7.553</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>BC&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice view</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>13.052</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>C=all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel quality service</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>1.110</td>
<td>.345</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the environment</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>.941</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete facilities</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>6.094</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>C&gt;BD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversify community activity</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.769</td>
<td>.512</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet friends</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.453</td>
<td>.716</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving dignity</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.742</td>
<td>.158</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>3.392</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>C&gt;B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open spaces</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>2.293</td>
<td>.077</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse deceased</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>2.208</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>7.937</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>all&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of respondents</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy</th>
<th>.800</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bartlett's Test of Sphericity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approx. Chi-Square</td>
<td>2257.859</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Factor analysis.

The study used factor analysis to reduce 14 encouraging factors into few underlying factors, which should help to understand better the composition of encouraging factors. Before factor analysis can be commenced, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity must be examined. As indicated in Table 6, the KMO value is 0.8 and the Bartlett's test is significant at p<0.000, which is considered to be adequate for running factor analysis (Norusis, 1990).

Result of factor analysis as shown in Table 7 adopts Varimax and uses Eigen-values greater than 1 as an indicator for extracting factors, which result in four factors. Hair et. al., (1995) suggests that factor loading above 0.5 is an indicator for grouping factors, but some accept 0.4 (e.g. Lee, Song, & Mjelde, 2008).
Table 7: Factor analysis of encouraging factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hotel quality service</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide daily meals</td>
<td>.714</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfortable environment</td>
<td>.712</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of the environment</td>
<td>.647</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice view</td>
<td>.608</td>
<td>.401</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete facilities</td>
<td>.601</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet friends</td>
<td></td>
<td>.842</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversify community activity</td>
<td></td>
<td>.815</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good reputation</td>
<td>.418</td>
<td>.586</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preserving dignity</td>
<td>.550</td>
<td>-.438</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children absent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.641</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emergency system</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.618</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open spaces</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.554</td>
<td>-.559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse deceased</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigenvalues</td>
<td>4.925</td>
<td>1.527</td>
<td>1.211</td>
<td>1.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of variance explained</td>
<td>35.177</td>
<td>10.906</td>
<td>8.653</td>
<td>7.978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accumulate % of variance explained</td>
<td>35.177</td>
<td>46.083</td>
<td>54.736</td>
<td>62.714</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in the table, the four factors explain 62.714% of the variance of the original 14 items. The first factor comprised of six items and the factor loadings range from .601 to .765. The factor loading varied relatively little suggesting that the items in factor one is fairly cohesive. The first two items are associated with eldercare services, and the later four items are associated with environment.

The second factor consists of four items and the factor loadings range from .550 to .842. The factor loadings are greatly different suggesting that this factor can be further divided into two sub-factors. The first two items are associated with socializing, and the later two items are associated with prestige. One can argue that prestige is one’s status perceived by the public, which is related to socialization.

The third factor consists of three items and the factor loading ranged from .559 to .641. The factor loading of the item “open spaces” is negative (-.559) suggesting that this factor is in complete contrast with the other two items.

The final factor only comprised of one item “spouse deceased.” The study attempts other form of extraction method such as maximum likelihood, but this item always isolates itself from the other items.

Based on the above discussion, the study concludes that the 14 items cannot be neatly factored. For example, one can argue that factor one and two both comprised of two themes. Factor three on the other hand; consist of three items that are semantically distinct from each other. The entangled factor result is not an uncommon finding. Therefore, the study will try to assign each factor with proper
names, which are: (1) service and environment, (2) socialization and self esteem, (3) emergency care, and (4) spouse deceased.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The result of the study indicates that age and material status are the more valid predictors for the respondents’ encouraging factors. In general, respondents who just reach 65 years old tend to score higher means for encouraging factors than other age groups. Furthermore, female respondents are more encouraged than respondents with divorced/deceased spouse. This result eradicates the common belief that people only chose institutional eldercare because they are lonely. As suggested before, many respondents choose SRH out of desire not necessity. This fact is evidence that the general public is starting to gain acceptance for institutional eldercare. Based on the above discussion, the study can conclude that hypothesis H1 is partially accurate.

The result of the study is showing some consistency with the past studies, as well as some differences. In terms of similarities, the result indicates that there are more female respondents than males. Also in consistent with the past study is that “children” only play a small part in the decision making of the elders regarding staying in SRH. In terms of differences, married respondents are more willing to choose SRH than the respondents without companion. Furthermore, respondents’ social and financial status only affects respondents’ choice to stay in SRH moderately. The fact is presumably because the respondents in Sun City are of similar social and financial status.

An interesting fact worth mentioning is that spouse and children are considered different encouraging factors. In theory, one will assume that family member should affect the respondents in a similar manner. The result, however, suggests that children and spouse affect respondents’ choice in different ways.

In general, offering daily life assistance is the main reason for the respondents to stay in SRH. Secondary reasons include socializing opportunity and good environment. As noted before, the respondents chose Sun City out of desire. Both facts led to a conclusion that the respondents choose not to trouble themselves with mundane household work. Healthcare is also an important determinant, but other factors are relatively unimportant compared to the above.

Further research.

The study focused on push factor that encourages elders to stay in eldercare institution, but does not have the opportunity to explore pull aspect of factors. Future study can incorporate the concept of push and pull factors, which should provide more complete view of the respondents’ psychometric attributes. Surveying more than one eldercare institution is a good way to initiate a comparative study. However, interviewing elders is not an easy task for their health condition makes them a bit grumpy. Providing a gift for the participants may be a good incentive for elders to agree to the interview. Given the difficulty of interviewing elders, the study can only afford to survey one site which became a limitation for the study.

REFERENCES

The Encouraging Factors for Senior Citizen of Chinese Advanced Cities to Move to Senior Residential Hotel

T. S. Weng


BRANDING DESTINATION EVENTS – THE CASE OF YILAN INTERNATIONAL CHILDREN’S FOLKLORE AND FOLKGAME FESTIVAL

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ABSTRACT

Events have long been recognized as important contributors to destination image. There is also growing agreement among scholars on their significance on destination branding which has received considerable interest due to increasing competition in global tourism market. However, to the best of our knowledge, existing studies on events image have yet to be extended to the realm of destination branding, particularly in context of events branding. Adopting themes raised by Jago et al. on destination branding, this study serves as an exploratory study to identify the characteristics necessary for branding destination events using the case of Yilan International Children’s Folklore and Folkgame Festival. Further, the relationships between events images and destination events branding were verified. Both in-depth interviews and questionnaire survey were utilized to obtain data. A total of 230 usable questionnaires were retained and analyzed using Lisrel 8.54 software to confirm the underlying factors of destination events branding and their relationships with events image. The findings indicate the construct of destination events branding as 3-dimentional: unique, tradition and planning. Visitors perceiving the event more positively also demonstrate more favorable event brand towards the hosting destination.

Key Words:  Events image, destination events brand, special events

INTRODUCTION

Events have received a great deal of attention throughout the world. According to IFEA (2006), there are around 1 million regularly reoccurring events staged each year. To advance our understanding of the various issues on events, a commonly referred definition was proposed. Getz (1997) defined special events as “an opportunity for a leisure, social, or cultural experience outside the normal range of choices or beyond everyday experience”. Allen, O’Toole, Mc-Donnell & Harris (2002) further argued that special events include programs which are consciously planned and created to celebrate special occasions or to achieve particular goals.
The spectacular growth in the number and diversity of planned events is attributed to the numerous benefits they stimulate, including economic development, cultural demonstration/experiences, the exchange of ideas, and place repositioning (Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis, & Mules, 2000; Getz, 1997). Prentice and Andersen (2003) indicated events as one of the most powerful tools to promote a place, increase tourism, shape image and help build destination brands. This is illustrative by the Edinburgh Festivals, which have attracted large number of visitors to Scotland, brought in over US$235 millions of dollars in combined economic benefits, and successfully positioned it as the “Festival City.” Indeed, through destination branding, a destination can attract more tourists, be easily differentiated from its competitors, build loyal customer base and add value to stakeholder relationships (Park & Petrick, 2006). As a result, the destination with a strong brand would possess long-term attraction and receive solid support from customers since it identifies what they are experiencing. Following this stream, many cities have sought to use events to attract more visitors and better position themselves, hoping to make their city (as a destination) more competitive. Some of their efforts, however, have not been accompanied with successful destination branding. The challenge lies with the ways in which events help to brand a destination (Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules & Ali, 2003).

Branding a destination, unlike other tangible products, is involved in the complexity of uncertainty due to its intangible feature, various destination stakeholders with different interests, and complicated visitors’ decision making process. These issues make it more difficult to be executed successfully. Therefore, how destination marketing is actually implemented needs to be identified, thereby forming or strengthening the destination’s brand. Berry (2000) suggested that brand’s “meaning” which customers derived from their experiences is more important in service settings than the initially recognized brand attributes. When applied to the tourism industry, visitors’ mental construct towards the place or the events can have a major influence on their destination choice, and that suggests the significance of destination or events images in motivating visitors and meeting their needs.

Compared with literature on product or service branding, destination branding represents a relatively new research issue in tourism. Although it has been viewed as a potent marketing strategy facing the intensifying competition among a range of tourist destinations, few examinations have been undertaken into the processes of destination branding efforts. As Lee, Cai & O’Leary (2006) pointed out, the need for more research on destination branding is critical in terms of the conceptualization as to what it entails and the processes of transferring principles into practical marketing activity in tourism settings. This study expands an existing framework by Cai (2002) and integrates it with the findings from Jago et al., (2003) in an attempt to identify the elements necessary for destination events branding and provide a possible approach to the measurement of destination events branding. Visitors participating at the Yilan International Children’s Folklore and Folkgame Festival were investigated with respect to their images and events branding. Two objectives are proposed:

1. Identify the essential elements for branding destination events.
2. Verify the impact of events images to destination events branding.
Destination image and events image.

Destination image is generally defined as “a set or sum of beliefs, ideas, and impression that people have of a place or object (events)” (Crompton, 1979, p. 18.). It is considered a significant factor influencing tourist behaviors, such as destination choice (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991), satisfaction (Hung, Schneider, & Gartner, 2006), and future intentions to revisit and recommend (Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2005). Previous studies have indicated that one of the major reasons for staging an event is to improve the image of a destination (Backman, Backman, Uysal, & Sunshine, 1995; Hall, 1992; Pugh & Wood, 2004; Boo & Busser, 2006). Besides, events may also be perceived as major attractions of some destinations, such as Edinburgh Festivals for Edinburgh, International Horti Fair for Amsterdam, etc. (Kaplanidou, 2007). These events have successfully promoted destination’s image and become destination’s hallmark. Given this, events image could consist of similar components to those of the destination’s image. Specifically, individuals holding positive images of an event before attending it would perceive their onsite experiences favorably, that consecutively would lead to future intention to revisit and willingness to recommend. In a state of high competition among events, the images held by visitors in minds must be identified to ensure efficient destination marketing efforts.

Destination branding.

Keller (2003) defined branding as “a product, but one that adds other dimensions that differentiate it in some way from other products designed to satisfy the same need.” Specifically, branding has to do with developing an emotional connection with consumers through creating unique characteristics or favorable image. Based on this definition, the core for destination branding is to develop an emotional link with tourists (Park & Petrick, 2006). However, a lack of consistency in defining what constitutes destination branding is evident (Park & Petrick, 2006; Tasci & Kozak, 2006). According to Cai (2002), destination branding is “selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it (a destination) through positive image building,” which is a relatively new research issue in tourism, compared to product or service branding.

To date, the definition proposed by Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005) has received the most attention. Destination branding is defined as “the set of marketing activities that (1) support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that readily identifies and differentiates a destination; that (2) consistently convey the expectation of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; that (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and that (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk.” (p. 337). These activities further create a favorable destination image that positively influences consumer destination choice and the transfer process of positive images to a destination is considered the core for destination branding.

Events image and destination events branding.

Although events image represents a relatively new development, studies on destination image have been traced back to the early 70s and have advanced the understanding about image formation, measurement, and influence on tourist behaviors (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Lee, et. al., 2005; Leisen, 2001). Extending from previous research results on desti-
Branding Destination Events – The Case of Yilan International Children's Folklore and Folkgame Festival

H. L. A. Chen

nation image, Cai (2002) proposed a model of destination branding, in which destination branding is a circular process that starts with carefully chosen brand element mix (i.e. unique culture, features, etc.). These elements distinctly differentiate the destination from others and form brand image with attributes, affective and attitudes components. Thereafter, the gap between the perceived and the projected image can be assessed, and that provides insight for building preferred images through marketing programs, marketing communications, and managing secondary associations. All of the processes described above occur in four preconditions: organic image, induced image, destination size and composition, positioning and target markets. Given this model, events would help branding the destination in four ways: 1) serve as an image maker to build up positive destination image; 2) provide opportunities to reflect the distinctiveness of the destination; 3) serve as an attraction to draw tourists and enable community development; and 4) act as a catalyst for destination promotion (Getz, 1997). As stressed by Jago et. al., (2003), the key for successful destination marketing is the manner in which the positive images associated with events are transferred to the destination. Through appropriate marketing efforts while staging successful events, a positive image is created and attached to the destination, and that further enhances destination brand and brings in long-term visitation by customers.

Building on previous research results, we proposed two models which reflect the relations between the constructs and are depicted in Figures 1 and 2. In these two models, we are primarily considered with the construct validity of destination events brand and the causal relations of image to brand. In the first model, the dimensionality of destination events brand was verified and the direct positive effect of events image to it was confirmed. The second model further examined the direct effects of dimensions underlying each of the constructs.

**METHODOLOGY**

Following a review of destination brand and events literature, a five-step procedure was undertaken to identify the perceived events image, destination events brand and their relationships given that measurement of events image and destination events brand is lacking. First, personal interviews were adopted on potential event visitors and 44 items were identified (26 for events image and 18 for destination events brand). Second, several academic scholars and practitioners were invited to review those elicited items, and some modification were made along with onsite observation, which resulted in the addition of 2 image and 2 brand items as well as the deletion of 1 image and 5 brand items.

Third, an exploratory factor analysis EFA was implemented to ensure the attributes and dimensions measuring both events image and destination events brand constructs. Only attributes with factor loadings higher than 0.4 and with communality higher than 0.6 were retained (Hattie, 1985; Fodness, 1994). Thereafter, a Cronbach’s Alpha reliability test was conducted for each scale and any item with lower than .50 item-to-total correlation was dropped from further analysis (Chen and Hsu, 2001). Fourth, confirmatory factor analysis was utilized to test the measurement model of events destination brand and the structural model of events image to events destination brand using the items identified through EFA procedure.
Sample.

Internet users were chosen as the study population in that they are more likely to travel and visit events. Data were collected between February 1 and March 31 through an online survey by snowball sampling techniques. The researchers sent out e-mails to several participants, who were invited to complete the questionnaire online and forward the e-mail to their friends and relatives. Respondents who visited the events before were excluded from this study given the potential effect of participation on events image (Boo and Busser, 2006). A total of 170 completed questionnaires were returned, of which 161 responses were usable after the deletion of replicated IP address (Lin and Chen, 2006). The sample was more females (63%) than males (37%). The majority of respondents were aged between 21-29, a pattern similar to that reported by Wu and Pan (2004).

Construct measurement.

Based on the personal interviews and literature review, multiple-item measures using a five point Likert-type scale were established. Some of the items have been utilized in previous studies and adapted to fit the context of this study.

Events image. Based on literature of destination image, events image was defined as a set of beliefs, ideas, and impression that people have upon an event. It was measured in a cognitive point of view using 28 items drawn from previous research (Boo, et al., 2005; Getz, 1997; Hosany, et al., 2006; Lee, et al., 2005; Leisen, et al., 2001). Four dimensions were proposed: attractions, comfort, value of money, and exotic atmosphere. Through exploratory factor analysis, a four-factor structure evolves which cumulatively explained 63.11% of total variance. In order to ensure that each factor identified by EFA had only one dimension and each item loaded only on one factor, items with factor loadings lower than .40 and items loading on more than one factor with a coefficient equal to or greater than .40 were excluded from further analysis. This procedure resulted in 17 image items and two factors eliminated. As presented in Table 1, the remaining 11 items generated two factors. The internal consistency measures for each dimension were .86 and .86, respectively.

Destination events brand. Destination events brand was viewed as identifying and distinguishing a destination through positive image, attributes and culture mix. Its measures were based on the work by Jago et. al., (2003) and Cai (2002). There were fifteen items measuring destination events brand across three dimensions: unique, tradition and planning. Through item analysis and EFA, six items were eliminated based on the requirements illustrated above. The remaining 9 items on three dimensions were further testified using CFA (see Table 2 for item details).

RESULTS

Data were analyzed using SPSS 12.0 for Windows and LISREL 8.51 to examine the relationship between events images and destination events brand. The covariance structure analysis was used in that it restricts the relationships among variables to those hypothesized and more thoroughly investigates how well the model fits the data. The analysis followed two-step approach beginning with the examination of measurement model followed by an examination of the posited structural model. An assessment of construct validity and reliability of measurement model was provided and the predictive validity of latent constructs was evaluated.
Table 1. Exploratory factor analysis for events image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Attraction</th>
<th>Comfort</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educated exhibition</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family activity</td>
<td>.699</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for money</td>
<td>.574</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many benefits</td>
<td>.702</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local culture</td>
<td>.652</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant atmosphere</td>
<td>.812</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting shows</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendly travel counseling services</td>
<td>.656</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clean environment</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suitable facility</td>
<td>.841</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation services (foods and)</td>
<td>.734</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eigenvalues</strong></td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cumulative %</strong></td>
<td>32.44</td>
<td>62.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Alpha</strong></td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measurement model of destination events brand.

The posited relations of the observed variables to the underlying brand constructs were assessed using confirmatory factor analysis. The results indicated good model fit for data (GFI = 0.94, RMSEA = 0.075, CFI = 0.96, NFI = 0.92, NNFI = 0.94), although the chi-square statistic is significant ($\chi^2 = 43.46, df = 23, p < .05$). It is understood that the chi-square statistic is sensitive to sample sizes greater than 100 (Byrne, 1998). Furthermore, the measures of validity and reliability were assessed to ensure the adequacy of the measurement model. The convergent validity was estimated by examining whether the standardized indicator loading on its posited underlying construct is greater than twice its standard error as suggested (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). All loadings in Table 2 were higher than .70 and were statistically significant with $t$-values ranging from 10.85 to 12.39, providing evidence of convergent validity. Measures of reliability were examined on individual items and the latent constructs. Inspection of each indicator revealed good reliability with scores ranging from .56 to .67. Using the formula provided by Fornell and Larcker (1981), the composite reliability of latent constructs was calculated with LISREL estimates. As shown in Table 2, the composite reliability scores of all constructs measuring destination events brand exceeded the acceptable level of .70. To estimate the amount of variance that is captured by a factor, the average variance extracted by each construct was calculated, which exceeded the preferable level of 50% or higher (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to these evaluations, the measurement of destination events brand appears to have good reliability and validity.

Two structural models were constructed to further examine the process of destination branding. We proposed that events image would positively predict the destination events brand as depicted in Figure 1. If this model was verified, the second structural model was further tested...
to identify the causal relationships of dimensions between these two constructs (Refer to Figure 2). In the first model, image was treated as an exogenous variable with two dimensions as observed variables and destination events brand was an endogenous variable. The three brand constructs (unique, tradition, and planning) identified were treated as observed variables rather than latent variables given that the measurement of destination events brand provides satisfactory model fit. Specifically, the mean scores for each construct were computed and served as indicators of destination events brand. Therefore, one path coefficient was estimated to determine the causal relationship between events image and destination events brand. First we examined the parameter estimates to identify any non-significant or extremely large structural coefficients. None of them was removed from the analysis because of their statistical significance (p<.05). The values of parameter estimates of the overall fit of the model and standardized path coefficients linking events image and brand are reported in Figure 1. The structural model was supported with a non-significant Chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 6.04$, df = 4, p = .020). Other indices also indicated satisfactory model fit with the data (GFI = 0.99, RMSEA = 0.056, CFI = 0.99, NFI = 0.97, NNFI = 0.97).

Table 2. Parameter estimates of measurement model for events destination brand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs and Items</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Indicator reliability</th>
<th>Average variance extracted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unique</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique event</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local community</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>11.81</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant attributes</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>11.79</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tradition</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term benefits</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>10.98</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serial events</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>11.27</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hallmark for tourism</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>11.37</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Planning</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Good performance</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>11.93</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consistent quality</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public recognition</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>12.39</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$\chi^2 = 43.46$, df = 23, p < .01, GFI$ = 0.94, RMSEA$ = 0.075, CFI$ = 0.96, NFI$ = 0.92, NNFI$ = 0.94

* Composite construct reliability

$^a$ Goodness-of-Fit index (Hu & Bentler, 1995); Values $\geq .90$ indicate acceptable fit.

$^b$ Root mean square error (Hu & Bentler, 1999); Values $\leq .08$ indicate acceptable fit.

$^c$ Comparative fit index (Bentler, 1995): Values $\geq .90$ indicate acceptable fit.

$^d$ Normed fit index: Values $\geq .90$ indicate acceptable fit.

$^e$ Non-normed fit index: Values $\geq .90$ indicate acceptable fit.
Branding Destination Events – The Case of Yilan International Children’s Folklore and Folkgame Festival

H. L. A. Chen

The validity and reliability of scales measuring events image and destination events brand were assessed to ensure the adequacy of the model. All standardized loadings in Table 3 were higher than .45 and were statistically significant at .05 level, providing evidence of convergent validity. Inspection of each indicator revealed good reliability with scores ranging from .46 to .57 and the composite reliability scores of two constructs exceeded the acceptable level of .70. In addition, the average variance extracted by events image and destination events brand was .52 and .46, respectively, that are close to the preferable level of 50%. According to these evaluations, the measurement models of events image and destination events brand appear to have good reliability and validity. We further examined the structural model and found out that events image, as proposed, has direct positive impact on destination events brand given the significant path coefficient ($\beta = .83$, $p < .05$). Thus, individuals who possess more positive images towards the events would form a strong destination events brand. The squared multiple correlation ($R^2$) of destination events brand is .69.

To further identify the influence of dimensions of events image on dimensions of destination events brand, the second model shown in Figure 2 was tested. Two dimensions of events image (Attractions

Table 3. Parameter estimates of structural model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Indicator reliability</th>
<th>Average variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Image</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Attraction</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>8.85</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comfort</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>9.49</td>
<td>.59</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tradition</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>6.87</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a Composite construct reliability  b uniqueness was set as referenced indicator

Figure 1. Structural model of events image to destination events brand

Chi-square=6.81, df=4, p-value=0.14640, RMSEA=0.056
and Comfort) was treated as exogenous variables and three dimensions of destination events brand were endogenous variables with 9 observed indicators. Six path coefficients were estimated to determine the causal relationship between events image and destination events brand. First, all of the parameter estimates were examined for statistical significance at .05 level. The results in Table 4 indicated the adequacy of this model, showing appropriate reliability level and significant standardized coefficients. The values of parameter estimates of the overall fit of the model and standardized path coefficients linking events image and brand are reported in Figure 2. The structural model was supported with indices which indicated satisfactory model fit with the data (GFI = 0.93, RMSEA = 0.067, CFI = 0.96, NFI = 0.91, NNFI = 0.94), although the Chi-square statistic was significant ($\chi^2 = 63.56$, df = 37, $p = .004$).

As shown in $\beta$ coefficients, “attraction” and “comfort” were predictive of all three dimensions of destination events brand, with about 80% of variance in “unique” and “tradition” explained. Among these three dimensions of brand, “attraction” was strongly predictive of “unique” and “comfort” was strongly predictive of “tradition.” It suggests that as individuals have high scores on “attraction” and “comfort”, they would also reveal high scores on “unique,” “tradition,” and “planning.” Specifically, while individuals considered that the events have many attractions and provide comfortable settings to enjoy, they would identify and distinguish the destination events with uniqueness, traditions and good planning.

Table 4. Structural model analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs and Items</th>
<th>Standardized coefficient</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>Indicator reliability</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Unique</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique event (D2)</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.80</td>
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<tr>
<td>Local community (D4)</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>11.81</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant attributes (D6)</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>11.79</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Tradition</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term benefits (T2)</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>10.98</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serial events (T4)</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>11.27</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hallmark for tourism (T5)</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>11.37</td>
<td>.34</td>
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<td><strong>Planning</strong></td>
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<td>.80</td>
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<tr>
<td>Good performance (P1)</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>11.93</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.70</td>
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<tr>
<td>Consistent quality (P2)</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>10.85</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public recognition (P4)</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>12.39</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction -&gt; Unique</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>7.16</td>
<td>.22</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction -&gt; Tradition</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>6.96</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attraction -&gt; Planning</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>7.47</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfort -&gt; Unique</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfort -&gt; Tradition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comfort -&gt; Planning</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Composite construct reliability  * Significant at .05 level
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The significance of events in destination branding has obtained much attention, yet little is known about how the images associated with an event can be transferred to a destination, as a result, forming destination brand. The primary purpose of this study was to examine whether the hosting of a recognizable event, created to fortify culture first and then to attract tourists, contributed to the building of destination events brand. To achieve this aim, the establishment of a scale measuring destination events brand was essential given the fact that little research was conducted to capture the construct of destination brand. This research extends traditional measures of destination brand (i.e. awareness level, perceptions of a destination, and future tourism intentions) (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2003) and adopts significant themes raised by Jago et. al., (2003) and Cai (2002) as the basic constructs of destination events brand. In this way, we can capture more about the process and factors related to destination branding.

The resulting destination branding was composed of three dimensions of unique, tradition and planning that are consistent with previous research (Cai, 2002; Jago et. al., 2003; Park & Petrick, 2006). This factor structure was verified using confirmatory factor analysis which showed good reliability and validity.

“Unique” represents the distinct attributes differentiating a destination from others while “tradition” reflects the long-term successful hosting of events. With reference to the standardized coefficients, “good performance” and “consistent quality” were representatives of planning dimension, while “unique event” was representative of “unique” dimension. In this case, Yilan county integrates a variety of local attributes including agriculture products in series of events staged throughout the year and encourages cooperation among stakeholders. In addition, there were various performances and shows programmed everyday throughout the whole events periods.

Chi-square=63.56, df=37, p-value=0.00425, RMSEA=0.067

Figure 2. Structural model of events image dimensions to destination events brand dimensions
These programs, activities, services, marketing activities and related arrangements (volunteer training, purchasing, facility planning, transportation, etc.) were planned one year before the events. Through advanced planning and coordination, the quality of events was ensured constantly and wins public recognition, which then allows the local community to enjoy improved economic benefits and encourages active support of the events.

This research has some intuitive appeal in that it provides empirical evidence of the effects of positive events image to destination events brand. As implied by previous research, the act of hosting causes the events image to be associated with the destination events brand (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2003). A strong destination events brand is to be established after a positive events image was perceived and transferred successfully to a destination. Among the perceived events images, comfort and attractions were two key factors influencing the branding of destination events. As revealed in this current study, when an event was characterized by various attractions (pleasant environment, cultural exhibition and good value) and comfortable environments (facility, services), the positive, preferable images towards the events has formed and which in turn allow the individuals to identify the destination events with uniqueness, tradition and consistent planning (brand). It suggests that the quality of destination brand depends on the quality of events, which is influenced by the perceived events image. Events image represents a critical element in the destination branding process. After establishing a preferable image, branding can further build upon other destination brand elements. Thereafter, a strong destination event brand is to be built and a source of competitive advantage is created, that is especially important facing the growing competition between destinations.

Since the significance of destination branding is receiving growing attention among tourism academics, a number of papers have been conducted to explore the components of destination branding. While these efforts have made valuable contributions in furthering our understanding of destination branding, much research have been subjected to the measures used to operationalize the construct and limited to the western context. This study goes one step further by applying the destination branding concept to a Taiwan’s cultural event and demonstrates it as a three-factor structure. The conceptualization and measurement have still been lacking as to what they entail as suggested by Park and Petrick (2006), although the growing popularity of event branding is evident (Lee & Back, 2008). More research adopting theoretical approaches coupled with qualitative and quantitative methods should be employed to advance our understanding of this issue. In this respect, in-depth interview, focus group, case study, or Delphi methods should be undertaken to theoretically characterize the phenomenon of event branding and transfer empirical analysis into practical marketing activities.

Lastly this study has some limitations and leaves the way open for future research. First, the study findings are only applicable to specific case of a cultural event, implying that analyzing different kinds of events would be involved with changes when measuring destination events branding proposed. Second, the findings suffer from internet response bias. The responses of participants were subjected to the profiles of internet users, although participants chosen were geared to the sample characteristics (Wu & Pan, 2004). Other participants not using computers may be contacted in person to obtain their responses.
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THE JURISDICTIONAL IMPLICATION OF MEDICAL TOURISM

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ABSTRACT

Medical tourism is not a new phenomenon, but the recent trend of residents of industrialized countries travelling to areas less developed to seek medical care is a practice that has become popular only over the last decade. Medical tourism allows those who lack insurance, money or waiting time for medical treatments to travel to foreign countries for procedures that range from elective surgery to heart transplants. The rising popularity of medical tourism, consistent with the globalization of many industries, results in ethical and legal issues for patients, insurers, and doctors as well as the host countries themselves. In particular, the legal issue of jurisdiction bears further examination.

Key words: Medical tourism

Medical tourism, also termed medical travel or health tourism is the practice of residents of one country travelling to another country, termed the host country, to seek medical treatment (Cohen, 2010). This is not a new phenomenon in the medical and health industry, as the upper class of society has a long history of seeking treatments both domestically and internationally with mineral baths, spas, innovative therapies and the search for a healthy climate (Gray & Poland).

Modern times have also experienced patients seeking international medical care, but traditionally patients seeking a more advanced medical treatment travel from less developed nations to major centers in highly developed countries. What is a new trend in medical travel is the phenomenon of the middle class traveling from developed countries to under developed or developing countries to avoid treatment delays and/or reduce cost for both elective procedures and surgery or life saving treatment or procedures.

With the history of outsourcing to Asia Pacific and the high cost of medical treatments, it is a natural progression that the medical industry, with its high labor cost in developed countries such as the United States, is now outsourcing its medical services to Asia Pacific as low-cost medical providers that offer quality
care at fractional fees (Gahlinger, 2008).

While many may see medical tourism as a global solution to compensate costly and inefficient health care systems, many legal issues and ethical issues need to be examined carefully in the practice of medical tourism. This article provides an overview of medical tourism and those that are using it to reduce medical costs and waiting times for procedures. Part I provides a brief overview of the formation of medical tourism, examining the causes for its rise in popularity. Part II details the scales of economy within the medical tourism industry. Part III outlines the host countries that are known as medical tourism destinations. Parts IV and V focus on the legal issue of jurisdiction that is coming into play as medical tourism becomes more widely acceptable. Part VI discusses the future of medical tourism, and Part VII offers this author’s conclusion.

I. Formation of Medical Tourism

With the variances of labor costs between countries, for decades companies have capitalized on the low-cost labor in Southeast Asia as a source for cost competitive merchandise (Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, 2009). In addition, United States industry has turned to India and other Asia Pacific countries as sources of low-cost technical and call center support (Marlowe, Entrepreneur Magazine, 2007). This trend of outsourcing to underdeveloped and developing countries for goods and services has now extended to the medical field as the cost of health care in the United States is expected to increase 6% annually over the next decade (Deloitte Center for Health Solutions, 2009). In essence, American patients are “offshoring” themselves to facilities that use low costs to gain competitive advantage in the marketplace.

While cost is a major contributing factor for those considering medical tourism, not to be overlooked is the over-loaded and cash-strapped U.S. hospitals, as well as shortages of skilled primary care physicians and nurses. Both issues are creating conditions in the U.S. healthcare community that cause quality to deteriorate. The World Health Organization’s low ranking of the U.S. healthcare system (World Health Organization, 2000), is an indicator of this decline, thus making the overseas medical options more palatable to quality-conscious consumers.

Another factor pushing the growth of the medical tourism industry is the wait time for life saving procedures in the United States, particularly for patients requiring an organ transplant. In the United States, over 88,000 individuals were on the waiting list for a transplant as of early 2010, with 34,000 names typically added every year (The Mayo Clinic, 2010). The wait averages five to eight years, with 19 people each day dying while waiting for an organ transplant (The Scientific Registry of Transplant Recipients, 2009). This shortfall causes patients to search for other methods of procuring the live-saving organ transplant, and they often turn to medical tourism as a solution. China, on the other hand, has a wait time of just one to two weeks for the ‘medical tourist’ (Forsythe, 2009), thus it is only logical that those in need of this procedure but are running out of waiting time would turn to medical tourism to procure their organ and transplant.

II. Market Forces of Medical Tourism

The demand for low cost, quality health care is a driving force of the popularity of medical tourism. When viewed from a purely economic standpoint, a global market in health services will promote consumer choice, foster competition among hospitals, and enable
customers to purchase quality care at medical facilities around the world (Gahlinger, 2008).

As for the supply side of the economic equation, researchers are finding that there are two types of medical tourists. The first is typically uninsured, searching for a procedure at a lower cost, the second a consumer looking for a procedure or surgery that is either experimental or has a wait time that is too long. (Herrick, 2007)

The failure of the medical systems to provide for these consumers has led to other countries stepping up to the plate as the free market dictates. These destinations are able to offer services inexpensively as it relates to the level of their national economic development. Accordingly, the lower cost of health care is appropriate for the economic environment in which the care is provided. Another reason for low costs overseas relates to the legal environment in which these providers operate. For example, the professional liability insurance premium for a surgeon in India is just 4 percent of the cost for a similar provider in New York (Herrick, 2007).

III. Medical Tourism Destinations

Many countries are working to successfully compete in the medical tourism marketplace by offering a wide variety of medical, surgical and dental services in comfortable modern facilities. Several countries in Central and South America have developed strong reputations for cosmetic and plastic surgery, bariatric procedures, and dental care. Destinations in Asia are particularly popular for orthopedics and cardiac surgery. India maintains a reputation for coronary artery bypass surgery and other heart-related surgeries. India also offers the important advantage of lower costs than most other destinations, at approximately 10 percent of the costs in the United States. (Herrick, 2007). China has developed a strong reputation in a low waiting time for kidney transplants. Recent press reports regarding their organ procurement methods of using organs from condemned prisoners or forcing convicted criminals to donate organs has done nothing to deter patients from seeking their transplant.

IV. Legal Jurisdiction within Medical Tourism

Jurisdiction is the most pressing legal consideration of medical tourism. If a plaintiff seeking relief for medical-tourism related damages files suit against a provider located outside the United States, the plaintiff would be required to prove to the court personal jurisdiction in order to establish jurisdiction within the plaintiff’s home state. Personal jurisdiction refers to a court’s power over a defendant to issue a binding ruling. (NOLO, 2007)

Courts have been reluctant to assert jurisdiction over physicians who do not practice in the state where the court sits, as they consider physicians to have a “localized practice” wherein the doctor does not intend for their services to have an impact beyond the location in which they provide services (Wright v. Yackley, 1972). However, courts have found that personal jurisdiction may exist when an individual or business who is a citizen of another state solicits business by publishing advertisements in the state in which the suit is filed. (NOLO, 2007)

Forum non conveniens is an important legal consideration within the medical tourism industry, whereby courts may refuse to take jurisdiction over matters where there is a more appropriate forum available to the parties (NOLO, 2007). In many cases, the patient’s home country may rule that the clinic’s country is the most appropriate venue for legal
proceedings. In that instance the patient will be required to travel and proceed with a case in the provider’s jurisdiction. Many factors will come into play in determining jurisdiction, including the country where the contract was formed, the marketing of the clinics, the marketing of the facilitator and more.

A continuing tort theory of jurisdiction relates to a tort that is continuing in nature which accrues at the time of the continuance (Mills, 2007). While normally used for statute of limitations purposes, under this theory, should the plaintiff’s home state recognize continuing torts, the court may exercise jurisdiction over a nonresident physician if the effect of their tortious act, in this case the medical procedure, continues to be an issue for the plaintiff while in their home state.

Unless the plaintiff has a continuing relationship with the nonresident physician, however, courts have been reluctant to accept the continuing-tort theory. For example, the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit strongly condemned the continuing-tort theory in Wright v. Yackley: the “idea that tortuous rendition of such [medical] services is a portable tort which can be deemed to have been committed wherever the consequences foreseeably were felt is wholly inconsistent with the public interest in having services of this sort generally available” (Mirrer-Singer).

V. Jurisdictional Clauses of the Provider

Often a medical tourism provider will have the patient sign a jurisdictional clause before services are rendered (Satori Global Network, 2008). While these jurisdictional clauses are binding in some cases, courts have ruled them to be non binding if one or more of the following conditions exist:

- Contractual arrangements take place in the patient’s home jurisdiction.
- Proof that the clinics or physicians are targeting customers in the patient’s home jurisdiction
- Advertising in the media, both online and offline in the patient’s home jurisdiction;
- If the surgeon is registered within the patient’s home jurisdiction
- If the patient has had a pre-op consultation or if part of the treatment took place in the patient’s home jurisdiction.
- If the clinic has a consulting or mailing address within the patient’s home jurisdiction (Vick, 2010)

As medical tourism providers become aware of this information, they will take steps to eliminate the conditions that may void the jurisdictional clause. With these factors eliminated, the jurisdictional clauses should be upheld by the courts. However, the perception that patients will have no course for retribution should a problem arise is a major barrier to the growth of the medical tourism industry. Should medical tourism providers wish to compete in this international industry, they must take steps to mitigate this perception by establishing a presence within the patient’s home country to handle legal issues in the event of litigation. But, the onus is on the host country, for the patient’s home country has no right to extend their ‘long arm of the law’ across international waters, it is up to the patient and provider to agree to jurisdiction as the free market dictates.

Some states in within the United States, such as South Carolina, will not enforce a jurisdictional clause as a matter of public policy. When the clause requires the patient to travel thousands of miles to litigate, judges will consider whether enforcement of the clause will effectively deprive the patient of their day in court. The legal analysis should not favor the plaintiff if the court finds that the foreign courts will handle their claims properly.
If the provider establishes a presence via website and marketing within a particular target market, such as the United States, case law finds that this practice establishes jurisdiction within the patient’s location. In McLenithan v. Bennington Community Health Plan, a New York appellate court held it had jurisdiction over a Vermont physician because the physician had "interjected himself into New York's service economy" by contracting with a New York HMO whose subscribers were mainly New York residents.

VI. The Future of Medical Tourism

Medical tourism will continue to offer viable options for those seeking low cost health care, as well as those looking to reduce procedure wait times. The issue of legal jurisdiction will continue to plague this industry until medical tourism is more tightly regulated and standards and legal precedents are established. Patients will quickly realize that legal recourse outside of the U.S. courts is unattractive and inadequate to the current standards of legal proceedings within the United States.

Lawyers within a patient’s home jurisdiction will examine every step in the medical tourism process from marketing to initial patient contact to discharge to follow up care after the patient returns home, to find a way to get jurisdiction within the patient’s home location should a medical malpractice or other legal proceeding become necessary. Expect to see more lawyers gaining expertise and specializing within the medical tourism industry.

The same creativity and aggressive legal maneuverings that has resulted in large judgments and broad liability here will be applied to these new factual circumstances. A careful examination of the medical tourism system by those looking to facilitate and provide care for international citizens may influence decisions about who is treated, how the patient is treated and how the services of the provider are marketed. This may cause a slight increase in the prices of procedures within many host countries.

With extensive use of the Internet to reach out to prospective patients, claims of specific personal jurisdiction are likely to arise. Some patients will understand that limited compensation in the event of a poor outcome is one of the tradeoffs for going abroad for medical care. Other patients will not be so forgiving. Providers of medical tourism will likely prepare themselves and their organizations to defend against resourceful and aggressive lawyers and sympathetic judges.

Since these medical tourism providers are specifically reaching out to foreign tourists, they are establishing personal jurisdiction within the tourist’s home country. Should the provider care to reap the financial benefits of catering to medical tourists, they must also pay the price of providing international services by preparing to defend any suits within the patient’s home country and their home state. Medical providers will find themselves partnering with U.S. based health organizations to address the location issues and to take advantage of the organization’s U.S. court system’s legal expertise (Kopson, 2009).

VII. Conclusion

Medical tourism has become a popular option for those who are uninsured and trying to save money, those who are looking for a less expensive option for elective procedures and those looking for a reduced wait time for certain surgeries. With the basic economic forces of supply and demand, international providers have stepped up to the plate to offer low cost alternatives to these patients, just as many
other industries have turned to ‘off-shoring’ to reduce labor costs.

Medical tourism has opened a new set of legal issues within the medical community. In particular, jurisdiction has become an important legal topic facing medical tourism. In the past, courts have considered physicians to be within the jurisdiction of the location of their practice. With the rise of internet market, and with targeted marketing measures of medical tourism providers, the courts have issued more recent rulings in which personal jurisdiction has been established within the patient’s locale, but what some call the ‘long arm’ of the law, may not reach across international waters if a provider takes pre-emptive measures to avoid establishing jurisdiction within patients’ home countries.

While medical tourism is expected to continue to increase in popularity, it is also expected to modify its standard operating procedures of marketing and facilitating travel to either avoid a presence in the patient’s home country, or to partner with U.S. based health care organizations to handle these legal matters.

Medical tourism fills a need within the healthcare industry, and expects to see more organizations looking to regulate this industry to ensure quality standards are met.

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AN EMPIRICAL MODEL OF ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN TAIWAN: A PERSPECTIVE FROM THE INTERACTIONS BETWEEN THE STATE AND COMMUNITY

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ABSTRACT

Taiwan was once the most prominent of “Asia's Four Little Dragons” and was considered a developing economy. Countries in such a situation often waver between development and conservation, which raises questions about local views and practices regarding ecotourism. However, these questions have been largely ignored in the literature. Ecotourism could be used to achieve sustainable development, and the status and potential for ecotourism in the context of Taiwan merits further exploration. The development of ecotourism in Taiwan roughly coincided with the publication of a significant body of academic discourse. Over the intervening years, the experience of government transformation, shifts of ruling parties with different policy objectives, preferences and guidance from public institutions with different agendas have resulted in the emergence of a unique, three-stage empirical model. Through the collection and analysis of relevant literature, supplemented by local field studies and in-depth interviews, our research describes and demonstrates this empirical model of ecotourism development in Taiwan from the perspective of interaction between the state and the community, and suggests that government departments take an approach of passive assistance, intervening to empower.

Keywords: Taiwan; ecotourism development; developmental state; community empowerment

INTRODUCTION

Ecotourism began to gain traction internationally in the 1980s when a number of countries and regions began to put ecotourism into active practice. Despite this activity, nearly 90 working definitions have been offered for the practice of ecotourism (Fennell, 2001), and the concepts and content behind these definitions differ considerably, leading to different countries and regions holding widely divergent conceptions of and attitudes towards ecotourism. Political, economic and social differences between various countries and regions also have a significant impact on the development experience of implementing ecotourism.
Developed countries such as the U.K., U.S. and Japan are recognized for their continuous promotion of ecotourism in national parks and other protected areas without deliberate manipulation by the State or community (Zhang, Jian Ping, 2001). Despite it’s long industrial history, the U.K. is regarded as an early pioneer in land restoration for protected areas, the development of ecotourism organizations, enhancement of in-depth tourism services, and passing progressive legislation (ATREE, 2006; DCMS, 2009). In comparison, Japan has taken a more active approach. Apart from publishing ecotourism guidelines by the Japan Association of Travel Agents (JATA), holding seminars, and establishing the JATA Environmental Fund, in 2007 Japan’s legislature passed an “Ecotourism Promotion Law” to guide local communities in taking direct action (official website of Ministry of the Environment, Government of Japan, 2010).

Some developing countries have taken more active measures in promoting ecotourism. For example, the National Park Authority of Costa Rica formulates and enforces strict regulations for the maintenance of ecological resources, while the state also welcomes large-scale foreign investment. Government agencies in Thailand also play an important role in promoting ecotourism. In 1995, Thailand’s tourism sector formulated the “National Ecotourism Action Plan” and, together with academic institutions, private companies and NGOs, founded the “Thai Ecotourism and Adventure Travel Association.” In Kenya, both the state and the private sector are fully committed in establishing national parks. The government established the “Kenya Wildlife Service” in addition to organizing international symposiums on ecotourism in Kenya. The academic sector helps to coordinates efforts between the state and local communities, while the state promotes community-based welfare by encouraging local participation in the management of ecotourism resources (Honey, 1999; 2001: 237-247).

Two decades ago, the International Ecotourism Society defined ecotourism as “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and takes the well-being of local people into account.” The content and dimensions of this definition have contributed to an emerging consensus that is widely recognized by various sectors: 1. Ecotourism must take into account the environment, economy and social aspects without bias (Wight, 1993). 2. Ecotourism is not only an alternative product to conventional mass tourism but also a means of driving regional development (Binns & Nel, 2002). 3. Ecotourism highly values community participation (Drake, 1991), expects that the community will be enabled to participate actively in decision-making, and enhances resident capability in ecotourism development (Sofield, 2003).

Strengthen environmental education and enhance environmental awareness for stakeholders (Blamey, 2001) with projection in sustainable development as long-term goal for solving problems between human environment and the society (Mader, 2002). Despite this consensus, different states and regions have developed a range of empirical models for ecotourism development under different stakeholders with different interests (ATREE, 2006).

Unfortunately, the literature rarely mentions ecotourism development models in emerging industrial countries, especially countries such as Taiwan which, while heavily industrialized are still experiencing high-level economic development in the context of the global economic restructuring process. Despite the recent transformation of the state and civil society, local areas still posses a consider-
able power in monitoring government environmental-protection efforts, leaving the government frequently conflicted between development and conservation. Under these circumstances, how can the government develop ecotourism? Which empirical model is most applicable to the process of interaction between the state and local communities? To further understand these issues, this study divides ecotourism development in Taiwan into three stages through analysis of data found in the literature. These three stages were applied to case study sites which were the subject to field study and in-depth interviews with stakeholders and decision-makers.

**Ecotourism development: global, national, societal, and communal.**

Fennell (1999) proposed a relatively integrated analytical framework and statement contents for ecotourism development, offering various views from the macro/ international, medium/ community and micro/site perspectives. Rather than placing his emphasis on the State, he only cited interpretation from Mackinnon (1995) and commented on ecotourism-related state-adopted strategies that would have impact on residents’ attitudes and top-down approaches which, with grassroots support, could be applied towards the integration of communities. In fact, in many countries communities do not independently integrate. Moreover, how much of an impact does the international perspective have on the State? How significant is the role that the State plays? The following analysis will be divided into two parts:

**International influence and inspiration.**

Regardless of which dependency theory or core-periphery concept adopted, in this era of globalized economic and information exchange, international trends for ecotourism will inevitably affect the development of the state. For example, in the 1990s, the academic sector in Taiwan began to introduce the local public sector to internationally-developed ecotourism concepts, which played a key role in the development of ecotourism policy at the State level (Huang, 2006). Moreover, with different countries offering different models for ecotourism development, which model or models should Taiwan adopt? Table 1 presents a summary of the literature on State development:

Table 1 demonstrates that, in most countries, the promotion of ecotourism is the responsibility of certain government departments or is promoted by private sector organizations with assistance from the state. Most nations take a systematic approach to formulating policy and legislation. The major participating stakeholders are government departments, followed by local residents and communities. Those countries which have achieved greater prestige in ecotourism are those in which ecotourism is actively promoted by the State. Developing countries in which the State places greater value on local participation experience greater intervention. However, with the exception of Kenya, it is difficult to detect the degree of importance each country places on local (community) development, or to the degree the state values community empowerment, and thus provide little guidance in regard to how the development of ecotourism should be combined with community empowerment (For example, Fennell, 1999; Scheyvens, 1999; Sofield, 2003).
Table 1. Comparison of profiles on international development of ecotourism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State Item</th>
<th>Australia</th>
<th>New Zealand</th>
<th>Kenya</th>
<th>Canada</th>
<th>Costa Rica</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
<th>Japan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value Orientation</td>
<td>Priority on environmental protection</td>
<td>Empowered environmental protection department; interventionist approach to tourism development</td>
<td>Recognition for conservation as an approach for economic development</td>
<td>Value ecology and environment</td>
<td>High value tourism interests</td>
<td>High value tourism interests</td>
<td>High value, expecting promotion from local assistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders in Policy-making</td>
<td>Local community residents, travel industry, aboriginal land association, government departments</td>
<td>Environmental Protection Department, local governments, tourism bureau, industry</td>
<td>Local residents, social elites, governmental agencies, international environmental organizations</td>
<td>Industry associations and travel agencies</td>
<td>Local governments, scientists, hotels</td>
<td>Public sector, academic groups, private sector, NGOs</td>
<td>State, local, associations, local consortia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System or Action</td>
<td>Certification system, emphasis on appraisal, classification, educational training, international symposia. Establishing research center</td>
<td>Emphasis on controlling industry scale</td>
<td>Interaction with residents, establishment of community service association in 1992, establishment of Kenya Wildlife Service in 1993</td>
<td>Few actions taken</td>
<td>Proposed ecotourism plan in 1994, emphasis on large-scale foreign investment plans</td>
<td>Emphasis placed on marketing and promotion of ecotourism</td>
<td>Establishment of charitable trust funds, ecology certification, promotion by private sector organizations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness or Performance</td>
<td>The first state to promote ecotourism in cooperation with industry (1994)</td>
<td>Widely recognized as the ecotourism capital of Africa. Full government support</td>
<td>Ambiguous</td>
<td>Achieved international recognition as ecotourism destination beginning in 1990. Now turning towards general tourism</td>
<td>Some reputation in Asia, still working towards higher achievement</td>
<td>Little ecotourism legislation of systemization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two key stakeholders: state and community.

The majority of ecotourism-related studies overemphasize dimensions in market segmentation, ecological impact and community ecotourism while omitting more critical issues (Weaver & Lawton, 2007) which could contribute to the integrity of the field. For example, Fennell & Dowling (2007) believed that differences in various state and regional systems often result in a lack of unified and optimal development methods, but that the integration of systems, policies and management could only be accomplished in accordance with the complexity and structure of each region. In addition, Mader (2002) suggested that different actions should be taken in accordance with regional differentiation because the key to promoting ecotourism lies in and understanding of how and why actions need to be taken.

In the process of ecotourism development, the different stakeholders often act in different locations. For example, the state, private companies, NGOs, donors, tourists, and communities often have differing values and interests which often come into conflict (Wearing & Neil, 1999; Fennell & Dowling, 2003). Thus, the development of ecotourism becomes increasingly complex, often requiring the government to play a key role (Fennell & Dowling, 2003). Particularly in developing countries such as Taiwan, the government is often the center of social power and aggregated interests, therefore the influence of the state should not be underestimated. Community residents are most familiar with the local area and are in the best position to protect the local ecological environment. The state (including the central and local governments) and the community have the greatest impact on the local environment, and are the most prominent actors.

Ecotourism promotional efforts by other stakeholders, such as business consortia and NGOs, are less likely to succeed without the commitment of national or international governments.

Politics and society in Taiwan underwent a radical change in the 1980s with the lifting of martial law. The largest impact was an emergence of civilian power as the relationship between the state and society was restructured. In the 1990s, the state leveraged local communities to implement its “Overall Community Development” operational framework, aimed at fostering community autonomy (Huang, Li-Ling, 1995). All subsequent community development work not only strengthened local identities and a sense of community, but also transferred skills and knowledge to local community. In addition, these communities were given greater autonomy and decision-making power, and encouraged to independently determine their own requirements (Yang, Hong-Ren, 2007). This process was similar to the content of community empowerment work recognized by Scheyvens (1999). It’s worth noting that, among the two critical stakeholders in ecotourism development (i.e. the state and community), the source of community power and access to resources is mostly determined by the State, and it is apparent that the mindset and attitude of the State plays the primary role in ecotourism development.

Ecotourism development in Taiwan.

The development of ecotourism in Taiwan can be divided into three stages following the growth and decline in state/civil social power structure, power preferences of party in power and different attributes given to departments:
Independent development in local communities and passive state cooperation (mid-1980s to 1999).

With the emergence of Taiwan as an economic power in 1970s, the local academic, artistic and literary communities began to pay attention to issues related to environmental protection. In the 1980s, economic development became the driving force behind social and political power. Following the lifting of martial law in 1987, social movements in Taiwan became increasingly frequent (Hsiao, 1992). In the 1990s, the local community began to emerge as the basis of social organization, and the state began to promote a movement of community empowerment (Yang, Hong-Ren, 2007). Although the movement was initiated by the state, the central government relied on local governments for actual implementation, and social movements gradually transformed into community movements (Yang, Hong-Ren, 2007). This had a significant impact on future community movements in Taiwan, and created a foundation for the later promotion of ecotourism development initiatives. Under the influence of these community movements, many areas in Taiwan underwent conservation work in the 1980s and 1990s, under the goal of attracting tourism with ecological attractions. Examples include projects initiated by the Tanayiku Tribe of Chiayi County (Site A), the Gangbian Community of Yilan County (Site B) and the Smangus Tribe of Hsinchu County (Site C) (Refer to Fig. 1 and Table 2).

The Tanayiku tribe had been integrated in local ecological management initiatives since the establishment of the surrounding Yu-Shan National Park in 1987. In addition to patrolling the park and monitoring fish conservation, tribe members also provide ecological guidance to the tourists. Word of mouth attracted ever-larger numbers of tourists, bringing in income which allowed the tribes people to establish welfare support schemes for young students and the elderly. The success of this government-subsidized project attracted considerable interest both domestically and internationally. Unfortunately this area was badly damaged by a typhoon in 2009 and is still under reconstruction. In the Gangbian community, local people gradually came together in resistance to the development of a new thermal power station in the area. Under pressure from the community, the state agreed to turn the area into Taiwan’s first Waterfowl Sanctuary, which has been successful in attracting tourists for bird watching. The community’s continuing protection of the wetlands, cultural preservation efforts and training of local residents to serve as ecology guides has not only been broadly supported by the public, but has also brought benefit to the locals community. The Smangus were once called Taiwan’s “black tribe” due to the lack of local electrical power. With support from the academic community and the private sector, the tribe has developed the area’s giant cypress forests and abundant ecological resources in this area for ecotourism. To prevent external consortia from taking over local resources, and to prevent damaging price competition among locals, a cooperative was recently established, and has been operating with considerable success.

Although the above three cases could not represent the overall state of ecotourism development in Taiwan, they are generally indicative of the expansion of various local and social powers, and are typical of the passive cooperation and assistance provided by the state.
Figure 1. Taiwan (Partial) Ecotourism Distribution

Table 2. Ecotourism development from 1980~1999 (First Stage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ecotourism Site</th>
<th>Starting(Year)</th>
<th>Main Sponsor</th>
<th>Government Assistance</th>
<th>Current Profile</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Site A: Danaiku (Chiayi County)</td>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Community elites</td>
<td>Passive recognition and assistance</td>
<td>Transformed into organic village following typhoon damage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site B: Gangbian Community</td>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Community elites</td>
<td>Government subsidies</td>
<td>Stabilizing local ecotourism development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Site C: Smangus (Hsinchu County)</td>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Local community and external academics</td>
<td>Government funding support and empowerment work</td>
<td>Developing ecotourism cooperative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Taiwan underwent its first modern political regime change in 2000 when the Democratic Progressive Party (DDP) replaced the Nationalist Party (KMT) as the ruling party. The DDP’s had a tradition of encouraging both local autonomy and environmentalism and, upon assuming power, the DDP government invested considerable effort in promoting tourism, with a particular emphasis on ecotourism. As part of this effort, the Tourism Bureau (TB) promoted and formulated the “Ecotourism White Paper” as part of a government plan to double tourist arrivals in Taiwan, with an implicit assumption that ecotourism would attract a larger number of visitors. The TB’s ecotourism plan focused on the following key aspects:

- provide local tourism operators with training to develop guided tours,
- establish an “Ecotourism Promotion Center” to guide private sector development and lead promotions,
- organize tourism activities through travel agencies and related industries, and
- mass marketing through relevant media.

In 2002, the U.N.’s International Year of Ecotourism 2002, the Tourism Bureau organized a range of ecotourism-related activities which attracted considerable media attention, prompting significant new tourism-related construction for bed & breakfasts, country inns and hillside resorts. The rapid development negatively impacted the living quality of local residents and devastated local ecosystems. The government came under considerable criticism from NGOs, academics and the media. Backlashes against the influx of tourists took a bizarre turn when local residents of a certain area deliberately used pesticides to kill fireflies which were attracting the tourists. This wasn’t an isolated failure, and Wang Xin (2007) has suggested that few ecotourism development cases in Taiwan in recent years can be considered successful.


When the central government became aware of the environmental crisis triggered by the TB’s promotion of ecotourism, it immediately instructed TB to hand over all the ecotourism promotional work to the National Parks Authorities. While the TB operates to optimize efficiency the NPA emphasizes equality (refer to Stone, 2002). In 1982, the NPA took responsibility for the National Parks Conservation and Management unit, which operates towards a long-term goal of sustainable development. Its strategy aims to achieve intra-generational and intergenerational justice. The NPA was assigned to manage the promotion of ecotourism with an emphasis on equitable distribution of resources, and ecological and cultural preservation. In practice, the key work of NPA includes:

- organizing the selection of Taiwan “Ecotourism Sites,” which are nominated by local governments and chosen by the central government,
- organizing the central government’s commissioning of academic consultants to provide guidance and assistance in communities living in or near selected ecotourism sites, and
- organizing exhibitions and exchanges.

Unlike the TB, the NPA does not place an emphasis on increasing tourist traffic and does not work with profit-oriented tourism industries. As a result, NPA ecotourism promotions are environmentally-benign. However the NPA does not take into account how the local community could profit from its proximity to ecotourism sites, and thus some com-
Community members are unwilling to cooperate with NPA promotional activities. This conflict led to an eventual decline of ecotourism development because of a lack of business opportunities. In addition, Taiwan underwent another regime change in 2008, returning the KMT to power, and thus refocusing the government’s agenda on diplomatic and economic development. Government enthusiasm for ecotourism issues fell, ultimately leading to the suspension of the Ecotourism policy in February 2009.

DISCUSSION

The paper argues that ecotourism development in a given area must be jointly promoted by relevant stakeholders, in particular the state and the community. Additionally, ecotourism development seems to require reference on a more integral and sound framework. Wight’s framework (1993) provides a highly valuable point of reference, and suggests that the following four points deserve further discussion in the context of ecotourism development in Taiwan:

Should the state take the lead in ecotourism development?

This depends on the political system and social power of a given state. In Taiwan, ecotourism developed alongside the transformation of the political economy and the expansion of civilian authority. Taiwan is regarded as a developing state (Castells, 2000), which still has an ideological bias towards economic development. In addition to the different operational agendas of government departments, bias and risk are unavoidable regardless of which government agency is behind the promotion. It would be more appropriate for the community to independently develop ecotourism and for the government to provide assistance when necessary. For example, Taiwan’s “Overall Community Development” plan provides many communities with access to expertise and resources. Therefore the degree of government intervention to promote ecotourism will vary in accordance with local conditions.

How can communities play to their strengths in the course of developing ecotourism?

Few communities in Taiwan have exhibited excellent performance in ecotourism. The third case in the first stage of the paper is a good example. As a result of community development following the lifting of martial law, this community has developed a place identity, and values ecology and culture. This assisted the community in the first development stage to directly and indirectly receive impacts. Moreover, NPA promotion of ecotourism specifically emphasizes community-based development. Over the past decade, Taiwan’s academic community has also placed emphasis on community empowerment, and some communities (i.e. Dabang, Shihding, and Sheichien) have directly benefitted from government agency-sponsored local empowerment programs which devolve decision-making responsibility and provide significant funding for training to enhance local identity and local governance. In other words, the State must perform integral empowerment work to enable local communities to develop ecotourism.

What are the economic dimensions of ecotourism?

According to Wight’s “Framework of Sustainable Ecotourism” (1993), ecotourism requires the simultaneous management of ecology, social culture and industry. The second stage of Taiwan’s development model emphasized economy development, which was neglected in the third
stage and the results of both stages were unsatisfactory. According to the four levels of community empowerment in Scheyvens framework (1999), even if the state attempted to reduce intervention and increase community empowerment, the economic dimension should not be neglected but rather receive attention equal to that paid to the environmental and social dimensions. Community empowerment for developing ecotourism should not overlook the economy, so that optimal performance will result only when taking it into account.

**How can relevant stakeholders be encouraged to jointly promote ecotourism?**

If we recognize the value of ecotourism development, then we must encourage its promotion by all relevant stakeholders, particularly within the state and community. Regardless of whether the state’s support is active or passive, the state still wields enormous influence and has command over significant resources and is thus the ideal candidate to provide coordination and act to resolve conflicts between divergent values and interests. Since the state is so important in the development of ecotourism (Fennell & Dowling, 2003) the state’s decision-making elites must receive environmental education and instruction on all the relevant issues in ecotourism. As shown in Table 1, the Canadian Government does not significantly promote ecotourism and thus has not seen significant results. The Costa Rican government, on the other hand, which puts its overall emphasis on ecotourism, finds itself criticized for moving towards general tourism. The community can also serve as a development platform as it seeks self-enrichment and takes advantage of increased autonomy to have a greater say in public affairs. However, assistance from the state is still required to accomplish community-based co-development, as seen in the example of Kenya (Table 1).

**CONCLUSION**

The development of ecotourism in Taiwan appeared to consist of three stages, each with a different empirical model. The development process was influenced by the structural transformation in state politics, the policy preferences of the ruling party, the attributes of the government department responsible for promotion, and the rise in social (community) power. Although social communities show dominance, in a developing state like Taiwan, where communities command a high degree of autonomy, an environmental awareness gradually emerges. Such a state is still dependent on economic development, and the development of ecotourism often contains inherent contradictions. In addition, the actions of Taiwan’s bureaucracy reflect the attitudes of the elite decision-makers. If policymakers are unclear on the content of ecotourism, their attitudes towards ecotourism development will be subjected to bias. As a result, the promotion of ecotourism since 2000 resulted in an environmental crisis due to the campaign’s sole emphasis on economic development (i.e. the second stage) or only emphasized conservation, thus neglecting the industrial interests in the community, leaving residents uneasy about the implications of ecotourism (i.e. the third stage). Passive intervention and assistance from the state prior to 2000 (i.e. the first stage) resulted in the development of some good empirical models. Although the government has temporarily suspended the promotion of Taiwan’s ecotourism development, it still values community empowerment and is willing to make efforts and devote funds for community empowerment. With efforts resulting from community empowerment, we expect
Taiwan’s ecotourism to enter another development stage in line with sustainable development.

REFERENCES


(Appendix)
Guide to Authors

1. Submission of Manuscripts
   Three (3) hard copies of manuscripts should be sent to the Editor-in-Chief. A soft copy of the article in RTF or MS Word compatible format should also be submitted with final revised version of manuscript.

2. Preparation of Manuscripts
   The following instructions should be observed in preparing manuscripts. Articles that do not conform to these instructions may be returned to their authors for appropriate revision or may be delayed in the review process.

2.1 Readability
   Manuscripts should be written in clear, concise and grammatically correct English (British or American English throughout). The editors cannot undertake wholesale revisions of poorly written papers. Every paper must be free of unnecessary jargons and must be clearly readable by any specialist in Tourism management related disciplines. The abstract should be written in an explanatory style that will also be comprehensible to readers who are not experts in the subject matter.

2.2 General format
   Articles should be typed double-spaced on one side of A4 paper using Times New Roman font. Margins of 3cm should be allowed on each side.
   The order of the manuscript should be as follows: Title, Author(s), Abstract, Keywords, Main text (Introduction, Review of Literature, Definitions (if any), Materials and Methods, Results, Discussion), Acknowledgements (if any), References, Appendix (if any). This structure of the main text is not obligatory, but the paper must be logically presented. Footnotes should be avoided. The main text must be written with font size 12, justify, first indent 0.5 cm. Within each main section, two levels of subheadings are allowed and the titles must be with bold, bold and italic, italic respectively.

   The manuscript should contain the following information:

   a. Title
      Title should be brief and informative. The title should reflect the most important aspects of the article, in a preferably concise form of not more than 100 characters and spaces. Font size 14, capital letters, center alignment.

   b. By-line
      Names (size 11), e-mail and addresses of the authors. Phone and fax number should be also given (size 11, italic). No inclusion of scientific titles is necessary. In case of more than two authors, the corresponding author should be indicated with * in superscript. Authors from different institutions must be labeled with numbers in superscript after their names.

   c. Abstract
      A summary of the problem, the principal results and conclusions should be provided in the abstract. The abstract must be self-explanatory, preferably typed in one paragraph and limited to maximum of 250 words. It should not contain formulas, references or abbreviations.

   d. Keywords
      Keywords should not exceed five, not including items appearing in the title. The keywords should be supplied indicating the scope of the paper. Size 10, italic, justify.
Authors should include Abbreviations and Nomenclature listings when necessary.

e. **Introduction**

The introduction must clearly state the problem, the reason for doing the work, the hypotheses or theoretical predictions under consideration and the essential background. It should not contain equations or mathematical notation. The Introduction should also contain a brief survey of the relevant literature, so that a non-specialist reader could understand the significance of the presented results. Section numbering and headings begin here.

f. **Materials and Methods**

The Materials and Methods should provide sufficient details to permit repetition of the experimental or survey work. The technical description of methods should be given when such methods are new.

g. **Results**

Results should be presented concisely. Only in exceptional cases will it be permissible to present the same set of results in both table and figure. The results section should not be used for discussion.

h. **Discussion**

Discussion should point out the significance of the results, and place the results in the context of other work and theoretical background.

i. **Acknowledgement (if any)**

Acknowledgement should be placed in a separate paragraph at the end of the text, immediately before the list of references. It may include funding information too.

j. **References**

Publications cited in the text should be listed in a separate page of references. In the list of references, the arrangement should be alphabetical; all co-authors should be cited. The following style should be adhered to in writing references:


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All Tables should be typed on a separate page and numbered consecutively according to their sequence in the text. The text should include references to all tables. Vertical lines are not allowed but horizontal lines should be used to separate headings and to demarcate the limits of the table. A short descriptive title should be given at the top.

m. Figures
This should be produced with a good printer. The title of each figure should be given at the bottom. One original plus three copies should be sent.

n. Photographs
Photographic illustrations must be glossy, original prints mounted on light card. They should be identified in pencil on the reverse side. All illustrations should be in black and white; however authors who want to publish coloured illustrations will bear the cost of producing such illustrations.

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