

2003

A Study Of Destination Attractiveness Through Tourists' Perspectives : A Focus On Chiang Mai, Thailand

Chompunoot Morachat
Edith Cowan University

Recommended Citation

Morachat, C. (2003). *A Study Of Destination Attractiveness Through Tourists' Perspectives : A Focus On Chiang Mai, Thailand*. Retrieved from <https://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses/1504>

This Thesis is posted at Research Online.
<https://ro.ecu.edu.au/theses/1504>

Edith Cowan University

Copyright Warning

You may print or download ONE copy of this document for the purpose of your own research or study.

The University does not authorize you to copy, communicate or otherwise make available electronically to any other person any copyright material contained on this site.

You are reminded of the following:

- Copyright owners are entitled to take legal action against persons who infringe their copyright.
- A reproduction of material that is protected by copyright may be a copyright infringement. Where the reproduction of such material is done without attribution of authorship, with false attribution of authorship or the authorship is treated in a derogatory manner, this may be a breach of the author's moral rights contained in Part IX of the Copyright Act 1968 (Cth).
- Courts have the power to impose a wide range of civil and criminal sanctions for infringement of copyright, infringement of moral rights and other offences under the Copyright Act 1968 (Cth). Higher penalties may apply, and higher damages may be awarded, for offences and infringements involving the conversion of material into digital or electronic form.

Use of Thesis

This copy is the property of Edith Cowan University. However the literary rights of the author must also be respected. If any passage from this thesis is quoted or closely paraphrased in a paper or written work prepared by the user, the source of the passage must be acknowledged in the work. If the user desires to publish a paper or written work containing passages copied or closely paraphrased from this thesis, which passages would in total constitute an infringing copy for the purpose of the Copyright Act, he or she must first obtain the written permission of the author to do so.

**A STUDY OF DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS THROUGH TOURISTS'
PERSPECTIVES: A FOCUS ON CHIANG MAI, THAILAND**

by

Chompunoot (Ratchata) Morachat

**EDITH COWAN UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY**

**A dissertation submitted to the School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure,
Faculty of Business and Public Management of
Edith Cowan University, Western Australia,**

In Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

**Principal Supervisor: Professor Ross Dowling
Associate Supervisor: Associate Professor Sybe Jongeling**

January 2003

ABSTRACT

This study seeks to gain insights into the overall attractiveness of a destination by applying the multi-attribute Fishbein model. This approach has been carried out twice before in the international context and this dissertation contributes further to the concepts of destination attractiveness especially through the application of multi-attribute models of measurement and analysis with the context of localisation. It also adds to the body of knowledge on the understanding of tourism product preference and perceptual attitudes held by tourists from specific geographical origins to the South-East Asian region, specifically within Thailand.

The study investigated (i) tourists' perceived overall attractiveness of Chiang Mai Province, Thailand, and (ii) the perceived importance of destination attributes to tourists, which contribute to its overall attractiveness.

Surveys employing a closed-ended, self-administered questionnaire were conducted among 614 international inbound tourists who visited the area during 1-30 April 2001. The participants were selected by using a proportionate stratified sampling method and included tourists from France, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, Germany, the United States, and Japan. Data were collected at the departure area of the Chiang Mai International Airport, provincial train station, hotels and resorts in the province.

The main findings of the study indicated that of eight destination attributes, tourists rated 'Cultural Features,' as the most *attractive* element of Chiang Mai. This is closely followed by 'Reception,' 'Cost/Price,' 'Natural Factors,' 'Services,' and 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities.' The attributes 'Accessibility' and 'Infrastructure' were rated lowest in attractiveness.

Generally, Japanese and Western tourists gave high ratings to all attractiveness features. Only the travellers from Taiwan rated the attractiveness features as very low.

In terms of the *importance* of attributes, tourists rated 'Cost/Price,' 'Cultural Features,' and 'Infrastructure,' as most important when visiting a region, while 'Accessibility' and 'Reception' was rated as less important.

Considering the influence of tourists' internal and external characteristics on the perception of attribute importance, the research indicated the following outcomes:

- *Travel motivation*: the result indicated that tourists who were categorised in a 'higher motivational level' of Pearce's 'Travel Career Ladder' appear to show greater interest in 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' and 'Cost/Price' than tourists who have a lower motivational level.
- *Travel purpose*: while all respondents were interested in leisure activities, only those who travelled for educational experiences and business purposes placed greater importance on the 'Cultural Features.'
- *Gender*: male tourists gave more importance to the 'Infrastructure' than female counterparts, whereas females rated 'Reception' of greater importance.

- *Age*: younger people (under 25) and older visitors (35 and more) considered 'Services' important, while visitors in the 25 to 34 age groups rated 'Services' of minor importance.
- *Occupation*, white-collar visitors rated 'Reception' as important, whereas those who were unemployed and visitors who did not have a regular income (ie. students) rated 'Reception' of less importance.
- *Income*: people with higher incomes rated 'Natural Factors' more highly than those in the lower income category.
- *Marital status*, married people gave more importance to 'Natural Factors,' 'Accessibility,' and 'Reception' than those who were single or never married.
- *Family size*: tourists who have children (under 18 years of age) in their household perceived 'Accessibility' as important, whereas those without children gave it a lower rating.

The study concludes with a discussion on the implications of this research for tourism in the Chiang Mai province of Thailand.

DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis does not, to the best of my knowledge and belief:

- (i) incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;
- (ii) contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or
- (iii) contain any defamatory material.

Sign:

A black rectangular box redacting the signature of the author.

Date: 24/01/2003

Chompunoot (Ratchata) Morachat

TO

My very dearly beloved late father – **BOONYASET RATCHATA**, whose great love and who most highly valued learning and education, has inspired me to come this far.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my most gratitude to my principal supervisor, Professor Ross Dowling and associate supervisor, Associate Professor Sybe Jongeling for their considerable support, and encouragement. Without their kind assistance and guidance, this study would have never been accomplished.

My deepest thanks go to Edith Cowan University for providing me a partial scholarship for the Ph.D. programme and to the Australian Government for funding this research project through the International Research Postgraduate Scholarship, administered by Edith Cowan University.

I would like to thank Professor John Renner and Associate Professor Jim Cross, whose initiation of the Educational Joint-Project Coordination between Rajabhat Institute, Thailand and Edith Cowan University provided me with the opportunity to join the project and obtain my degree.

Special thanks go to Dr Judith Rochecouste for her tireless and patient proofreading and correcting my English and to Associate Professor Mark Hackling of the Graduate School for his kind contributions to my study achievement. Also my special thanks and acknowledgment go to my colleagues, Ajarn Chaowprapa Chuesathuchon, and Ajarn Pawthai Wonglao at Rajabhat Institute Ubon Ratchathani for their kind assistance and contribution in statistical analysis process as well as to the students from Chiang Mai University, Naresuen University, and Rajabhat Institute Chiang Mai for their

great assistance in my data collection. My deepest thanks are extended to my student fellows, Emmanuel O. Tetteh from Ghana, and Alvin Lee from Malaysia for their ideas, comments, suggestions, and encouragement, which contribute to the completion of my work.

My most gratitude is also due to so many friends for their good warm friendship, assistance, and great encouragement. They are Mr Jurgen Lytko and Ms Jiraphan Hawkes, my host families, Mr. Vijitchai and Mrs Yupin Intharaprasert, the owners of a Thai restaurant, Ms Kittima Juengsuwadee, for her 10,000 baht funding of my data collection process, Ms Nalinee Thongprasert, Ms Chayada Danuwong, and a few to name.

Personally, I thank my family – my mother, my husband, and my dearest four children – TingNoy, Mu, Jing, and Santa, who have loved, cared, cooperated, inspired, and encouraged me when my spirits and morale were down, especially my loving youngest son – Santa, who had struggled with me side by side through over three years in Perth. He became my 'bread provider' when my back was against the wall with both a limited time frame and financial difficulties and I had to devote my time and all of the resources to my study.

Lastly, I deeply thank God for all His blessings and for making me realise that the long suffering sojourn for a Ph.D. is finally coming to an end.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	i
DECLARATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
TABLE OF CONTENT	viii
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.0 Background and the Significance of the Study	1
1.1 Study Location: Chiang Mai, Thailand	7
1.2 Research Objectives	9
1.3 Research Questions	10
1.4 Hypotheses	10
1.5 Research Methodology	13
1.6 Organisation of the Dissertation	13
1.7 Limitations of the Study	15
1.8 Conclusion	16
2 TOURISM SYSTEM	17
2.0 Introduction	17
2.1 The Concept of Tourism	18
2.2 Definition of Tourism	19
2.3 The Tourism System	22
2.4 The Demand Side – Tourist Markets	23
2.4.1 Tourist Market Features	24
2.4.2 Defining ‘tourist’	25
2.4.3 Tourist Behaviour	27
2.4.4 Factors Influencing Tourist Characteristics and Behaviour	28
2.4.4.1 Psychological Factors	29
2.4.4.2 Cultural Factors	37
2.4.4.3 Social Factors	37
2.4.4.4 Personal Factors	38
2.4.4.5 Travel Purpose	39
2.4.5 The Tourist Decision Process: Post Purchase Evaluation	39

	Page	
2.5	The Supply Side – Tourism Products	40
2.5.1	Definition of Tourist Products	41
2.5.2	Tourist Destination	41
	2.5.2.1 The Concept of Tourist Destination	41
	2.5.2.2 Definition of Tourist Destination	42
2.5.3	The Components of Tourist Destination	43
	2.5.3.1 Attractions	44
	2.5.3.2 Facilities, Reception and Services	45
	2.5.3.3 Accessibility	47
	2.5.3.4 Image and the Attitudes of Tourist	47
	2.5.3.5 Cost/Price to the Customer	48
2.5.4	The Nature of Tourism Product	49
	2.5.4.1 Service-orientation	50
	2.5.4.2 Inseparability	50
	2.5.4.3 Intangibility	51
	2.5.4.4 Perishability	51
	2.5.4.5 Interdependence	52
	2.5.4.6 The High Fixed Cost of Service Operation	52
2.6	Conclusion	53
3	MEASUREMENT OF THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF TOURIST DESTINATION	55
3.0	Introduction	55
3.1	Definition of Attractiveness of Tourist Destination	55
3.2	The Previous Studies on Measuring Destination Attractiveness	56
3.3	Measuring Destination Attractiveness	69
3.4	Measuring Scale	73
3.5	Segmentation-based Approach	76
3.6	Attributes Used in Judging the Attractiveness of Tourist Destination	80
3.7	The Selected Attributes for the Measurement of the Attractiveness	83
3.8	A Conceptual Framework	85
	3.8.1 Multi-attribute Attitude Model: Fishbein Model	87
	3.8.2 Internal and External Characteristics of Tourist	89
3.9	Travel Motivation Application for the Thesis	91
3.10	An Operational Framework: The Attractiveness Model and Associated Hypotheses	93
3.11	Conclusion	96

	Page
4	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 97
4.0	Introduction 97
4.1	Research Methodology 97
4.2	Sample Selection 98
4.3	Research Design 100
4.4	Research Instrument 101
4.5	Pilot Study 102
4.6	Face Validity and Reliability 103
4.7	Data Collection 104
4.8	Data Analysis 105
4.9	Coding of Study Variables 108
4.10	Ethical Consideration 109
4.11	Conclusion 110
5	STUDY LOCATION: THAILAND AND CHIANG MAI PROVINCE 111
5.0	Introduction 111
5.1	Thailand 111
5.1.1	Land and People 111
5.1.2	Tourism in Thailand 114
5.1.2.1	Historical Background of Thai Tourism 115
5.1.2.2	The Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) 118
5.1.2.3	The Responsibility of the TAT 119
5.2	Chiang Mai Province 121
5.2.1	Geographical Features 121
5.2.2	Historical Background 123
5.2.3	People and Language 124
5.2.4	Travel and Tourism Setting in Chiang Mai 125
5.2.4.1	Travel and Tourism in Chiang Mai 125
5.2.4.2	Tourism Product in Chiang Mai 126
5.3	Conclusion 127
6	PRESENTATION OF ANALYSIS RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS 129
6.0	Introduction 129
6.1	Profiles of Respondents 129
6.1.1	Description of Respondents 129
6.1.2	Discussion 135
6.2	Analysis of Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai 137
6.2.1	Results 137
6.2.2	Discussion 140
6.2.3	Test of Hypothesis 148
6.3	Conclusion 160

	Page
7	PRESENTATION OF ANALYSIS REUSLTS AND DISCUSSIONS (Continued) 162
7.0	Introduction 162
7.1	Analysis of Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes 162
7.1.1	Confirmation of the Scales 163
7.1.2	Results 168
7.1.3	Test of Hypothesis 170
7.1.4	Discussion 176
7.2	Analysis of the Overall Attractiveness of Chiang Mai and the Relationship with the Intention to Repeat Visitation 184
7.2.1	Results 184
7.2.2	Test of Hypothesis and Discussions 185
7.3	Analysis of the Relationship between Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes and their Internal and External Characteristics 188
7.3.1	Results 188
7.3.2	Test of Hypothesis and Discussions 190
7.4	Conclusion 211
8	SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSIONS 213
8.0	Introduction 213
8.1	Summary of Significant Findings 213
8.1.1	An Investigation of the Tourists' Perceived Overall Attractiveness of Chiang Mai Province and the Relationship with Likelihood to Revisit the Region 214
8.1.2	An Examination of the Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes and the Relationship with their Internal and External Characteristics 217
8.2	Implications and Recommendations 222
8.2.1	Practical Implications 222
8.2.1.1	Marketing 222
8.2.1.2	General Comments with Specific Focus on Japanese Tourists 228
8.2.2	Tourism Research Perspective 227
8.2.3	Implications for Tourism Theory 237
8.3	Limitations 238
8.4	Conclusions 240
	BIBLIOGRAPHY 242
	APPENDICES 260

APPENDICES

		Page
A	A Survey Questionnaire	261
B (B1 - B6)	Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Respondents from the Six Country of Origin	270
C (C1 - C8)	ANOVA and Scheffé Post-Hoc Test for the Eight Attractiveness Attributes	277
D (D1 - D6)	Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Respondents from the Six Country of Origin	282
E (E1 - E8)	ANOVA and Scheffé Post-Hoc Test for the Eight Importance Attributes	289
F (F1 - F8)	Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-Attributes by Geographical Region	294
G	Relationship between Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes and their Internal and External Characteristics	299

TABLES

	Page	
1	The Different Features between Goods and Service Products	50
2	A Summary of Previous Studies on the Attractiveness of Tourist Destinations	58
3	Types of Scales and Their Properties	74
4	Key Categories of Segmentation-based Variables	78
5	Determinants of Tourist Destination Attractiveness	83
6	Selected Attributes for Judging the Attractiveness of Tourist Destination	84
7	A Summary of Segmentation-based Variables	91
8	Samples Distribution	99
9	Descriptive Data on the Number of Participants	100
10	Number of Foreign Tourist Arrivals and their Average Length of Stay 1960 – 1999 (selected years)	114
11	Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Country of Origin	139
12	Differences in Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai Based on Tourist's Country of Origin	149
13	Scheffé Post-Hoc Comparison Test for Taiwan Compared to Other Five Countries	150
14	Differences in Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Geographical Region	155
15	Factor Analysis of Importance Attributes for Importance Rating Scale	166
16	Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Country of Origin	169

	Page	
17	Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes Based on Country of Origin	171
18	Scheffé Post-Hoc Comparison Test for Japan Compared to the Other Five Countries	172
19	Scheffé Post-Hoc Comparison Test for Taiwan Compared to the Other Five Countries	173
20	Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Geographical Region	174
21	Summed Score ($\sum_{i=1}^n AiIi$) of Overall Attractiveness for each country and ranking	185
22	Relationship between the Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes and Tourists' Travel Motivation, Travel Purpose, and Socio-demographics	189
23	The Comparison of the Average Rating on the <i>Attractiveness</i> and <i>Importance</i> of the Destination for Japanese Visitors	229

FIGURES

		Page
1	Conceptual Framework of Tourism System	22
2	Model of Tourist Buying Behaviour	27
3	Factors Influencing Tourist's Characteristics and Buying Behaviour	29
4	The Travel Career Ladder for Theme Park Settings	34
5	A Basic Model of Product Evaluation	40
6	A Conceptual Framework of the Investigation of Tourist Destination Attractiveness	86
7	The Model of Tourist Characteristics	90
8	Applied Travel Career Ladder	92
9	Hypothesised Model Indicating the Relationship between Variables	95
10	Map of Thailand	113
11	The Organisation Chart of the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)	119
12	Map of Chiang Mai	122
13	Country of Origin of Respondents	130
14	Geographical Region of Respondents	130
15	Travel Purpose of Respondents	131
16	Travel Motivation of Respondents	131
17	Age Groups of Respondents	132
18	Gender of Respondents	132
19	Education Level of Respondents	133

		Page
20	Occupation of Respondents	133
21	Yearly Income of Respondents	134
22	Marital Status of Respondents	134
23	Family Size of Respondents	135
24	Intention to Revisit the Destination	135

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0 BACKGROUND AND THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Travel and tourism are considered the world's largest generator of jobs and wealth (World Travel and Tourism Council - WTTC, 2000). According to the World Travel Organisation (WTO), the international tourism industry contributed to 112 million jobs worldwide and over US\$2.5 trillion in income in 1989. In 1996, 593 million international tourists travelled abroad (WTO, 1998). In 2000, this number reached 664 million, and is expected to increase to 1 billion by 2010, and 1.6 billion by 2020, more than a three-fold increase on tourism travel in the 1900s (WTO, 1999b).

The industry has undergone rapid growth since the second half of the 20th century throughout the world. It has emerged from many aspects such as the economic, technological, social and political changes have occurred after World War II (Burkart & Medlik, 1981; Hall, 2000; Murphy, 1985; Smith, 1998; Weaver & Oppermann, 2000). International inbound tourist arrivals have increased from twenty-five million in 1950 to 657 million in 1999 (World Travel and Tourism Council –WTTC, 2000). Domestic tourism statistics are more difficult to quantify, but these are thought to outnumber international arrivals by as much as ten times in many countries such as China, Republic of Korea, Japan, Singapore, Thailand, and Australia (Weaver & Oppermann, 2000).

Specifically, the number of tourists visiting the Asia - Pacific region rose to 104 million arrivals in 2000 and is forecast to reach 190 million in 2010. These figures imply that the average annual growth rate will peak at 6.7 per cent (WTO, 1999b).

In terms of income, in 1999, this sector generated 200 million jobs, or 8 per cent of the world's employment, and \$US3.5 trillion, or 11.7 per cent of the world's GDP. In 2000, the global tourism receipts reached US\$ 527 billion (WTTC, 2000).

The continued growth of the leisure society has been emphasised by Page and Dowling (2002, p. 6) who claim 'a greater propensity of the world's population are now travelling and engaging in holidays in their new-found leisure time.' This will result in 'tourism increasingly being recognised as a part of a global process of change and development (known as globalisation)' (Page & Dowling, 2002, p. 6). All of this has been made possible by the vast improvements in both national and international transportation, tourism infrastructure, and increased intra-regional and international marketing strategies that have made tourism the fastest growing industry in the world (Var, Toh, & Khan, 1998).

Tourism is vitally important to many countries because of its contribution to foreign exchange earnings, wages, tax payments, and job creation. Correspondingly, development and building programmes to service national and international tourism have also been implemented, brought about by competitiveness between overseas tourist destinations.

The competition for drawing tourists' attention begins with advertising, the essence of which is projecting a place identity through image. The success of this image is dependent on a country's attractiveness that is based largely upon its physical

attributes. The image of a tourist destination is one important element in the selection of a travel destination. An individual decision is determined not only by the destination's potential for enjoyment, but also by the perception of its atmosphere or attractiveness (Chon, 1991). Destination attractiveness is, therefore, predominantly important because they create the potential imagery of an area in the tourist's mind, allowing him or her a pre-taste of a particular destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991).

There are a number of elements that can contribute to, and enhance, the general attractiveness of a tourist area. These include a pleasant climate, friendly people, low cost of living, favorable rates of exchange, and ease of accessibility. All of these factors can be very significant, but do not determine by themselves the tourist character of an area. Indeed, the presence in the area of 'something interesting or unusual to see or to do' or, in other words, 'a set of natural or man-made attractions' still plays an important role in the tourist's decision making process. (Ferrario, 1979, p. 18). Without these attractions tourism cannot exist and there would be little need for specific transportation facilities, tourist services, and marketing strategies (Gunn, 1994).

In recognition of the importance of tourism in contributing to the world economy, several studies of destination image have been conducted in the global context. From Pike's (2002) investigation, there have been 142 research reports on the image studies during the period of 1973 - 2000. These studies provide preliminary

information with regard to how the image of a destination is and offer implications for understanding all types of behaviour-related issues, including motivation, decision-making, perception of service quality, and satisfaction (e.g. see Calantone, Benedetto, Halam & Bojanic, 1989; Echtner & Goodrich, 1977; Gunn, 1988; Kale & Weir, 1986; Lue, Crompton & Stewart, 1996; Mayo, 1973; Milman & Pizam, 1995; 1978; Pearce, 1982; Phelps, 1986; Pizam, Neumann & Reichel, 1978; Rittichainuwat, Qu & Brown, 2001; Tepachai & Waryszak, 2000)

In Gunn's (1988) study, he identified two sources of tourists' destination images. The first is an 'organic image,' or the sum of all information that has not been deliberately directed by advertising or promotion. In other words, this type of image deals with tourists' impressions of a destination without physically visiting the place. 'Induced image' is the image formed by deliberate portrayal and promotion by various organisations involved with tourism. Building on this theory, Fakeye and Crompton (1991), adopted this model and included a third image by incorporating the actual visitation experiences into a 'complex image.' These models now describe the relationship between organic, induced, and complex images that incorporated experiences at the destination.

Besides these studies on destination image theory, a further approach to discover the complexity of destination images has been taken by several tourism researchers. For example, Gartner and Hunt (1987), in their analysis of state image change over a 12-year period, revealed that a mix of organic and induced influences determined image

change for non-resident visitors. Gartner (1989), using Gartner and Hunt's survey data, further applied a multidimensional scaling analysis to help marketers target specific market segments effectively. Echtner and Ritchie (1993), in their efforts to develop a more rigorous image construct, derived various image attributes in measuring tourists' images of overseas destinations. Their study made a significant contribution to the scale development in destination image measurement.

While the previous studies of critical attributes contributing to images of tourist destinations are somewhat plentiful, there has been limited research on destination attractiveness. These include the studies conducted by Gearing, Swart and Var (1974), Var, Beck and Loftus, (1977), Ritchie and Zins (1978), Tang and Rochananond (1990), Hu and Ritchie (1993), Kim (1998) and Chen and Hsu, (2000). In their investigation, the main touristic attributes that have 'universal importance' in influencing tourists' evaluations of the overall attractiveness of a tourist destination have been examined. For example, Gearing et al. (1974) conducted research for the Turkish government, which measured the touristic attractiveness of a range of regions. Their study revealed that 'natural beauty and climate' were the most critical factors to the touristic attractiveness of any region in Turkey. These findings were supported by Ritchie and Zins' study (1978), whose result indicated that 'natural beauty and climate' was the most significant attribute or factor influencing tourists' evaluations of the touristic attractiveness of the City of Quebec, Canada. Kim (1998) found that among the twenty selected attributes, '*seasonal and cultural attractiveness*' was scored highest. Chen and Hsu (2000)

identified image attributes measuring the total attractiveness of overseas destinations to Korean tourists and image attributes affecting Korean tourist choice behaviours of the trip planning time frame, budgeted travel cost, and length of trip.

As far as the investigation of image and attractiveness of tourist destination literature is concerned, to the best of the investigator's knowledge, only the work of Goodrich (1977), Tang and Rochananond (1990) and Hu and Ritchie (1993) applied the Fishbein's multi-attribute model to their investigations. However, the three research reports were centered only on the international and country contexts. The locality such as a particular province and the influence of tourists' factors, that is, country of origin and the internal and external characteristics of tourists were not yet focused upon.

The present study is designed to counter the lack of studies on the common attributes of the touristic attractiveness of a certain destination. There is a lamentable gap in the tourism literature on this theme. The study, therefore, is based upon two main sources of existing knowledge in the fields of travel and tourism research and consumer behaviour. The first is concerned with the study of the touristic attractiveness of a particular tourist destination. The second is related to the influence of tourist consumers' internal and external characteristics on the perceptions of attribute importance of a tourist destination. Indeed, this thesis is an attempt to fill the gaps in the destination attractiveness literature by applying a multi-attribute Fishbein model to investigate the overall attractiveness of a localised

area and capture the tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes that contribute to the overall attractiveness. At the same time, the relationship between tourists' characteristics and the perception of the importance of a tourist destination was also examined.

The results obtained will overcome the deficiencies mentioned above. At the same time, the findings will shed some light on tourists' perceptions of attribute importance and the destination attractiveness which will be of use for destination planners and for tourism marketing experts involved in the development of the travel and tourism industry.

1.1 STUDY LOCATION: CHIANG MAI, THAILAND

The model of the attractiveness measurement is tested in Chiang Mai Province, a high profile tourist destination in Thailand.

The highest rate of growth in visitor arrivals to Thailand in recent years has been recognised in Asian markets. In 1998 Thailand was ranked as Asia's third-most-popular tourist destination after united Hong Kong and China, and Singapore (Tourism Authority of Thailand - TAT, 2001). The number of tourist arrivals to Thailand increased 106-fold in 40 years, from 81,340 in 1960 to 8.6 million in 1999 (TAT, 2001). In addition, the tourism industry was the second-highest source of foreign exchange for the country in 1999 (Thailand Board of Investment - BOI, 2002). This growth can be attributed to a number of factors, for example, the

attractiveness of natural and cultural features, easy accessibility, the number of first class hotels and resorts, a variety of food choices, and low cost or prices in exchange rates.

In the past, the tourism industry in Thailand was concentrated in and around Bangkok, however, during the past decade there have been some significant changes in the structure of foreign tourist arrivals. For example, between 1985–1994, the proportion of foreign female tourists, first-time visitors and the middle age visitors (45–54 years) who tend to be the big-spenders, has increased (TAT, 1998). Shopping expenditure involving locally manufactured goods, more than imported products, has occupied the highest share and is now higher than the expenditure on accommodation (TAT, 2001).

To respond to this changing direction, many locations in Thailand have been ranked and categorised according to their tourism potential. The tourism potential is determined by using some criteria that serve as proxies for attractiveness, infrastructure, accessibility, and the number of tourism sites in the province. The current top five tourism destinations are Bangkok, Chiang Mai, Chonburi (Pattaya), Phuket, and Songkla (Had Yai) (TAT, 2001).

According to the TAT (2000), Chiang Mai Province has been one of the fastest growing tourist destinations for international markets in Thailand. Surrounded by numerous natural and cultural resources such as Doi Inthanon, Doi Pui, and Ob

Luang National Parks, historical monuments/ruins, Buddhist temples, and cultural festivals, Chiang Mai offers a wide range of unique and distinctive natural and cultural tourist attractions. Although Chiang Mai is being recognised as one of the fastest growing tourist destinations for international tourists, no study has been conducted in relation to its attractiveness as perceived by the international visitors. Such unique and distinctive cultural and natural wealth as mentioned above are the reasons why Chiang Mai was considered to be an ideal setting for this research study.

1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The aims of the study consist of the following:

1. To examine international tourists' perceived attractiveness of Chiang Mai;
2. To investigate tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes, which contribute to the overall attractiveness of tourist destinations;
3. To identify the overall or global attractiveness of Chiang Mai as a tourist destination;
4. To investigate the relationship between the perceived overall attractiveness and the likelihood of repeat visitation by tourists;
5. To examine the relationship between tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes and their psychological and socio-demographic characteristics such as travel motivation, trip purpose, and gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In order to achieve the objectives above, the following research questions have been devised:

1.3.1 How do the tourists from six countries of origin perceive the destination attractiveness of Chiang Mai?

1.3.2 How do tourists perceive the importance of destination attributes that contribute to the overall attractiveness of destination?

1.3.3 What is the overall or 'global' attractiveness of Chiang Mai across tourists' six countries of origin?

1.3.4 What is the relationship between tourists' perceived overall attractiveness and the intention to revisit the destination?

1.3.5 What is the relationship between perceptions of attribute importance and tourists' internal and external characteristics in terms of travel motivation, travel purpose, gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size?

1.4 HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses were derived from the research questions as follows:

Research Question 1:

H 1.1: Tourists residing in different place of origin (or residence) will differ significantly in their perceptions of the overall attractiveness of a tourist destination.

H 1.2: There is a stronger affect or preference among Western tourists on the attractiveness of Chiang Mai, as compared to Asian tourists.

Research Question 2:

H 2.1: The relative importance of attributes in contributing to the overall attractiveness of the destination will differ in the perceptions of the international tourists from the six different countries of origin.

H 2.2: There is a stronger perceived importance of destination attributes among Asian tourists on certain primary tourism products such as 'Natural Factors,' and 'Cultural Features' of Chiang Mai, whereas Western visitors will give more importance to secondary tourism products such as 'Recreational and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' 'Services,' and 'Cost/Price.'

Research Question 3 and 4:

H 3: The higher preferred perceived overall attractiveness of the destination will be positively related to the likelihood to revisit the destination.

Research Question 5:

H 4.1: Tourists in higher motivational levels are more likely to rate 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features' more importantly whereas those in lower levels will be likely to place more importance on secondary tourism products or superstructure

such as 'Recreational and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' 'Services,' and 'Cost/Price.'

H 4.2: The perceived importance of destination attributes will be influenced by nature of an individual's travel purpose.

H 4.3: The perceived importance of destination attributes will differ in relation to tourists' gender.

H 4.4: Tourists' age will influence the perceived importance of destination attributes.

H 4.5: The education level of tourists will affect the perceptions of importance of destination attributes.

H 4.6: Tourists' occupation will have an influence on the perceptions of importance of destination attributes.

H 4.7: The perceived importance of destination attributes will differ in relation to tourists' income.

H 4.8: Tourists' marital status will be associated with the perceptions of the importance of the attributes of tourist destination.

H 4.9: The perceived importance of destination attributes will differ in relation to tourists' family size.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study has employed a closed-ended, self-administered survey questionnaire to ask international tourists who can understand English to rate the attractiveness of Chiang Mai with a five point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Not Attractive) to 5 (Outstandingly Attractive) and from 1 (Not at all significant) to 5 (Most significant). Descriptive analyses (ie. arithmetic average, frequency, and standard deviation) were utilised to analyse the respondents' profile. ANOVA and Scheffé Post-Hoc Tests, Independent Samples *t*-test, Pearson's chi-square, and Spearman's rho Nonparametric Correlations were utilised as the statistical approaches to test the hypotheses and the relationship between variables. Additionally, a Fishbein Model was applied to obtain the overall or global attractiveness score for the six countries of origin.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE DISSERTATION

This dissertation consists of eight chapters. Chapter One is the introduction. It includes the background to the study, the significance of the study, study location, research objectives, research questions, hypotheses, research methodology, organisation of the thesis, and the limitations of the study.

Chapter Two is composed of a conceptual foundation for the research. A review of previously published literature concerning the tourism system completes this task. Tourist market characteristics such as tourist behaviour, factors that influence their characteristics and behaviour, and tourist decision process are featured in the chapter. Also, the chapter presents the tourism products, that is, the tourist destination, its nature and components.

Chapter Three provides a definition of destination attractiveness and the importance of destination attributes. It outlines previous studies on the measurement of destination attractiveness, measuring attractiveness, scales for measurement, a segmentation-based approach, and attributes or determinants of attractiveness of the destination. The demonstration of a working model or conceptual framework for this study, selected attributes for the measures, a conceptual framework, travel motivation applied for this study, and an operational framework and associated hypotheses have also been included.

Chapter Four presents the research methodology which covered samples and sampling procedures, research design, survey instruments, pilot study, validity and reliability of the instrument, data collection, means of analysis of the collected data, and ethical considerations.

Chapter Five explains the study location, that is, Thailand and Chiang Mai. This part has described the survey location in relation to its general attributes and tourism

settings in particular.

Chapter Six has presented the respondents' profile, analysis results of tourists' perceived attractiveness of the destination and discussions.

Chapter Seven continues the presentation of the results and discusses results regarding the overall attractiveness of the tourist destination and its relationship with tourists' intention to repeat visitation. This chapter has included also the results and discussions of tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes and its relationship with tourists' internal and external characteristics.

Chapter Eight presents the summary, implications and recommendations, and conclusions of the research.

1.7 LIMITATIONS

This study is likely to be influenced by several factors such as time, budget, and the difficulty in validating the expressed opinions of respondents. In terms of time, the investigator is an overseas student from Thailand who was allowed to stay in Australia for a limited time only. In regard to budget, the research has been partially financed by Edith Cowan University, but the research budget was limited. The last constraint is the difficulty in validating the expressed opinions of respondents. The sample of tourists whose opinions were obtained, and on which the results of the study are based, are that human perceptions which are based on personal and cultural beliefs and may be

influenced by promotional activities and previous experiences. This represents only one particular perspective and thus, the problem of bias cannot be avoided.

1.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the background and significance of the study, study location, research objectives, research questions, hypotheses, research methodology, organisation of the thesis, and the limitations of the study.

The next chapter will focus on the review of previously published literature relevant to the research. It includes the tourism system, tourism markets and tourism products.

CHAPTER 2

TOURISM SYSTEM

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The tourism phenomenon consists of two essential components, that is, an origin and a destination. The first is represented by tourists or tourism demands and the second is described as tourism supply (Uysal, 2000). The two components together form the tourism system, which is the result of demand, and supply interaction. As apparently suggested by Gunn (1994) the tourism system may be conceptualised within a demand-supply framework. The demand side of the framework captures the nature of tourist markets. In particular, demand analysis may focus on the tourist and his/her characteristics. The supply side relates to the attractions and attributes of the tourism product. This relationship between the demand and supply can be discussed within the notion of product quality or value from a consumer's (ie. the tourist's) perspective.

This study limits itself to the measurement of tourism products evaluated by consumers, ie. tourists after experiencing products - the tourist destination by focusing on the attractiveness of the area and the importance of destination attributes in tourists' perspective. In the existing literature on tourist destination attractiveness, many approaches and frameworks have been suggested to measure consumer perceptions of the attractiveness of the tourism product (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Ferrario, 1979; Gearing et al. 1974; Goodrich, 1979; Haahti, 1986; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Kim, 1998; Ritchie & Zins, 1978; Tang & Rochananond, 1990; Var et al. 1977). This thesis develops a research framework based on tourism destination

attractiveness and it attempts to measure consumer perceptions of the importance of destination attributes based on a Thai tourist destination.

This chapter is organised as follows: the first section expands the concept of tourism (2.1); the second concerns the definition of tourism (2.2); the third describes the tourism system (2.3); the fourth includes market features or the demand side (2.4), and the fifth examines the supply side or tourism products (2.5).

2.1 THE CONCEPT OF TOURISM

An understanding of the concept and definition of tourism is necessary for the purpose of the study, since it helps the investigator to examine the phenomenon systematically. For this reason, the concept of tourism is described, and a precise definition and the scope of tourism are also presented.

The concept of tourism gives ‘a notional, theoretical framework’ for examining a tourism phenomenon. It provides the essential features of tourism, which are different from or similar to other related phenomenon. Tourism has several features or characteristics as explained by Burkart and Medlik (1981, p. 42):

2.2.1 Its complexity, which results from the nature of the interrelationships among several agents such as, people, places, and products. Here, tourism is considered as an amalgam of phenomena and relationships, rather than a single one.

2.2.2 The state of the interrelationship to which the three main elements are relevant: the journey, a static element, and the stay. This means that people travel from their place of permanent residence by way of transport, access many transit places, and their stay at the tourist destination.

2.2.3 The duration of the stay which must be for a short temporary period of time, lasting a few days, weeks, or months.

2.2.4 The purpose of travel must be for pleasure only, not for employment or paid work or business-related activity.

The concept of tourism is clearly stated by Hunziker & Krapf (1951, cited in Burkart & Medlik, 1981, p. 40), that is, 'tourism is the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity.'

From this concept, it follows that tourism is a mix of phenomena, which includes the event of people moving or travelling to a destination for the purpose of leisure and temporarily staying at the destination. Therefore, tourism is a certain 'use of leisure and a particular form of recreation, but does not include all uses of leisure nor all forms of recreation. It includes much travel, but not all forms of travel. Conceptually, tourism is, therefore, distinguished in particular from the related concepts of leisure and recreation on the one hand, and from travel and migration on the other hand,' (Burkart & Medlik, 1981, p. 42).

2.2 DEFINITION OF TOURISM

Tourism has many aspects and it is not easy to include all of them in a simple definition. Moreover, it means different things to different people as suggested by Burkart and Medlik, (1981, p. 43) that tourism definitions have 'evolved through experience over time, provide instruments for particular statistical, legislative, and industrial purposes; there are different technical definitions appropriate to different purposes,'. From a thorough review of literature, it may be concluded that there are

definitions that are either basic or related to a mono-disciplinary definition, a statistical, and a system analysis definition.

In the basic definition, some specific elements such as length of stay, purpose of visit, and the types of travel by individuals or groups should be considered, as defined by Burkart and Medlik (1981). Here tourism is viewed as the temporary, short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work for other than business or vocational reasons, and their activities during their stay at these destinations. Most of the basic definitions in tourism today can be accommodated within this boundary.

Mono-disciplinary definitions concentrate on the motivation, pleasure and tourism experiences of people. For instance, Cohen (1974, p. 533) defines the tourist as 'a voluntary, contemporary traveler, traveling in the expectation of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non-recurrent round trip.'

Statistical definitions are normally adopted by government and international organisations such as the World Tourism Organization (WTO), the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). In this area, tourism is defined as 'the sum of the number of arriving and departing, time spent, the duration of their tours, the purpose of stay, etc.' (Chung, 1991, p. 18).

The last type of tourism definition, allows the widest perspective by adopting a system analysis approach. From this wide perspective, as defined by Leiper (1995), tourism compasses the systematic matching of the specific elements of tourism

system, that is, tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions, and a tourist industry. This definition is more functional than other definitions and is often used in tourism planning.

However, according to Leiper (1995), defining tourism as a system 'seemed flawed.' He identifies the basic problem arising from this definition as '...the approach had unnecessarily confused tourism with the set of elements (system) which come into play when people go on touristic trips.' (p. 19). Accordingly, he suggests that the original meaning of tourism is likely to be the best alternative since it covers the range of tourism-related studies. In essence, tourism can be defined as 'the theories and practices of travelling and visiting places for leisure-related purposes,' (Leiper, 1995, p. 20).

However, the aforementioned definitions cannot entirely describe the phenomenon of tourism. Each definition gives certain quantitative and qualitative facets of tourism that serve as the basis for different research studies and tourism phenomenon.

Rather than for earning money, for this study, tourism is viewed as various forms of short-term travel and visits by people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, for the purpose of leisure (e.g. recreation, holidays, sports, etc.), education, visiting friends and relatives, business, and others, and utilities provided in the tourist destination.

2.3 THE TOURISM SYSTEM

The tourism industry has a dynamic component. This is because the popularity of the products and tourist markets change over time. The changing attractiveness of destinations, and their ability to draw tourists, is related to both the supply and the demand components of the tourism (market) system (Hall, 1998). Thus, the scope of tourism may be described in a conceptual framework as follows (Figure 1).

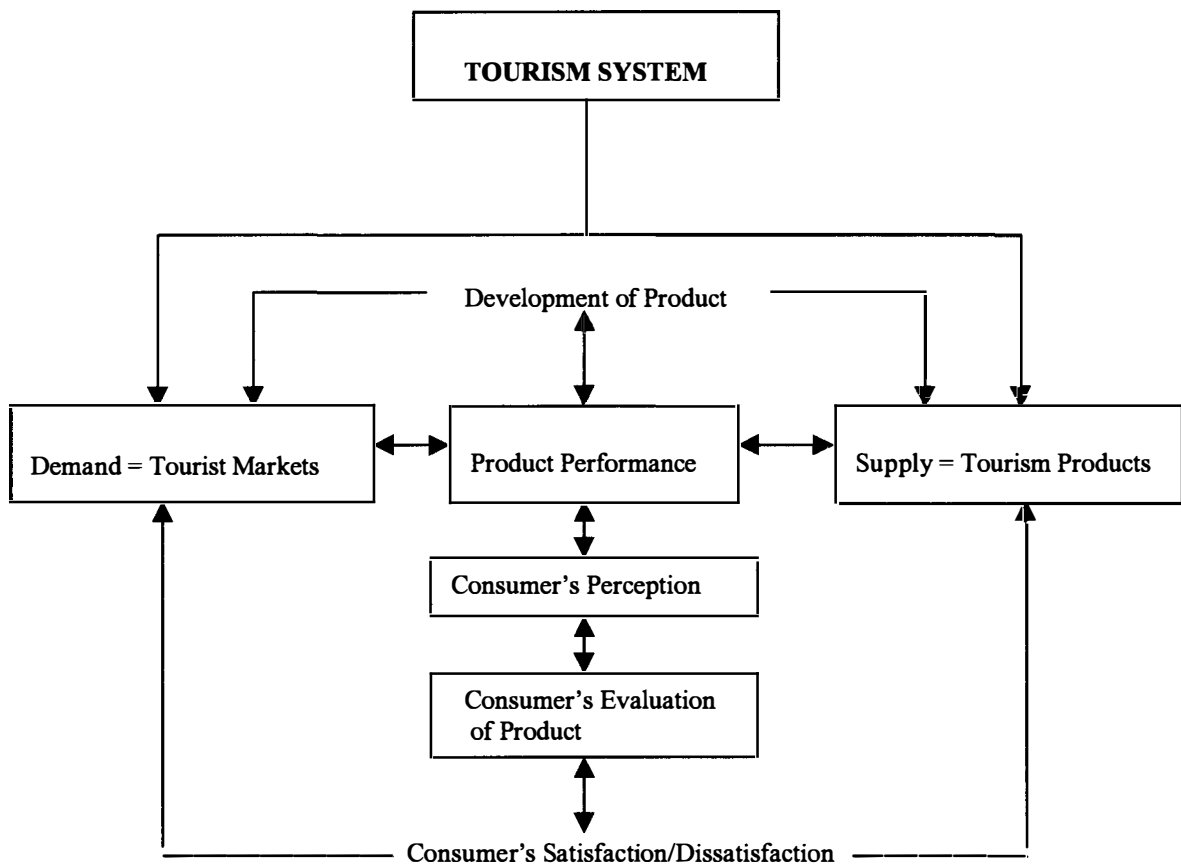


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of Tourism System

Above, the scope of tourism embraces the whole system of tourism that includes two main essential parts: (1) demand or tourist markets and (2) supply or the tourism products. The demand side focuses particularly on the tourist markets while the supply side of tourism comprises a wide range of products at tourist destinations. In

fact, product performance governs several components such as marketing strategies, product quality and value and product evaluation. These components continually link supply and demand in the tourism process. The involved elements are presented in the subsequent sections.

2.4 THE DEMAND SIDE – THE TOURIST MARKETS

Tourism products or activities initiate tourism demand. The demand in tourism is defined as ‘the process that alerts potential tourists to the existence of a particular destination,’ (Prideaux, 1999, p. 227). According to Prideaux (1999), the demand for services is collectively attributed with several factors such as transport, accommodation, recreation and entertainment (p. 227). Economists view markets as networks of dealings between the sellers and buyers of a product; a particular market is defined by reference to the product, the sellers who supply it, and the buyers who provide the demand for it (Middleton, 2001). In this sense, the tourist market is a need or wants that occurs to encourage tourism marketers and providers to respond by producing tourism products or services for sale.

Since there is a multiplicity of tourism products, so too is there a correspondingly multiplicity of tourist markets. Within this, are more or less homogeneous groups of tourists who behave similarly and who buy similar tourist products. It is the function of marketing in tourism to identify these groups, to influence the development of tourism products at the destinations, and to bring the information about products to potential tourists (Middleton, 2001). An understanding of tourist market’s demands is a starting point for the analysis of why tourism develops, who patronises specific destinations, and what appeals to clients (Hall & Page, 1999).

According to Dickman (1999, p. 201), demand refers to ‘the portion of a market that is interested in purchasing a product, and has the means and desire to do so.’ Applying this notion to tourism, demand may be explained as ‘ the total number of persons who travel, or wish to travel, to use tourist facilities and services at places away from their places of work and residence’ (Mathieson & Wall, 1982, p. 1). So in this context, demand is viewed through the relationship between individuals’ motivation to travel and their ability to do so.

2.4.1 Tourist Market Features

Tourist markets are formed by ‘a function of characteristics of the individual tourist such as their income, age, motivations and psychological make up, which will variously affect their propensity to travel for pleasure, their ability to travel and their choice of destinations’ (Morley, 1990, p. 5). Specifically, these characteristics form the demand for the characteristics and attributes of a tourist destination, their attractions, prices, and the effectiveness of the marketing of the destination.

According to Hall (1998, p. 52), a tourist market is considered to be ‘a defined group of consumers for a particular tourist product or range of tourist products.’ He further notes that how a market is defined is of great importance in determining the industry (supply) response to consumers’ perceived motivations, expectations and needs, and the long-term relationship between supply and demand in the tourism development process. He also states that the characteristics of tourist markets are heterogeneous and this results in the tourism market being divided into a number of segments that share a set of common purchasing and behavioural characteristics.

2.4.2 Defining 'tourists'

Tourism, after all, is a human experience, enjoyed, anticipated, and remembered by many people as a very important aspect of their lives. Therefore, the tourist is the main character in tourism system. Just as there is much confusion out of definitions of tourism, the term 'tourist' is also not easy to define. In fact, the term is variously defined for particular purposes. However, no matter how the term is defined, it is essential that the element of travel is fundamental, such as the purpose of travel, the time involvement, the residence of the traveller, the distance or geographical location, and the type of travel (ie. independent or inclusive tours) (French, Craig-Smith & Collier, 1995).

The United Nations Conference on Travel and Tourism defines the tourist as 'any person who travels to a country other than that in which he has his usual residence. The main purpose of whose visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited and who is staying for a period of one year or less' (Ross, 1998, p. 5). For the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 1981), it appears that there are two types of visitors, 'the international tourist' and 'international excursionist'. An international tourist is defined as a visitor in accordance with the above-mentioned definition staying at least one night but not more than one year in the visited area and whose main purpose can be classified under:

- (a) pleasure: holidays, culture, active sports, visits to friends and relatives, and other pleasurable purposes.
- (b) professional: meeting, mission, business.
- (c) other tourist purposes: studies, health, pilgrimage' (Ross, 1998, p. 5).

Burkart and Medlik (1990) describe tourists as having the following characteristics.

They are:

- (1) The people who undertake a journey to, and stay in, various destinations.
- (2) Their destinations are distinct from their normal place of residence and work, so that their activities are not the same as those of the resident and working populations of the destinations.
- (3) Their intention is to return within a few days or months, so the journey is of a temporary and short-term nature.
- (4) Their purpose for undertaking the journey is other than to take up permanent residence or employment remunerated from within the destinations (p. 42).

In Thailand, the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) describes the tourist as any person visiting Thailand for any reason other than to exercise remunerated activity within the country. The person must stay at least one night, but not longer than 90 days and the purpose of his/her journey can be classified under one of the following: leisure (recreation, holiday, health, study, religion, and sport); business, family, mission, meeting. This also refers to all arrivals by sea with overnight stay accommodation in establishments ashore and excludes cruise passengers who stay overnight on board, and direct transit passengers who do not pass through immigration (TAT, 1998).

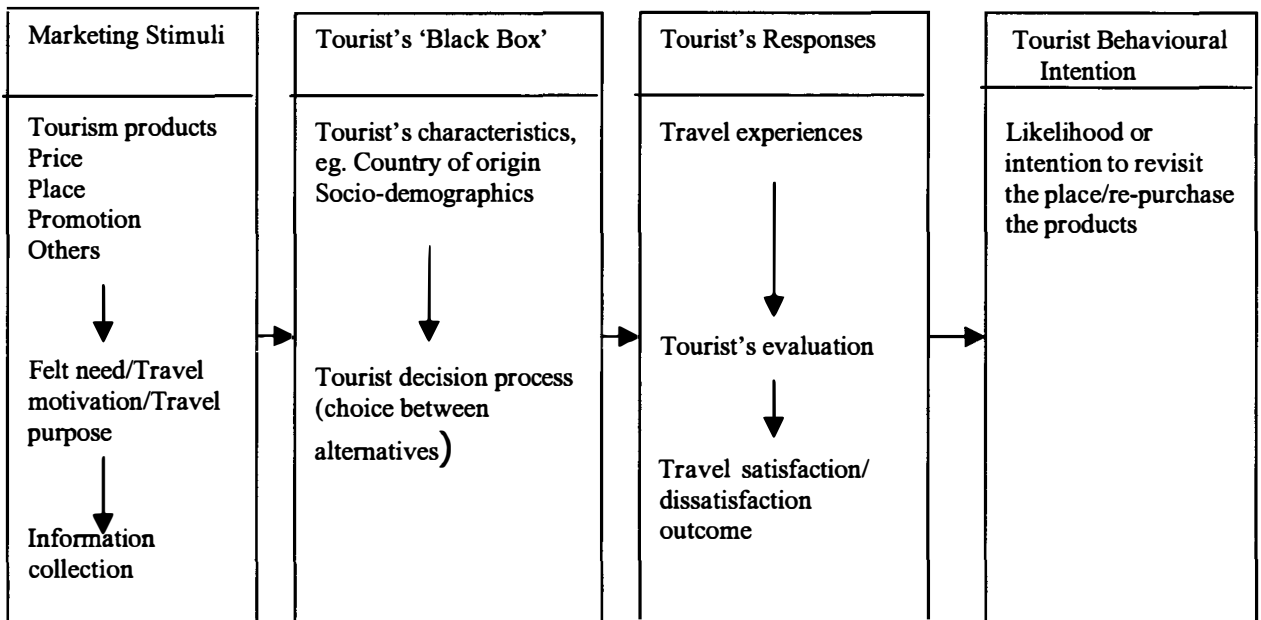
In the light of the above discussion, this study defines a tourist as any international visitor to Thailand for any reason other than to exercise remunerated activity within the country. He or she must be a staying and/or outgoing visitor, whose purpose of travel is broadly defined as leisure (ie.recreation, holiday, health, religion, and/or sport), business, visiting friends and relatives, education, mission, meeting, a package-tour, and/or an independent visit.

2.4.3 Tourist Behaviour

Chambers, Chacko and Lewis (1995, p. 199) suggest some basic beliefs about tourist consumer behaviour. They cover the following five notions:

1. Consumer behaviour is purposeful and goal oriented.
2. The consumer has free choice.
3. Consumer behaviour is a process.
4. Consumer behaviour can be influenced.
5. There is a need for consumer education.

Consumer behaviour means ‘the process of acquiring and organising information in the direction of a purchase decision and of using and evaluating products and services’ (Moutinho, 2000, p. 41). In recent decades marketing professionals in tourism have increased their awareness of the need to understand how tourists make their decisions. (Figure 2).



Note: Arrows indicate the direction of influence

Figure 2: Model of Tourist Buying Behaviour
 (Source: Adapted from Kotler, Bowen & Makens, 1999; Matheison & Wall, 1982)

Figure 2 illustrates the various factors that are considered in a trip decision and that enter into the product-evaluation stage. This involves the marketing stimuli, which

consists of tourism products and their attractiveness attributes of price, place, and promotion. Other stimuli such as economic, technological, political, and cultural factors are also included. All these stimuli enter the tourist's black box, where they are turned into the set of observable tourist's responses, that is, the tourist experiencing the products and evaluating outcomes which resulting in satisfaction or dissatisfaction that may affect tourist's future intentions.

2.4.4 Factors Influencing Tourist Characteristics and Behaviour

Tourists vary tremendously in age, income, education level, taste, and origin. Consequently, they buy an incredible variety of tourism products (Inskeep, 1991). Figure 3, adapted from Kotler, Bowen and Makens (1999) portrays how the previously mentioned stimuli are changed into responses inside the tourist's black box.

In Figure 3, there are various factors that influence tourist characteristics and behaviour. Specifically, tourist characteristics affect how they perceive and react to stimuli (the tourism products). They are psychological, cultural, social, and personal factors. Additionally, the purpose of travel also plays an important part in tourists' final buying decisions. Each of these factors is described in the subsequent sections.

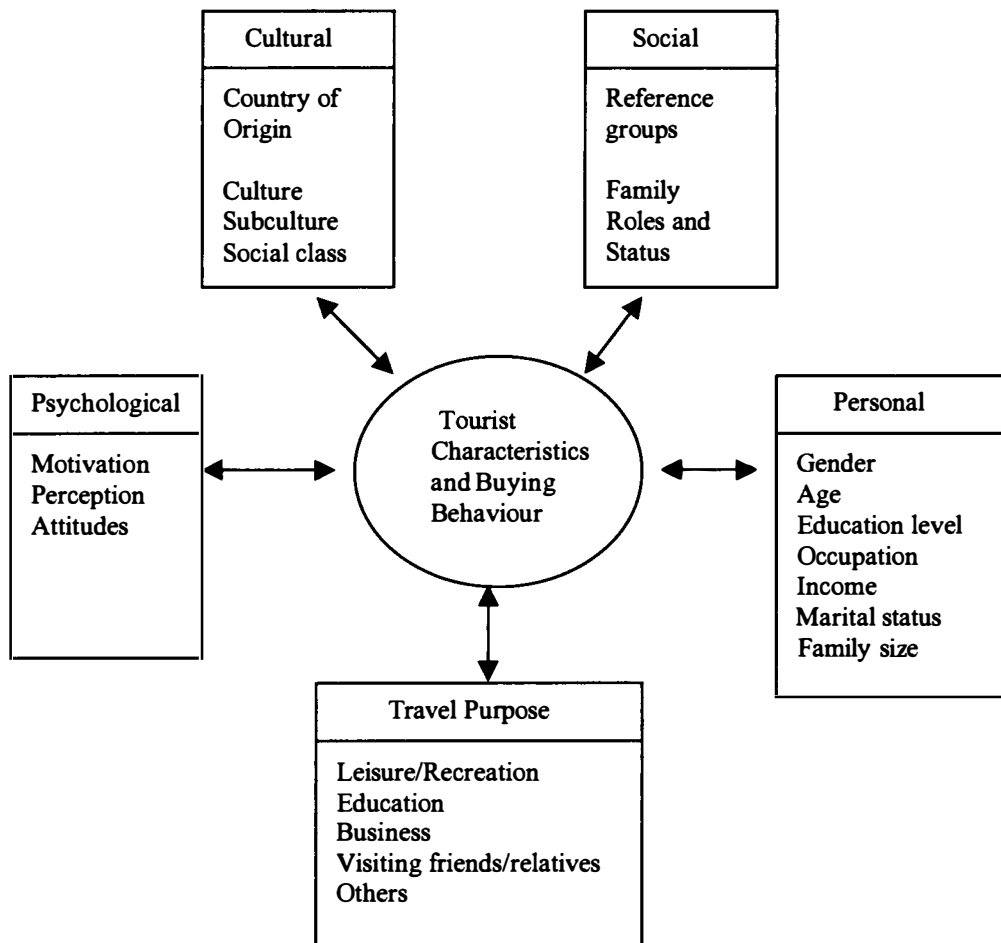


Figure 3: Factors Influencing Tourist's Characteristics and Buying Behaviour
(Source: Adapted from Kotler et al. 1999, p. 181)

2.4.4.1 *Psychological Factors*

Psychological factors that affect tourist characteristics and behaviour consist of motivation, perception, and attitudes.

1 Motivation in Travel Demand

Motivation is at the root of conscious human behaviour. It is the thing that induces people to act. Motivation is an essential part of the tourist experience (Hall, 1998).

Motivation is defined as 'a state of need, a condition that exerts a push on the individual towards certain types of action that are seen as likely to bring

satisfaction,' (Moutinho, 1987, p. 16). Here the tourist is viewed as a consumer; with subsequent tourism demand being formulated through a consumer decision-making process.

Hall and Page (1999, p. 52) state the factors that generate travel demand or travel motivation as the following:

- *energisers of demand* (i.e. factors that promote an individual to decide on a holiday);
- *filterers of demand* which means that even though motivation may exist, constraints on demand may exist in economic, sociological or psychological terms;
- *affecters* which are factors that may heighten or surpress the energisers that promote consumer interest or choice in tourism; and
- *roles* where the family member is involved in the purchase of holiday products or the arbiter of group decision-making is involved in the choice of destination, product and the where, when and how of consumption.

2. Tourist Motivation and Maslow's Hierarchy Model

An investigation of tourist motivations is an attempt to resolves the question 'why is it that people leave their homes to visit other areas?' (Pearce, 1987, p. 21). However, it is difficult to identify a definitive relationship between individual motivation and the selection of a destination' because 'tourists are not mere numerical abstractions, but complex individual personalities, having a variety of complex motivations,' (Bosselman, 1978).

More specifically, with regard to the notion of travel motivation, Jafari (1987) notes that, 'There is already a wide range of literature dealing with such motivational propositions, but no common understanding has yet emerged' (p. 152). Because of the multidisciplinary nature of motivation study associated with 'the problem of

simplifying complex psychological factors and behaviour into a set of constructs and ultimately a universally acceptable theory that can be tested and proved in various tourism contexts' (Hall & Page, 1999, p. 52). However, much of the work on tourist motivation is based on a content theory approach to the study of motivation, as exemplified by Maslow's theory of needs. This review of literature will present some major studies on tourist motivation that have built on Maslow's work (1954), and will then draw on the applied theory, that is, Pearce's (1993) leisure ladder model to which the present study is related. Maslow (1954) constructed the best-known theory about human need and motivation. He pointed out that each individual has a variety of levels of need. When one level of need is satisfied, the person seeks to satisfy the next level of need and so on. His hierarchy of needs from lowest to highest includes the following:

1. Psychological needs, including food, water, air, shelter, rest.
2. Safety needs, including security, protection.
3. Social needs, including affection, love, friendship.
4. Ego or esteem needs, including self-respect, status.
5. Self-actualisation or personal fulfillment, including the need to fulfil one's full potential and fulfilment of ambitions.

The link of touristic behaviour and psychological needs emerged in travel and tourism literature since the 70s. It started with Gray (1970), whose study of travel motivation is one of the first on of the most cited, states that there are two basic reasons for pleasure travel: 'wanderlust' and 'sunlust'. Wanderlust is the desire to leave a familiar environment in search of new experiences or places, while sunlust is the search for specific recreational experiences or environments. Wagner (1977), studied tourists behaviour in Gambia, followed by Lett (1983) investigated

Caribbean charter yacht tourism. The latter found that vacations provide individuals with opportunities to satisfy needs which restraints back home and leave unsatisfied.

Another approach to tourist motivation addresses 'push and pull factors' as discussed by Dann (1981, 1996) and Pearce (1987). This approach describes 'wanderlust' as a 'push' factor that motivating tourist to leave their home environment and 'sunlust' is a 'pull' factor, whereby the characteristics of a tourist destination attract tourists away from their homes. Crompton (1979) conceptualises tourist motivation into nine motives: escape, exploration, relaxation, prestige, regression (less constrained behaviour), enhancement of kinship relationships, social interaction, novelty, and education. Leiper (1995) points out that all leisure involves a temporary escape of some kind and one of the motivations for tourist experiences is the desire for escape and fantasy. McGehee, Loker-Murphy and Uysal (1996) investigated the differences in motivations between men and women. They found that women tourists tend to be motivated by culture, opportunities for family togetherness, and prestige whereas men value more importance on sports and adventure.

Pearce (1988, 1993) proposed model known as 'Travel Career Ladder' or the TCL. His model suggested that choice of destination and tourists' characteristics may be influenced by previous tourism experience. Pearce claimed that more experienced tourists seek to satisfy higher order needs such as affiliation and esteem, whereas less experienced ones are more likely to be occupied with lower order needs such as food and safety. However, the finding of the study by Kim, Morrison, and O'Leary (1996) in seeking the relationship between age and experience did not support the concept of Travel Career Ladder. In fact, the relationship between lifestage

motivation, and preference for certain types of tourism mediates the idea of travel career more than previously thought (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002). As with Gibson and Yiannakis's claim, Ryan (1998) studied 997 British tourists and found that age appears to be an influential variable in explaining the relationship between motivation, and choice of holiday. Also, Pearce (1993) suggested that motivational theory should be conceptualised as a dynamic process in order to consider individual changes cross the lifespan. In addition, Anderson and Littrell (1995) examined the tourism patterns and souvenir purchases of female tourists and found that the more experienced female tourists were more knowledgeable about different geographical locations and cultures, the lifestage was influential in shaping their tourism tastes and styles. Thus, it may be that lifestage is an important variable underpinning the concept of travel career (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002).

3. Travel Motivation Ladder or the Travel Career Ladder (TCL)

On the basis of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and motivation, Pearce (1993) has developed a model called 'The leisure ladder for theme park settings,' suggesting 'a career in tourist travel behaviour.' The model is demonstrated in Figure 4.

As seen in the model, there are five hierarchical steps in tourist travel behaviour. People start at different levels, they are likely to change levels during their life-cycle and they can be prevented from moving by money, health and other people. They may also retire from their travel career or not take holidays at all and therefore not be part of the system (Pearce, 1993).

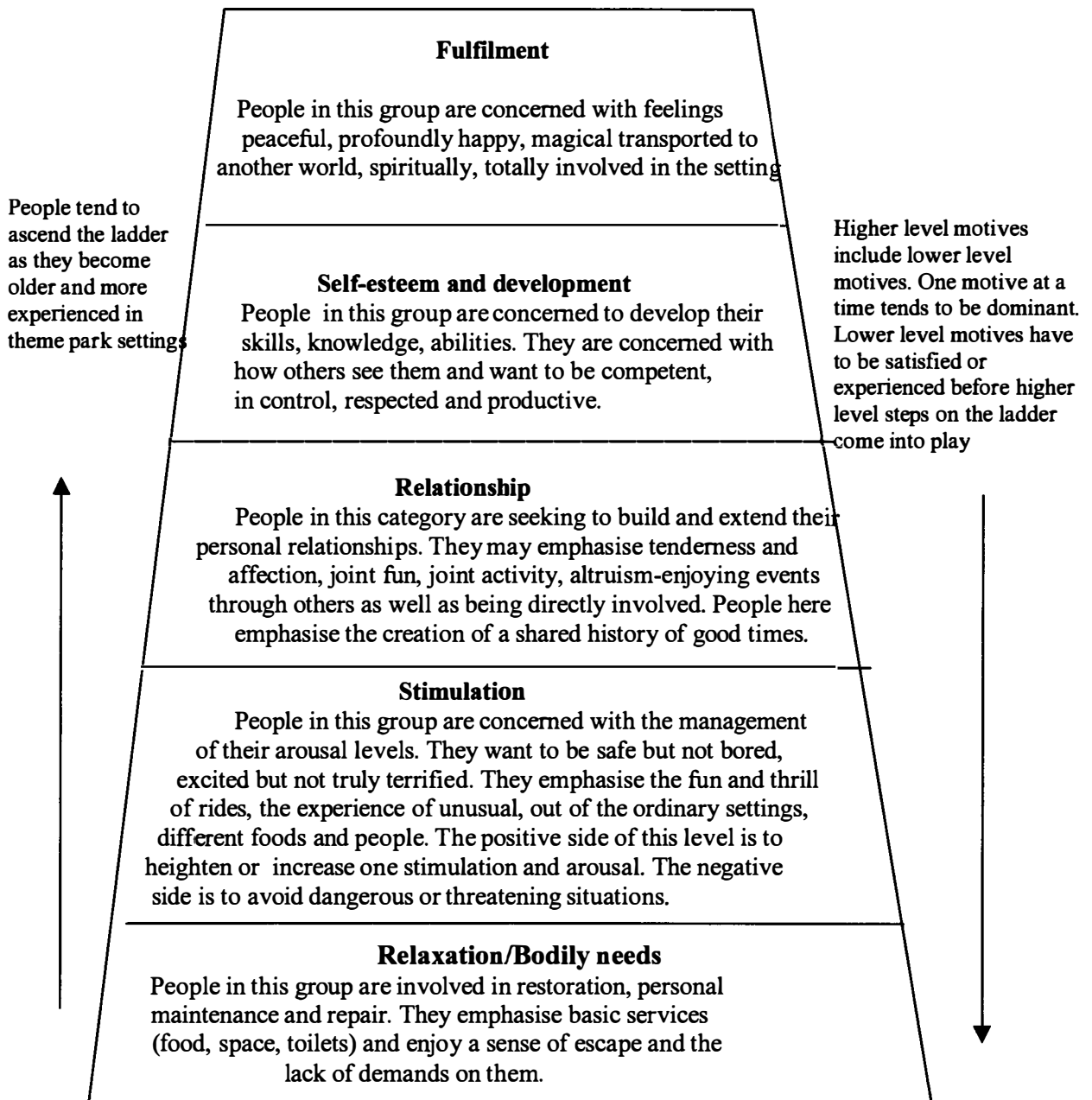


Figure 4: The Travel Career Ladder for theme park settings (domestic visitors)
 (Source: Hall & Page, 1999, p.55)

4. Tourist Perception

People experience and view things and phenomena differently. What each individual perceives and interprets depends on his/her needs, wants, values, and personal

experiences. Our actions and reactions are dependent on our perceptions (Schiffman, 2001). Perception, therefore, strongly influences evaluation and judgemental processes (Moutinho, 2000). Perception is defined as 'the process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets stimuli in a meaningful and coherent way,' (Moutinho, 2000, p. 44). A stimulus is any input unit influencing the sensory organs (ie. eyes, ears, nose, mouth and skin). Perceiving stimuli involves exposure, reception and the assimilation of information (Moutinho, 2000).

After perceiving the stimuli, each person will organise his/her perceptions and knowledge in order to create meaningful relationships among separate components. Perception has two stages: the attention filter, and interpretation. The attention filter is the process of selecting perceived stimuli, grasping only the relevant matter and screening out the uninteresting and irrelevant. The interpretation stage, Moutinho (2000, p. 44) explains as 'what an individual perceives in many situations is determined not only by the intrinsic nature of the stimulus object or sensations, but also by his or her own system of values and needs determined by the social context.'

In relation to the perception of attribute importance, it is broadly defined as a person's general assessment of the significance of an attribute for products of a certain type (Mok, Armstrong & Go, 1995). When an attribute is perceived as important, it is believed that it will play a significant part in influencing consumers' product choice (MacKenzie, 1986). As such, perceptions of attribute importance is the degree to which tourists find various attributes (or factors) important in contributing to the attractiveness of a tourist destination.

5. Attitudes

Another psychological factor that influences tourist' characteristics and buying behaviour is attitudes. Ajzen and Fishbein (1980, p. 7) defined attitudes as 'a function of beliefs.' In their further explanation, they noted that 'a person who believes that performing a given behaviour will lead to mostly positive outcomes will hold a favorable attitude toward performing the behavior, while a person who believes that performing the behaviour will lead to mostly negative outcomes will hold an unfavorable attitude,' (p. 7). The beliefs that found an individual's attitude toward the behaviour are referred to as 'behavioral beliefs,' (p.7). People act according to their beliefs. Attitudes are formed by multicomponents.

More specifically, attitudes encompass three components. They include cognitive which includes perceptual responses and verbal statements of belief, affective which comprise sympathetic nervous responses and verbal statements of affect, and behavioural which involve overt actions and verbal statements concerning behaviour (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). Attitudes, therefore, are complex systems consisting of an individual's beliefs about the object, his feelings toward the object, and his action tendencies with the respect to the object. With regard to this notion, it is believed that there is a strong relationship between attitude and behaviour. In fact, individual person's relatively consistent evaluations, feelings, and tendencies toward an object or an idea are formed by an attitude. It frames people's mind of liking or disliking things that in turn cause them to move toward or away from them. Through acting and learning people acquire beliefs and attitudes which in turn, influence their buying behaviour (Kotler et al. 1999). In this respect, when tourists experience a product, they learn about it and they feel either satisfied or dissatisfied with the product's quality.

2.4.4.2 Cultural Factors

'Culture is the most basic determinant of a person's wants and behaviour' (Kotler *et al.* 1999, p.181). One's cultural perspective consists of the basic values, perceptions, wants, and behaviours that a person learns continuously in a society. Different cultural backgrounds lead to different patterns of behaviour (Dawar, 1993). Research has confirmed that tourist perceptions and behaviour vary according to the cultural backgrounds (Armstrong, Mok, Go & Chan, 1997; Calantone *et al.* 1989; Huang, Huang & Wu, 1996; Luk, deLeon, Leong & Li, 1993; Richardson & Crompton, 1988). Irwin, Gartner & Phelps (1999) have investigated differences between Mexican-American and Anglo campers on a minimally developed campground in New Mexico. They found differences in use to be related to subcultural characteristics, and concluded that cultural group affiliation can be a determinant of recreation choice. Thus, cultural backgrounds as represented by nationality and country of residence for international tourists and region or city of residence for domestic tourists are essential data for marketing purposes (Inskeep, 1991).

2.4.4.3 Social Factors

Social factors which include the tourist's reference group, family, social role and status also influence tourist behaviour. Generally, the many small groups to which a person belongs influence that person's attitudes and behaviour. These groups include family, friends, neighbours, and colleagues. Family members, for example, have a strong influence on tourist behaviour. Marketing research has examined the influences of the husband, wife, and children on the purchase of different products and services. For example, Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1995) have analysed the

Northern American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) market and they have found the age of children influences their spending. The couples whose children are younger than 6 years old spend 10 percent more than the average couple without children. For tourism, the members of the family, such as young children, may affect their parents' decision in selecting destinations and leisure activities. Labrecque and Ricard (2001) have studied the influence of children on the decision-making process for a family dining-out and found that children aged 9 to 12 are influential in the decision-making. Influences of children on buying decision-making are more likely evident when the families are non-traditional and allow their children to take part in the trip choice making.

2.4.4.4 Personal Factors

Tourists' buying decisions are also influenced by personal characteristics such as gender, age and lifecycle stage, education level, occupation, household income, lifestyle, personality and concepts. However, their choices change during their lifetime. Therefore, preferences for leisure activities, travel destinations, and entertainments are age related (Kotler et al., 1999). Older people tend to take overseas travel, use recreation vehicles, package tours, and air travel more frequently than younger travellers (Gunn, 1988). The gender, occupation and educational background of a traveller may also impact on a person's travel demands. Professionals are more likely to go on business trips and will demand a different combination of products from backpacking students (Collins & Tisdell, 2000). Singles or couples without children may have more discretionary time and money than families with children. So they are more potential in purchasing travel and tourism products. On the other hand, as families mature and careers become established, they may have more potential to travel (Gartner, 1996).

2.4.4.5 *Travel Purpose*

The purpose of travel that includes the categories of holiday, business, study/education, official mission/diplomatic, and visiting friends or relatives also affects tourist perceptions and behaviour. In a study of measuring destination attractiveness, Hu and Ritchie (1993) found that the importance of the destination attributes that contribute to the attractiveness of destination vary significantly between tourists' trip purposes.

2.4.5 The Tourist Decision Process: Post-Purchase Evaluation

Post-purchase evaluation is the feedback that consumers (ie. tourists) give after they consume the tourism products. The significance of the evaluation includes two main points. First, all experiences that tourists gain are stored into the tourists' frame of reference. Second, the evaluation gives feedback to the tourism-related professionals and sectors to develop responses to future purchase behaviour (Moutinho, 2000).

Gartner (1996) suggests that product evaluation be performed on how each product reinforces favourable or unfavourable beliefs. The process of product evaluation may be identified in a basic model as seen in Figure 5.

The model illustrates the process of a tourist's post-purchase evaluation of tourism products. The process includes three components. After a tourist experiencing the tourism products, his terminal attitude or value about the products is formed. This process is performed in terms of how each product provides for and reinforces some of his certain beliefs. This results in tourist's evaluating the importance of each belief in its presence in each product that contributed to his or her

satisfaction/dissatisfaction or favourable/unfavourable attitudes. If the favourable attitude is held, in the future, he may likely revisit or purchase the products again.

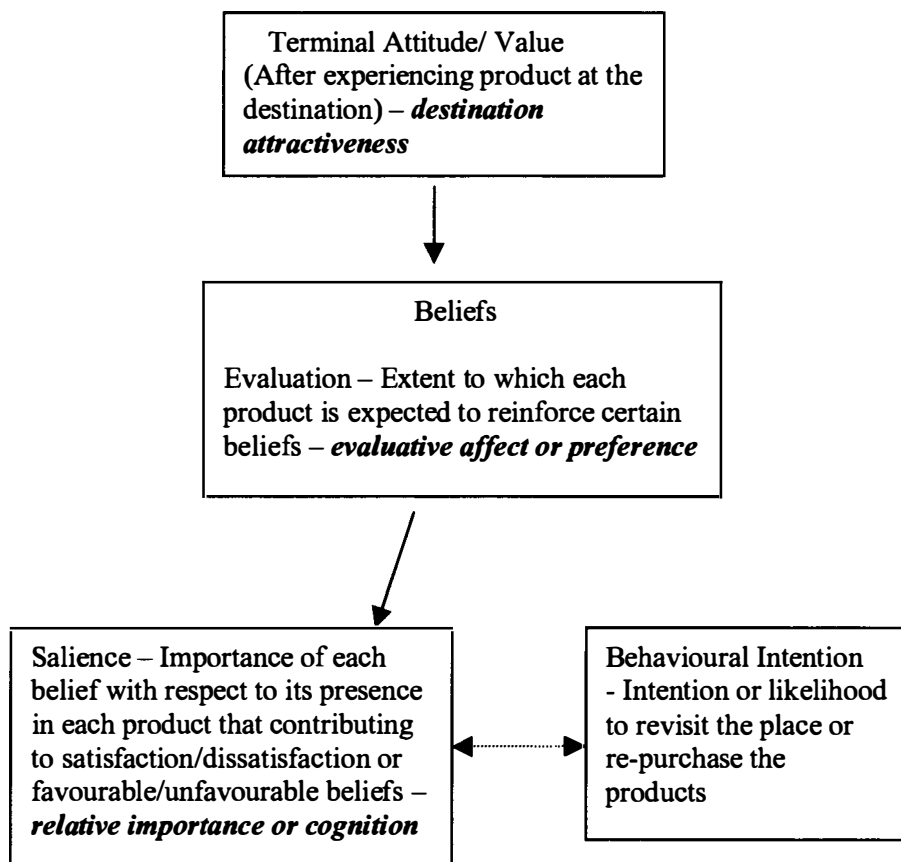


Figure 5: A Basic Model of Product Evaluation
(Source: Adapted from Gartner, 1996, p. 324)

2.5 THE SUPPLY SIDE – TOURISM PRODUCT

Supply means ‘the quantity of items or products available to the market,’ (Dickman, 1999, p. 201). Thus, when discussing tourism as a product, which most literature refers to the tourist destination, it has been noted by Leiper (1995, p. 86) that ‘tourism is entirely about tourism destinations,’ and so the most important facets of tourism are the items or resources that exist at the destinations. The following subsections will define the tourism product, the tourist destination, its characteristics, components, and nature of the product.

2.5.1 Definition of the Tourism Product

Gunn (1994) views the tourism product from the standpoint of tourism planning development and hence he defines the tourism product as a complex human experience that integrates attractions, accommodation, transportation, information, and services. Similarly, French et al. (1995) explain the tourism product as inclusion of everything tourists purchase, see, experience, and feel from the time they leave home until they return.

To meet the present study objectives, this thesis follows the definition of Middleton (2001) who sees the tourism product as an interdependent mix of several tangible and intangible components brought together in a package at a destination. The package is perceived by the tourist to provide an experience available at a price to match an individual tourist's needs.

2.5.2 Tourist Destination

As noted above, Leiper (1995, p. 86) suggests that 'tourism is entirely about tourism destinations.' Indeed, the most dramatic facets of tourism exist in destinations. This subsection which describe the concept of the tourist destination and definition of tourist destination are also described.

2.5.2.1 The Concept of Tourist Destinations

A tourist destination differs from the other destinations on the two bases: first, tourists visit that place, and second, the place has a wide range of 'pull' factors catering to tourists' needs and expectations. Many tourist destinations are experiencing dynamic and rapid changes. This has resulted from the rapid growth

and development of the tourism industry. Accordingly, the concept of destination has also evolved and developed (Laws, 1995).

2.5.2.2 Definition of Tourist Destination

Tourist destinations may be defined in a variety of ways. For example, Medlik (1993) defines destination as 'geographic location to which a person is travelling'. It refers to the final destination which is usually the 'farthest place away from the person's point of origin and/or the place where the person intends to spend the majority of time,' whereas 'an intermediate' or 'enroute' destination refers to 'a place where some shorter period of time is spent, be it for an overnight stay or to visit an attraction,' (p. 46).

Dickman (1999, p. 118) states that in the travel industry, a tourist destination refers to the five 'A' components, that is, 'attractions, access, accommodation, amenities, and activities.' A tourist destination must have all of these elements to some degree, although they need not be equally balanced on of the same quality and consistency for each potential destination. Pearce (1988, p. 12) explains that a tourist destination is 'the constitution of five broad sectors characterised by the demand for and provision of a wide range of goods and services. They include attractions, transportation, accommodation, supporting facilities, and infrastructure.' French et al. (1995, p. 198) describe a tourist destination as 'a subset of tourism products that form part of the total tourism product.' They present the components of tourist destinations that include attractions, amenities, and accessibility. Attractions include many aspects such as sites both human-made and natural, events, and activities. Amenities include both infrastructure and superstructure.

In this study, a tourist destination is defined as a place, a product, or an experience of the region or place where the tourist visits and in which the most obvious consequences of the system of tourism occur. These include attractions, facilities, reception and services, accessibility, destination attractiveness or/and image and attitude of tourists, cost/price, and nature of tourism products which comprise a number of complex attributes that together determine a destination's attractiveness to a particular tourist choice situation.

2.5.3 The Components of Tourist Destination

There are two main features through which a tourist destination contributes to its attractiveness for tourists. They are the primary and secondary resources. Primary resources include the attributes of climate, ecology, cultural traditions, traditional architecture and landscapes. Secondary resources comprise the service-oriented aspects that facilitate and make the holiday trip and tourists pleasure possible. These are infrastructure including accommodation and transport, catering, easy access, reception and services, activities and amusements and other facilities. The primary features of the destination are the most important elements which tourists enjoy, but the secondary features are still required as the industry (Gunn, 1994; Inskip, 1991; Laws, 1995; Middleton, 2001; Ritchie, Crouch & Hudson).

Gearing et al. (1974) in their establishing determinants for measures of destination attractiveness have classified tourism products at the destination into five main components. They include natural factors, social factors, historical factors, recreation and shopping facilities, and infrastructure and food and shelter. Ritchie and Zins (1978) have applied the Gearing et al.'s (1974) establishment with some

modifications to meet with their study of the attractiveness of destination. They include five main factors or attributes, that is, natural beauty and climate, cultural and social characteristics, sports, recreation and educational facilities, shopping and commercial facilities, infrastructure of the region, price level, attitudes towards tourists, and accessibility of the region.

From the light of the above discussion, the overall tourism products may be categorised into five main components. They are (1) attractions, (2) facilities, reception and services, (3) accessibility, (4) destination image and attitudes of tourists, and (5) cost/price to the customers.

2.5.3.1 Attractions

The attractions of tourist destinations are principal components which have the greatest impact and largely determine tourists' choice and influence their buying motivations. They include natural resources, human-made attractions, and hospitality (Gartner, 1996; Gunn, 1994; Inskip, 1991; Middleton, 2001; Ritchie et al. 2001).

The elements of natural resources incorporate land, landscape, flora and fauna, climate, water, and other geographical features of the destination and its natural resources. For many locations, land and landscape such as mountains, ski hills, wildlife species and water features (lakes or waterfalls) are the most important destination attributes. They are extremely valuable tourism assets since they are central to a destination's appeal and they are the foundation from which other resources are created and developed (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000; Gunn, 1994; Inskip, 1991; Middleton, 2001; Ritchie et al. 2001).

Human-made attractions also occur at the tourist destinations. They embrace 'both past and present lifestyles, attitudes, and social settings' (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000, p. 67). These are not only elements reflecting historical features, such as old and ancient buildings and ruins, architectural and artistic buildings and monuments, historical and heritage sites, but also the current culture reflecting how people from that area and ethnic origin live, work and play (Godfrey & Clarke, 2000). Parks and gardens, convention centres, marinas, industrial archaeology, golf courses, specialty shops, theme parks, theme retail areas, and special hallmark events are also human-made assets (Middleton, 2001). Indeed, both natural and human-made resources function as 'the true travel product' and 'the reward from travel' which provide tourists with satisfaction (Gunn, 1994, p. 58).

Another resource that plays an important part is the human factor. People and aspects of their ways of life and customs, languages, and activities provide opportunities for social encounters such as festive and religious events, dances, music, food, and other entertainment. They have also become a powerful 'pull' factor to motivate tourists' choice (Middleton, 2001). However, although a destination can attribute with the finest attractions which might be available to tourists, the place can detract from its overall appeal if tourists are made to feel unwelcome by the host population (French et al. 1995).

2.5.3.2 Facilities, Reception and Services

Although tourist destination facilities, reception and services are considered to be secondary or supporting products and not, in themselves, tourist attractions, they are

crucial because 'they make it possible for tourists to stay, enjoy, and participate in the tourist attractions per se,' (Middleton, 2001, p. 3). The lack of goods and services might result in tourists avoiding a certain destination (French et al. 1995). Facilities and services at the tourist destinations include both infrastructural and superstructural elements. Infrastructure is also included in this category. It ranges from access to the destination such as waterways, harbours, roads, railroads, car parks, and airports, to the fundamental supporting systems such as electricity and water supplies, sewerage and waste disposal, and communication facilities. They all make tourism possible (Middleton, 2001). The lack of infrastructure and technology in a destination are also visible features of developed and under-developed tourism products that can factor into the tourists' vacation experience (Choy, 1992; Johnson & Edwards, 1994).

The superstructure includes accommodation units such as hotels, hostels, motels, resorts, holiday villages, apartments, campsites, caravan parks, farms, and guesthouses. Restaurants, bars and cafés ranging from fast-food through luxury restaurants are also included (Middleton, 2001). Services and reception are also significant resources for tourism. Entertainment, shopping and recreation facilities, financial services, health centres, tourism police, information centres, travel agents, printing, insurance, cleaning, Internet services, wholesaling and retailing are other services functions which make travel easier, more effective, and impressive to visitors (French et al. 1995). Facilities and services, therefore, play a fundamental supporting role in the overall tourism product.

2.5.3.3 *Accessibility*

'Accessibility' is the term referred to the relationship between both private and public transport forms in tourism. It is an important element of the tourism product which carry travellers from the generating regions to tourist destination (Prideaux, 1999). Also, it covers the transport within and between, chosen destinations. These include air, sea, and land transport. Just as the attractions and facilities and services attract visitors; ease of access to any destination is regarded as a very crucial attribute which tourists consider before their last buying decision is made (French et al., 1995). Moreover, the geographical proximity of the chosen destination, which contributes to the time to reach the destination, the cost of travelling to there and the frequency of transport, safety concerns, and the level of comfort are also influential on the flows of tourism and on the types of product which tourists purchase (Middleton, 2001; Prideaux, 1999).

2.5.3.4 *Image and Attitude of Tourists*

Image is 'the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has regarding a destination. It is a personal composite view of a destination's tourism potential, and where prices are comparable it is often the desire factor in a tourist's selection process' (Murphy, 1985, p. 11). Each tourist's motivations and perceptions construct his/her ideal tourist destination. Tourist image construction is 'of utmost importance because the appeal of tourist attractions arises largely from the image conjured up, partly from direct or related experience and partly from external resources and influences' (Hall, 1998, p. 14). An image or a 'brand name' gives the product an easily recognisable 'identity,' and it promises 'reliability' and 'consistency.' An analogy can be seen in the way that people prefer to buy from someone they know

than from a stranger and they prefer to buy branded goods rather than loose products in brown paper bags (Morgan, 1996).

The images and attitudes that customers have towards products at tourist destinations also strongly influence their buying decisions (Middleton, 2001). Therefore, images of tourist destinations are very powerful motivators in travel and tourism markets. Goodall (1988, p. 3) notes that 'each individual, given their personal likes and dislikes, has a preferential image of their ideal holiday. This conditions their expectations, setting an aspiration level or evaluative image against which actual holiday opportunities are compared.' Therefore, destination image plays an important part in the tourism industry, as Hall (1998, p. 15) states 'tourism is an industry built on the selling of image and fantasy rather reality.' Thus, tourism research has frequently been concerned with the images held of particular places (eg, Crompton, 1979; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993; Gartner, 1989; Gartner & Hunt, 1987; Hunt, 1975; Mayo, 1973; Pearce, 1982) and of how these images are communicated (eg. Adams, 1984; Bhattacharyya, 1997; Britton, 1979; Cohen, 1989; Cohen & Richardson, 1995; Mellinger, 1994; Moeran, 1983; Selwyn, 1993; Weightman, 1987).

2.5.3.5 *Cost/Price to the Customer*

An economic definition of holiday price is 'the level of consumer sacrifice or how much money are tourists prepared to sacrifice' in order to afford a particular vacation (Dickman, 1999, p. 233). As such, the price at which product is offered creates expectations of its quality and is related to product value.

In terms of holiday markets, price is 'the sum of what it costs for travel, accommodation and participation in a selected range of facilities and services' (Middleton, 2001, p. 127). Pricing is an attribute of the product that can influence travellers' experiences and thoughts about a destination (Dieke, 1991; Stevens, 1992). Since the price structure of most destinations is offered in a range of levels, prices in the travel and tourism industry differ broadly. For example, tourists travelling thousands of kilometres and staying in five-star hotels pay a very different price in a destination from backpacker tourists staying in cheaper hostels. Price also differ by season, by choice of activities and internationally by exchanging rates as well as by distance travelled, transport mode and choice of facilities and services (Middleton, 2001).

In relation to the perceived value of vacation trip, which Morrison (1989) described as the mental estimate that consumers make of the travel product, where perceptions of value are drawn from a personal cost/benefit assessment. In this sense, the time or money invested in a trip is compared with the experiences gained from that visit as Stevens (1992) suggested that value perceptions arose from an assessment of the goods and services purchased at the destination.

2.5.4 Nature of Tourism Product

The nature of the tourism product is characterised by the following: (1) service-orientation, (2) inseparability, (3) intangibility, (4) perishability, (5) interdependence, and (6) the high-fixed cost of service operations (Middleton, 2001).

2.5.4.1 *'Service-orientation'*

The travel and tourism industry is service-oriented, and as noted by Rathmell (1974, cited in Middleton, 2001, p. 41) 'Goods are produced. Services are performed.' Middleton (2001) differentiates between physical goods or product and services (Table 1).

Table 1: The Difference Features between Goods and Services Products

Goods	Services
Are manufactured	Are performed
Made in premises not normally open to customers (separable)	Performed on the producers' premises, often with full customer participation (inseparable)
Goods are delivered to places where customers live	Customers travel to places where the services are delivered
Convenience	Purchase confers temporary right to access at a pre-arranged place and time
Goods possess tangible form at the point of sale and can be inspected prior to sale	Services are intangible at the point of sale
Stocks of product can be created and held for future sale	Perishable; services can be inventoried but stocks of product cannot be held.

(Source: Middleton, 2001, p. 42)

2.5.4.2 *'Inseparability'*

The acts of production and consumption are coexistent and inseparable. Unlike the other physical goods, the quality of the tourism product when purchased, cannot be tasted or guaranteed by the enforcement of protection law, but must be judged by customers' attitudes, behaviour, and their satisfaction. Therefore, the active participation of both the producer and the consumer is required for the performance of service. Since the production and consumption of the tourism product occur in the host or provider's location rather than in the consumer's home environment, the involvement of a wide range of service sectors is inevitable. These people are, for

example, travel agents, airport ground and flight crew, hotel personnel, restaurant staff, cashiers in shops, tour guides and couriers, and local residents. In this sense, the staff's attitudes and the way they behave in contact with customers is relevant to, and important for product performance and customer satisfaction (Middleton, 2001).

2.5.4.3 'Intangibility'

Intangibility is an important characteristic of the tourism product. As noted before the total product of tourism is service-oriented. The buyers can neither see, touch nor evaluate the product beforehand, nor can they return the product if they are dissatisfied. (French et al. 1995). Most consumers purchase an imagination, they purchase a dream that is intangible (Hall, 1998). For example, a tourist, buying a vacation package to Chiang Mai, Thailand, does not get something tangible that she can take home, look at, and enjoy. Instead, she buys access to some tangible items, such as a seat on a flight, and a hotel booking for a room. But more importantly, she buys the culture and friendliness of Chiang Mai, the beautiful scenery, the magnificent cultural attractions, and the experience of new and different things. In essence, the purchaser buys memories. The only tangible items left after such a vacation may be the pictures she took, some souvenirs, and the receipts for any money spent.

2.5.4.4 'Perishability'

Tourism product, that is, service also has a perishable component which means that the service production is 'typically fixed in time and space and has a fixed capacity on any day. This means that if service capacity or products are not sold on a particular day, the potential revenue they represent is lost and cannot be recovered'

(Middleton, 2001, p. 44). In this sense, service capacity is only existent when clients are present.

In terms of travel and tourism services, perishability is directly related to seasonality. Seasonality in the travel and tourism industry means that 'demand fluctuates greatly between seasons of the year' (Middleton, 2001, p. 45). For example, people who live in Europe and in the northern states of the USA are likely to take their holidays in the summer months from June to September because from December to March, it is their wintertime. During these months the weather is generally cold and wet and the period of daylight is short. School vacations and many business year cycles are also based on such seasonal variations (Middleton, 2001).

2.5.4.5 'Interdependence'

When tourists purchase vacation packages, they generally include several products, not just one, in their travel choices. They not only choose attractions at the destination, but also the composite of other products such as accommodation, transport and other facilities such as recreational activities and catering. Therefore, there are many sectors and services involved in the production of tourism and the system resembles a network of relationships linking travel and tourism products at destinations. This requires potential cooperation between the involved organisations (Middleton, 2001).

2.5.4.6 'The High Fixed Cost of Service Operation'

Another important characteristic of tourism product is the high fixed cost of service operation. A fixed cost is the capital invested so that the producer 'has to be paid for

in advance in order for a business to be open to receive customers' (Middleton, 2001, p. 46). This covers the cost of 'premises' such as annual maintenance, rents, leases and rates, equipment, heating, lighting and other energy, insurances, wages and salaries and social provision for full time employees, management and administration, and marketing promotion. No matter how many customers are on the premises at any given time, travel and tourism service operations must be performed at a high level of fixed cost. As Middleton (2001) notes for example that an airline when operating a flight, which is either 20 percent or 80 percent full, still has the same operating maintenance costs, and airport dues. It pays the same wages to its employees. Thus the fixed costs of service operations are associated with seasonal variations which draw together all service operators' efforts in attempting to stimulate extra demand.

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has demonstrated the concept of the tourism system, as conceptualised in a simple demand-supply framework. The demand side, including the tourist markets, has been described followed by the supply side considered in terms of tourism products and tourist destinations. The demand side, which captures the tourist market features, definition of tourist, factors influencing tourist characteristics and behaviour, tourist perceptions, and the tourist decision process in terms of post-purchase evaluation, are described. The supply side covers the tourism product including the tourist destination, its characteristics, components, and nature of the product.

In the next chapter the definition of the attractiveness of a tourist destination, the previous studies on the measurement of attractiveness, measuring destination

attractiveness, measurement scales. The segmentation-based approach is presented followed by the attributes selected for the judging the attractiveness of a tourist destination. Also, the working research model or conceptual framework, a model of tourist characteristics and the application of Pearce's 'Travel Motivation Ladder,' and operational framework will be presented.

CHAPTER 3
MEASUREMENT OF THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF TOURIST
DESTINATION

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the definition of the attractiveness of a tourist destination (3.1), the previous studies on the measurement of attractiveness (3.2), measuring destination attractiveness (3.3), and measurement scales (3.4). The segmentation-based approach (3.5) and attributes for the measurement of attractiveness (3.6) are also outlined. In addition, the selected attributes used in the measurement of destination attractiveness (3.7) are included. Also, the working research model or conceptual framework is demonstrated to conceptualise the study project (3.8), followed by a model of tourist characteristics and the application of Pearce's 'Travel Motivation Ladder' (3.9). Finally, an operational framework, illustrated the attractiveness model and associated hypotheses are included to show the apparent relationship between the variables studied (3.10).

3.1 DEFINITION OF ATTRACTIVENESS OF TOURIST DESTINATION

Hu and Ritchie (1993, p. 25) define the attractiveness of a travel destination as 'the feelings, beliefs, and opinions that an individual has about a destination's perceived ability to provide satisfaction in relation to his or her special vacation needs.'

Mayo and Jarvis (1981) conceptualised the notion of destination attractiveness by relating it to the traveller's decision-making process and the specific benefits derived by travellers. They define the notion of destination attractiveness as 'a combination

of the relative importance of individual benefits and the perceived ability of the destination to deliver individual benefit.'

Lue, Crompton, and Stewart (1996, p. 43) acknowledge attractiveness as 'something recognised by individuals as a factor that influences their decision-making of pleasure travel.'

In this research project, touristic attractiveness is operationally defined as a tourist's feelings, beliefs, attitudes, opinions, or perceptions of specific destination attributes or factors that influence a tourist's decision of which specific destination should be selected. Therefore, the overall or global attractiveness is the function of the affective evaluations of the destination and the perceptions of attribute importance.

With regard to the importance of the destination attributes, the term is defined as the sum of belief, ideas and impressions of characteristics or attributes that a tourist has of a place (Kotler, Haider & Rein, 1993).

3.2 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON MEASURING DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS

Tourism research has indicated that destination studies are necessary for the understanding of the elements that attract people to the region. From a thorough review of literature it appears that there have been substantial studies of destination image. In fact, there have been 142 destination image studies during the period 1973-2000 (Pike, 2002). However, when closely considering these papers summarised by this author, several gaps have been found as follows:

- There have been few attempts to measure the destination attractiveness for any specific travel context.

- The study of tourist destinations in Asia is less than other parts such as North America, UK/Europe.
- The specific areas such as provinces have gained less interest than the other type of destination such as country, states, cities, resorts and national parks.
- Very few studies employed the 'Fishbein Model' for data analysis particularly for the overall attractiveness. Most of them used factor analysis, *t*-tests, perceptual mapping, analysis of means, cluster analysis, importance-performance analysis, repertory grid, mapping techniques, constant sum, and conjoint analysis.
- Less than half of the studied papers (59 out of 142) targeted tourists at the destinations and their place of residence, most of which were travel and trade/experts, students samples, destination marketing organisation staff and local residents.
- Although the 142 papers cover a wide range of interests in this field, for example, the effect of visitation, segmentation, image differences between different groups, affect, the effect of distance from the destination, intermediaries, induced images, top of mind awareness/decision sets, culture, temporal image change, negative images, the effect of familiarity with the destination, less developed destinations, length of stay, event impact, scale validity, value, image formation, primary image, rural tourism, weather, traveller confidence, impulse decision-making, travel context, barriers to positioning, personal holiday photos, motivation, experience, stereotypes, budget travellers, intent to visit and destination marketing organisation policy' (Pike, 2002, p. 542), a few apparently involve perceptions of the attractiveness of tourist destination and the importance of destination attributes, as well as the influence of tourists' characteristics in the perceived importance of destination attributes.

Moreover, among the 142 papers, relatively few papers attempted to measure the attractiveness of destination for any specific travel context and region such as provinces as illustrated in Table 2 of the summary of the previous studies. As such, this thesis aims to make an additionally original contribution to the knowledge of destination attractiveness by filling the aforementioned gaps existing in the destination attractiveness literature.

Table 2: A Summary of Previous Studies on the Measurement of Tourist Destination Attractiveness (Source: Adjusted from Pike (2002, p. 543-546))

Author (date)	Region	A	Type	B	C	D	Sample	Other Focus
Gearing, Swart, and Var (1974)	UK/Europe	65	Country	17	26	O	Trade/experts	Index of tourist attractiveness
Var, Beck, and Loftus (1977)	Nth America	19	District	17	60	O	Trade/experts	N/A
Ritchie and Zins (1978)	Nth/America	1	Province	8	200	F	Trade/experts	Culture
Tang and Rochananond (1990)	Asia, Europe, Nth America, Sth America, and Africa	32	Country	8	339	A*	Visitors, trade/experts	N/A
Hu and Ritchie (1993)	Nth America, UK/Europe, Asia, Australia	5	Country	16	400	T	Tourists	Context, Visitation
Kim (1998)	Asia	5	National parks	20	400	P	Tourists	Psychological perception
Chen and Hsu (2000)	Nth America	1	Country	17	320	A*	Tourists	Budgeted travel

NB: A = the number of destinations of interest B = number of attributes
 C = number of respondents D = analytical techniques
 O = Other F = Factor Analysis
 A* = Analysis of means T = *t*-tests
 P = Perceptual mapping/Multidimensional scale

One of the most frequently cited works in the attractiveness area is that undertaken by Gearing et al. (1974). Gearing et al.(1974) who outlined a set of criteria to measure touristic attractiveness for the Turkish Ministry of Tourism. They developed a model or index of tourism attractiveness as the measurement of the potential of candidate regions for attracting tourists. Seventeen criteria were selected in terms of their 'independence.' The criteria provide a set of principles or considerations that might be used for identifying 'touristic attractiveness.'

Gearing et al. (1974) applied the weighting methodology developed by Churchman and Ackoff (1957, cited in Var et al., 1977) with some modification to take advantage of the hierarchical structure of the criteria being used. A process was designed to derive consistent judgements from interviewees and the contributions of 26 tourism experts were combined to form a set of numerical weights of the relative importance of the seventeen criteria. The criteria weights and implied ranks of a representative interviewee and the average of twenty-six experts for a hypothetical site are presented and employed for computing a weighted total for a hypothetical touristic area. The scores allow a comparison to be made between any two touristic areas, and a ranking of all the sixty-five touristic areas is established on the basis of their respective scores.

The work of Gearing et al. (1974) provides a method for measuring the relative importance of different factors (or criteria) which may influence the tourist's evaluation of a particular region. Seventeen factors representing five major groupings were evaluated by a combination of ranking and comparison procedures. Subsequent analysis assigned quantitative weightings of relative importance to tourist

attractiveness to each of the seventeen factors. However, it is important to note that recent studies employing the work of Gearing et al (1974). focus on the set of attributes they developed but not the mathematical model of analysis. The important contributions of the Gearing et al. (1974) work are the extract from the opinion of experts in tourism seventeen major attributes on tourist destination attractiveness. The attributes they categorized are five groups of criteria namely natural factors, social factors, historical factors, recreational and shopping facilities, and infrastructure and food and shelter. These attributes have been then widely utilised and modified.

Var et al., (1977) used the same methodology that Gearing et al., (1974) used. They sought to determine the touristic attractiveness of the tourism areas in British Columbia, Canada. They defined the model of touristic attractiveness of a district or region (j) as follows:

$$T_j = f(N_j, S_j, H_j, R_j, I_j)$$

where

- T_j = touristic attractiveness
- N_j = natural factors
- S_j = social factors
- H_j = historical factors
- R_j = recreation and shopping opportunities
- I_j = accessibility and accommodation above minimum
touristic quality

Ritchie and Zins (1978) determined the factors (in order of importance) affecting the attractiveness of Quebec, Canada as a tourist destination. By adopting the Gearing et al's seventeen criteria, eight factors that influence the attractiveness of the destination were found. The research was further then taken to establish the importance of culture as a determinant of tourism attractiveness. The study employed

a survey by contacting 200 'informed individuals' from tourism-related backgrounds to respond to a questionnaire. The respondents were asked to consider a range of factors from the standpoint of an 'average traveller.' Responses were then measured both on ordinal rank scales and on eleven-point interval scales. As a result, cultural and social features were found to rank second behind natural beauty and climate but ahead of other factors (ie. accessibility and attitudes towards tourists). The relative importance of the different socio-cultural elements was then determined for residents and non-residents.

To identify and quantify the factors which attract tourists to the destinations, Tang and Rochananond (1990) adopted a series of factors, established by Ritchie and Zins (1978), as the criteria to measure the attractiveness of 32 selected tourist destinations. Face-to-face and mail questionnaires were used as a survey research instrument. Each respondent was requested to rate each destination on a scale ranging from not attractive and not important (1) to outstandingly attractive and very important (5). An equation called a multi-attribute model was constructed to rank the relative attractiveness of each destination. It is:

$$R_i = \sum_{j=1}^8 W_j X_{ij}$$

where R_i = the ranking score of the country i ;

W_j = the weight (importance) of attribute j ;

X_{ij} = the average score of country i on attribute j ;

$$= \frac{(1)}{N_i} \sum_{k=1}^{N_i} X_{ijk}$$

N_i = the number of respondents who rated country i ; and

X_{ijk} = the standardised score of country i on attribute j by respondent k .

Thus, Tang and Rochananond's (1990) study employed a mathematical model, and although in an actual visitor context, the relationship or the influence of the subjects' characteristics on the perceived attractiveness of the tourist destination was not considered.

Hu and Ritchie (1993) examined 400 respondents' opinions on destination attractiveness by using a contextual approach. The method is referred to as a multi-attribute situational attitude measurement model, generates a numerical index of touristic attractiveness and the influence of familiarity on the perceived attractiveness of five tourist destination areas namely Hawaii, Australia, Greece, France and China. Sixteen attributes adjusted from those of Gearing et al (1974) and those of Ritchie and Zins (1978) were used as the criteria. The situation-specific multi-attribute model of Hu and Ritchie (1993), described below, evaluates the touristic attractiveness of a destination in terms of different vacation experiences:

$$A_{js} = \sum_{i=1}^n (I_{is} B_{ijs})$$

- where
- A_{js} = touristic attractiveness of destination j in terms of vacation experience type s
 - I_{is} = importance of touristic attribute i in contributing to the touristic attractiveness of a destination in terms of vacation vacation experience type s
 - B_{ijs} = perceptions concerning the ability of destination j to satisfy tourists' needs for attribute i in terms of vacation experience type s
 - n = number of attributes concerned
 - s = vacation experience type

A five-point Likert scale was used and respondents were asked to provide a score between least important or least positive (1) to most important or most positive (5) for each touristic attribute in affecting the attractiveness of tourist destination and for their perception regarding the ability of each destination to satisfy tourists' needs for each of the two different types of vacation experiences: recreation and education.

The attributes resulting from the data analysis included (1) climate, (2) the availability/quality of accommodation, (3) sports/recreational opportunities, (4) scenery, (5) food, (6) entertainment, (7) the uniqueness of local people's life, (8) historical attractions, (9) museums, cultural attractions, (10) communication difficulty due to language barriers, (11) festivals, special events, (12) accessibility, (13) shopping, (14) attitude towards tourists, (15) availability/quality of local transportation, and (16) price levels (Hu & Ritchie, 1993, p. 29).

The main contribution of the Hu and Ritchie study was that they established the need for researchers to seek insights into the consumer-based or subject-centered approach which they refer to as the contextual setting of attractiveness studies. They define contextual setting in terms of two types of vacation experiences called recreational and educational experiences, and a previous visit to or familiarity with the location.

Other previous studies that have been frequently cited in destination image and/or attractiveness investigation include those of Ferrario (1979) and Goodrich (1978). Ferrario (1979) undertook a survey of tourist resources in Southern Africa. Through the combination of measuring the attractions and a survey of tourists preferences of the attractions the study comprised of two steps. First, 2,300 different features of tourist resources mentioned in ten guidebooks on South Africa were listed and

classified into twenty-one categories. These categories were then evaluated in terms of two criteria: appeal and availability using the following model:

$$I = \frac{A + B}{2}$$

where I is the index of tourist potential
 A is the appeal component, or demand
 B is the availability component, or supply

The appeal component was first evaluated by a large scale visitor survey. Amongst the twenty-one categories listed for environmental features, ie. scenery and landscape, wildlife and natural vegetation were heavily preferred by respondents. An index of tourist demand was created by using the percentage of preference received and by reducing it to a scale of from 1 to 10 (e.g. 77 percent became an index of 7.7). Each of 2300 individual attractions in Southern Africa was then evaluated by weighting its category index by a guidebook coefficient – or by how many of the ten guidebooks reported it. The square root of the product was used to bring back the resulting value to a 1 to 10 scale. With the inclusion of this new weighting coefficient (G), the model became as follows:

$$I = \frac{\sqrt{AG + B}}{2}$$

The second step, the index of accessibility or the *B* values were determined by the use of six criteria which affect the supply: seasonality, accessibility, admission, importance, fragility and popularity. ‘Community influentials’ such as local authorities, pressure groups, or other agencies directly or indirectly interested in local tourist resources throughout the country were asked to rank individual attractions in their areas in terms of these six criteria following a descriptive nominal scale. These responses were subsequently transformed into a weighted numerical index and the different evaluations received by each attraction were averaged. After plotting these

values, clusters of attractions were identified for grid cells and further weighted by attendance figures on the principle that the sum of many low indices in a grid cell representing a cluster of less important features, could not be numerically equivalent to the presence in another cell of a single high index of a leading attraction. At last, twenty tourist regions were identified as most attractive in the combined territory of South Africa, Lesotho and Swaziland by the clustering of grid cells.

Goodrich (1978) employed the attribute set of Gearing et al.(1974) in an extensive study including a focus on consumer's perceptions. Goodrich's study represents the link between the earlier studies and consumer-focused models of analysis. The Goodrich model is based on Fishbein's expectancy-value model. The expectancy-value model was developed with reference to examining beliefs about the qualities of an object and the associated attitudes the people held towards the object. In any event, Fishbein's model combines two variables, 'belief' and 'affect,' to predict the attitude or opinion a person holds about a particular choice (Smith, 1989). The Goodrich Model is:

$$R_j = \sum_{i=1}^n I_i A_{ij}$$

- Where i = attribute or touristic characteristic
 j = region
 R_j = respondents' preference ranking of region j as a vacation destination
 I_i = the average importance rating of attribute i by respondents
 A_{ij} = respondents' belief about the amount of attribute i that region j possesses
 n = the number of attribute (10)

The author employed the above model through a consumer-based approach, that is, in an actual visitor context. A sample of 900 American Express Card clients was used. Questionnaires were sent to the respondents asking them to rate the importance of each attribute as a factor influencing their choice of destinations on a seven-point scale and the degree to which the nine locations possessed specific qualities. In his attempt to identify the relationship between preferences for, and the perceptions of, vacation destinations, nine tourist destinations were selected to be the study locations. These were Hawaii, California, Florida, Mexico, the Virgin Islands, the Bahamas, Jamaica, Barbados, and Puerto Rico. The questionnaires also asked respondents to directly compare the relative attractiveness of the nine destinations.

Two hundred and thirty questionnaires, ie. a 25% of response rate, were returned for analysis. Associated with the application of the expectancy-value equation, Goodrich also employed Thurstone's case V method (see Green & Tull, 1978, p. 180-187) to analyse the evaluations of attractiveness values for the nine tourist destinations. After comparing the scaled attractiveness values of the destinations as determined through the case V method with the values predicted through the expectancy-value model, a very close correlation among variables was found.

However, in this study, owing to the low response rate, three limitations were noted by the researcher. First, generalisation of the study results should be expanded with caution because the sample included only travellers living in New York and who carried American Express cards. Second, there are several other variables such as cost, advertising, availability of time, and the desire for a change affecting the ultimate choice of a destination which were not included in the study. Therefore, some of these attributes might be additional features in the model. Third, the

questionnaire used in the study was rather long and respondents needed a considerable time to answer it. This might have been the cause of the low response rate.

From these earlier studies it appears that the researchers relied heavily on mathematical models to assess the attractiveness of destinations. They sought to identify universal or objective attributes for determining the attractiveness of the location. Consequently, the emphasis is on a stimulus-centered approach. This means that the researchers investigated systematic variation across stimuli (the attractiveness attributes of the destination) rather than variation across respondents. However, it has been noted by recent researchers, that using mathematical methods in a non-actual visitor's context does not capture the complexity of consumer perceptions (Ferrario, 1979; Kozak, 2001a; Nyberg, 1994). Specifically, Ritchie and Goeldner (1987) suggested that in measures of attitude towards products especially the important factors/dimensions should be identified through a consumer-based approach.

Therefore more recent adaptations of the consumer-based or subject-centred approaches on the evaluation of the attractiveness of tourist destination have been undertaken. This includes Kim (1998) and Chen and Hsu (2000). Kim (1998) studied perceived attractiveness of five Korean national parks as tourist destinations - Cheju, Kyungju, Sulak, Haeundae, and Yusung. They focused on describing and interpreting tourist's cognitive choice behaviour by using perceptions of and preferences for alternative destination choices in order to provide a general understanding of the determinants. By using a face-to-face interview and a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) 400

tourists were approached using convenient sampling. An algorithm of MDS (Multidimensional Scale) called PROFIT (PROperty FITting) technique was employed for the identification of the position of the destinations in tourists' perceptual space. Kim's approach concentrated on the provision of factors contributing to actions that would increase visitors' preference for a destination and the assessment of the destination's appropriateness in terms of attributes and seasonal preferences. This was instead of looking into the influence of visitors' characteristics on perceived attractiveness attributes.

Chen and Hsu (2000) explored the image attributes which are collectively the leading attributes measuring the total attractiveness of a destination and which influence the three choice behaviours namely trip planning timeframe, budgeted travel costs, and length of trip. Three hundred and twenty outbound Korean tourists who were about to leave Korea for visits to the U.S.A, were asked to complete a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. The study applied the seventeen attributes developed by Echtner and Ritchie (1993). Various statistical approaches such as descriptive analysis were employed to obtain a tourist profile and mean scores on image attributes, and a stepwise multiple regression analysis for providing correlation between leading images and the attractiveness of region was used. The main contribution of this study was that highly rated image attributes measured by mean scores (eg. many interesting places to visit, safe place), were not the leading factors, in evaluating the overall destination attractiveness. Conversely, adventurous atmosphere, natural and scenic beauty, environmental friendliness, availability of tourist information, and similar architecture were leading factors that attracted tourists from Korea. Accordingly, the researchers suggest that agreement ratings of destination image attributes may not be an accurate measurement of the overall attractiveness of a destination.

Of the destination attractiveness literature discussed above, only that of Goodrich (1977), Tang and Rochananond (1990) and Hu and Ritchie (1993) applied the multi-attribute Fishbein model to their investigation. However, an apparent difference was found between the three research reports. Although the research reports were done in the international context and/or countries, Goodrich's (1977) study was relation to tourist destination image whereas Tang and Rochananond (1990) and Hu and Ritchie's (1993) were focused on the attractiveness of tourists destination. Nevertheless, the influence of tourists' country of origin and their internal and external characteristics were not concentrated.

This thesis is an attempt to fill the gaps in the destination attractiveness literature by applying a multi-attribute Fishbein model to investigate the overall attractiveness of a localised area and capture the tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes that contribute to the overall attractiveness. The relationship between tourists' characteristics and the perception of the importance of a tourist destination was also examined.

3.3 MEASURING DESTINATION ATTRACTIVENESS

The tourism products encompass elements such as attractions, infrastructure, services, accessibility, price, and other superstructural components. These elements, together, comprise the overall or the global appeal of natural and human-made characteristics that exist in the area. Since these elements differ in nature, researchers have found it difficult to develop a measurement that is capable of examining, evaluating, and comparing their various diverse characteristics. As Formica (2000) states for example each museum or lake is unique in its features and appeal and cannot be appraised as identical to other tourism resources labeled with the same

category. However, according to the previous studies, there are two ways of measuring attractiveness of the destination. The first can be achieved by studying the attractions and second by exploring the attractiveness perceptions of tourists who are attracted by them.

To study the attractions, the supply approach to tourism attractiveness which investigate and measure tourism resources and their spatial distribution is utilised. Essentially, attractions measures based on supply indicators are qualitative in nature. The supply perspective determines the overall attractiveness of the area by performing an accurate inventory of existing tourism resources. As conducted by Smith (1987), cottages, marinas, campsites, golf courses, horse riding establishments, and historical sites are variables that he used in analysing tourism regionalisation in Canada.

More specifically, tourism attractions and resources can be examined by using different measures, such as square metres (forested land), degrees (temperature), miles (roads), and bedrooms (hotels). The existence of tourism resources in a region is a necessary element of tourism attractiveness but it cannot predict the magnitude of the attraction of that region. Otherwise, by simply increasing the number of museums, lodging facilities, and hiking trails we would be able to increase the overall attractiveness of a region. As emphasised by Formica (2000, p. 352), 'the pulling force of a region depends on not only the number of tourist resources located in a given area but also on how these resources are valued and perceived by tourists.'

Essentially, the second means of examining destination attractiveness has been considered. These demand studies include the investigation of the actual visitation

patterns, and the measures of the perceived attractions generated by a single or multiple resources or by a region or destination. The investigation of perceptions is more subjective in nature and uses primary data. The measures include a number of visitor arrivals or numbers of participants, tourism expenditures or receipts, length of stay or tourists night spent at the destination site, travel propensity indexes, and tourist preferences (Leiper, 1995; Pearce, 1988).

Among the measures of destination attractiveness from a demand perspective, tourist preferences appear more accurate than actual visitation or tourist receipts because visitation might be influenced by variables other than simply attractiveness of the destination. In essence, 'tourists are the ultimate judges in determining the level of attractiveness of a region' (Formica, 2000, p. 351). Tourists' perceptions about a given area determine its success or failure as a tourist destination because perceptions are reality in the visitors' minds. It does not matter how many tourism resources are available in a given area when its overall attractiveness has already been judged by the tourists (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

However, there is a limitation of tourist preferences as attraction measures. In essence, human perceptions are based on many factors, such as personal and cultural beliefs, socio-demographics, and psychological factors (Milman & Pizam, 1995). As seen in the discussion of previous studies on measuring attractiveness, many studies have investigated attractiveness from the single demand perspectives. These include those of Ritchie and Zins (1978), Goodrich (1978), Tang and Rochananond (1990), Hu and Ritchie (1993), and Chen and Hsu (2000). These studies subjectively assumed that the areas under the investigation have certain resource attributes and no inventory of attractions was performed.

Importantly, some authors claim that studies including both experts' evaluations and visitors' surveys have the highest degree of accuracy (Nyberg, 1995). As demonstrated in the discussion of previous studies, the only case that included both criteria is Ferrario's study (1979). He inventoried the South Africa resources by using the tourist guides, then asked visitors about their preference and interest in each attraction. He also employed experts to determine the degree of availability and utilisation of tourist attractions.

However, since this method consumes both much time and research funds, there have been more likely that the measurement of attractiveness from a demand standpoint has a relatively modest impact upon the existing body of knowledge although it seems to be less consistent, methodologically sound, and validated analysis (Ferrario, 1979). Evidently, the studies that measure attractiveness from a demand perspective only (for example, Hu & Ritchie, 1993) have a high degree of variance in terms of methods and variables used (Formica, 2000).

As such, due to the limitation of time and research budget, this present study has employed the single demand perspective in measuring destination attractiveness. Moreover, the study of particular characteristics of tourists in terms of country of origin, motivation, travel purpose, gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size to capture the relationship between tourist's characteristics and the perceived attractiveness of a destination have been also investigated.

Ideally, the present thesis is an attempt to identify the attractiveness of a tourist destination with the application of some techniques used in the previous studies. For example, the scales selected for assessing attractiveness, similar to the Hu and Ritchie study (1993), a five-point Likert scale ranging from not attractive (1) to outstandingly attractive (5) for measuring the attractiveness and ranging from not at all important (1) to most important (5) for evaluating the attribute importance. Additionally, this study adopted the attributes constructed and developed by Gearing et al. (1974) and that of Ritchie and Zins (1978) as determinants of the attractiveness of the tourist destination.

Also, this attempt aims at filling the gap in the previous studies by determining whether the internal and external characteristics of tourist segments influence the perceived importance of tourist destination attributes. Moreover, the Fishbein model has been applied to obtain the overall or global attractiveness of the tourist destination. In addition, a different focus has also been marked in this study. While most previous attempts have mainly centred on studying attractiveness of multiple tourist destinations through travel and trade/experts' and/or tourists' perspectives without the involvement of their place of residence, this effort has concentrated on examining attractiveness of a single tourist destination such as a province through visitor perspectives from specific geographical origins.

3.4 MEASUREMENT SCALES

Aaker, Kumer and Day (1995) suggest that rating scales can be used to measure attitude variables such as beliefs, preferences, and intentions. These scales provide respondents with a set of numbered categories that represent the range of possible

judgements or positions. An attitude scale involves measurement in the same sense that a thermometer measures temperature or a ruler measures distance. In each of these cases, measurement means the assignment of numbers to objects or persons to represent the quantities of their attributes. The assignment of numbers is made according to rules that should correspond to the properties of whatever is being measured. In support to this explanation, Aaker et al. (1995) has demonstrated types of scales and their properties as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Types of Scales and Their Properties (Source: Aaker et al. 1995, p. 256)

Type of Measurement Scale	Type of Attitude Scale	Rules for Assigning Numbers	Typical Application	Statistics/Statistical Tests
Nominal	Dichotomous 'yes' or 'no' scales	Objects are either identical or different	Classification (by sex, geographic area, social class)	Percentages, mode/chi-square
Ordinal or Rank Order	Comparative, Rank order, Itemized Category, Paired Comparison	Objects are greater or smaller	Rankings (preference, class standing)	Percentile, median, Rank-order correlation/Friedman ANOVA
Interval	Likert, Thurstone, Stapel, Associative, Semantic Differential	Interval between adjacent ranks are equal	Index numbers, temperature scales, attitude measures	Mean, standard deviation, product moment correlations/t-tests, ANOVA, regression, factor analysis
Ratio	Certain scales with special instruction	There is a meaningful zero, so comparison of absolute magnitudes is possible	Sales, incomes, units produced, costs, age	Geometric and harmonic mean, coefficient of variation

When deciding on what kind of scale or measurement option to use in obtaining customer perceptions of tourism products at the destination, evidence from the literature shows that Likert scales are the most common scales in general use (Aaker et al. 1995; Green & Tull, 1978; Hughes, 1971; Johns & Lee-Ross, 1998; Torgerson,

1958). However, a discussion about whether the scales should include a mid-point is noted. For example, Johns and Lee-Ross (1998, p. 84) report that 'Many psychologists argue that it increases respondents' confidence to have a 'neither good nor bad' value, and it is normal to include a mid-point on scales in academic work. However, in some practical situations (for example, market research) clients may prefer to have an even scale, so that respondents must incline to one view or the other' (Johns & Lee-Ross, 1998).

In terms of data types, Likert scales are frequently treated as interval scales in analysis because the scale values one to five (1 = Very poor, 2 = Poor, 3 = Neither good nor poor, 4 = Good, and 5 = Very good) appear to be evenly spaced, that is, one unit apart (Aaker et al. 1995; Johns & Lee-Ross, 1998). However, according to Johns & Lee-Ross (1998, p. 84), there is no guarantee that the magnitudes of the feelings expressed by respondents are spaced like this, and there may be considerable variation between different individuals in this respect. Treating the data as 'interval in nature is at best an approximation, and it is much safer to treat the data as ordinal.'

In selecting what type of scale or measurement option to use in gaining customer responses, Noe (1999) argues that there are few rules in measuring customer satisfaction. He recommends a five- or seven-point unbalanced scale and strongly decried a nominal yes/no response format. Griffin and Hauser (1992) found no 'single best measure' on either a six-, nine-, 10-, or 100-point scale in testing products. Any scale size may be used appropriately if it is a balanced one with a neutral midpoint to differentiate between the choices (Noe, 1999).

Hanan and Karp (1989) analysed measurements of satisfaction on a Likert scale which may be applied to the measurement of tourist destination attractiveness. The investigation found that a high level of satisfaction exists if the top categories add up to between 85 and 95%. Average satisfaction ranks from 70 to 80%, while anything under 60% is considered low. Resulting bottom scale negatives are formed by adding two bottom categories that are generally average well below 50%.

3.5 SEGMENTATION-BASED APPROACH

Market segmentation is defined as 'The process of dividing a total market into groups of people with relatively similar product needs, for the purpose of designing a marketing mix that precisely matches the needs of individuals in a segment' (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999, p. 94). In this sense, a target market means a segment market selected by a hospitality and travel organisation for marketing attention.

Market segmentation is recognised as being advantageous to tourism marketing for the purpose of aiming 'the promotional efforts specifically to the wants and needs of likely prospects,' instead of 'dissipating promotion resources by trying to please all travellers,' (Goeldner, Ritchie & McIntosh, 2000, p. 635). Market segmentation leads to more effective use of marketing dollars, a clearer understanding of the needs and wants of selected customer groups, more effective positioning, and greater precision in selecting promotional vehicles and techniques (Morrison, 1996).

In the tourism industry, travel market segmentation can be made possible in many ways. Possible segments include the purpose of travel, buyer needs, user characteristics, demographic, economic or geographic characteristics, price, etc. (Middleton, 1994). However, market segmentation has some limitations and

problems. This approach is more expensive than using a non-segmented approach, and it is difficult to select the best segmentation base and to know how finely or broadly to segment (Morrison, 1996). Also, there are market segments that are not viable (Morrison, 1996). Gunn (1994) suggests that three basic conditions must be considered for segmentation. First, each segment must have enough numbers to assure special attention. Second, sufficient similarity of features within each group to give them distinction must be met. Third, the subsets must be applicable or worthwhile.

Similarly, but in more detail, Morrison (1996) presents the criteria for effective tourism market segmentation. They include the following features:

1. Segments should be measured with a reasonable degree of accuracy (measurement).
2. Segments should be large enough in size to warrant a separate investment (substantial).
3. An organisation needs to be able to select and easily reach the identified segments (accessible).
4. Segments must require different marketing approaches (defensible);
5. The identified segments need to have long-term potential and remain relevant over an extended period of time (durable).
6. The products or services offered by the organisation should fit the needs of a particular segment (competitive).
7. The segments should be as different from each other, or as heterogeneous, as possible; At the same time, the people within each segment should be as similar, or as homogeneous, as possible; and

8. A new target market needs to be compatible with the existing markets or customer mix (compatible).

A segmentation-based approach used in segmenting travel markets has been practiced for many years. However, discussion over which variables should be used to segment travel markets has not been concluded. For example, many travel and tourism scholars, for example, Morrison (1996) suggested that the main categories of segmentation variables should involve geography, demographic, psychographic, and behavioural (Table 4).

Table 4: Key Categories of Segmentation-Based Variables

Category	Types of Variable
1. Geography	countries, regions, suburban, rural, cities, towns, market areas, population desicites
2. Demographic	age, gender, household, income, family size, family life cycle, occupation, educational level, religion, race/ethnic origin
3. Psychographic	lifestyle, personality, attitudes, values, motivations
4. Behavioural	use frequency, usage status, brand loyalty, use occasions, benefits

(Adapted from Mill & Morrison, 1985, p. 363; Morrison, 1996, p. 165-173)

As shown in Table 4, geographic and demographic variables are the most widely used segmentation bases in the hospitality and travel industry, because the statistics are readily available, uniformly defined and accepted, and easy to use (Morrison, 1996). It is common for demographics to be used along with geographic segmentation, which is known as geodemographic segmentation. Geographic and demographic variables are associated with ‘a priori’ methodological approaches. In a priori segmentation, the segments to be investigated are selected at the beginning of the research (Moscardo, 1996). The two categories of psychologic and behavioural

segmentation bases are usually related to 'a posteriori' techniques where the segments are determined by the data rather than by the researcher (Moscardo, 1996).

In segmenting travel markets, psychological and behavioural variables are believed to be better segmentation bases as they explain consumption behaviour and satisfaction with products and services (Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison, 1992; Morrison, 1996; Mill & Morrison, 1985; Moscardo, Pearce & Morrison, 2001). However, geographic and demographic variables have been most commonly used in tourism. Essentially, there is not a uniform way of defining and describing psychographic or benefit segments, and it is necessary to develop demographic/geographic profiles of the customers identified in the clusters in order to reach the market segments (Mill & Morrison, 1985; Morrison, 1996).

The process of market segmentation is made possible by several means. According to Morrison, Hshieh and O'Leary (1994), a three-step approach can be used to segment markets. Starting with a research study, it then involves the analysis of data using factor and cluster analyses, for example, to define segments, and finally describes each of these segments by using a set of independent variables. Consequently, Morrison et al. (1994) suggest a three-step procedure model for segmenting travel markets. The model assumes that market segmentation follows research data collection and analysis. Once the analysis is completed, individual segmentation based or criteria are then used in three sequential roles, that is, (1) to divide the travel market into its principal subdivisions, (2) to differentiate travellers, and (3) to describe travellers within segments.

3.6 ATTRIBUTES USED IN JUDGING THE ATTRACTIVENESS OF A TOURIST DESTINATION

In terms of operationalising destination attractiveness, there has been recurring criticism of the use of attribute lists (Dann, 1996). It was apparent from the review, however, that there is not yet an accepted theory to replace the multi-attribute models. While the destination attractiveness construct has proven difficult to measure, consumers' (or tourists') overall perceptions of a destination may be either favourable or unfavourable (Milman & Pizam, 1995). Evidently, the volume of work in this field emphasises the need for destinations to develop favourable image. As such, Noe (1999) presented three steps for measuring attributes attractiveness studies. First, identify the attributes considered as being important. Second, measure the importance of each attribute, and third, measure how much of that attribute is contained in the product or service. Based on this notion, the attributes for the measuring attractiveness of a tourist destination are selected.

Although the evaluation of destination attractiveness has been investigated by many tourism scholars, a criterion used for assessing the attractiveness that has been original and frequently referred to and adapted stem from that of Gearing et al., (1974). The 'touristic attractiveness attributes' include seventeen features:

- Natural beauty
- Infrastructure
- Food and lodging
- Climate
- History
- Archaeological sites
- Local attitudes
- Religious significance
- Art and architecture
- Sport facilities

- Nightlife
- Shopping
- Peace and quiet
- Festival
- Local features
- Educational facilities
- Fairs and exhibits (p. 3)

These attributes were later modified, such adjustment that has been most widely used as the determinants of the attractiveness of a tourist destination is that of Ritchie and Zins (1978). They are:

- Natural beauty and climate
- Cultural and social characteristics
- Accessibility of the region
- Attitudes towards tourists
- Infrastructure of the region
- Price levels
- Shopping and commercial facilities
- Sport, recreation, and educational facilities (p. 257).

Meinung (1989) summarised this notion by suggesting that a number of different determinants might be applied to judge the attractiveness of a tourist region. The relationships and interactions between the determinants are identified by 'their own intrinsic nature and the qualities associated with them and/or attributed to them,' (p. 99). On this basis, the author presented three groups of determinants that may be used to determine the tourist attractiveness. They include primary or static factors, secondary or dynamic factors, and tertiary or current decision factors (Meinung, 1989).

He also suggested that all these factors should be applied for the evaluation of tourist attractiveness on the standpoint of flexible 'demand' because a marketing viewpoint will 'avoid fixing the determinants in a too rigid theoretical manner'(Meinung, 1989, p. 99).

Primary or static resources refer to the unchangeable resources in any geographical, cultural or political region. They include the landscape (ie. natural landscape, cultivated landscape), forms of landscape (ie. plain, hills, mountains, coast and sea, rivers and lakes), the climate and its curative qualities (ie. climatic zones, natural cures – air, altitude, mineral waters, etc.), means of travel (ie. to the region, in the region), and culture (ie. history, monuments, object, local crafts, folklore, local customs) (Meinung, 1989).

Secondary or dynamic factors are the supporting variable resources at the tourist destination exist under the three conditions: the extent of their proportions, quality, and time availability. They cover three aspects: tourism supply (ie. accommodation, catering, personal attention and service, entertainment and sport), administrative and political settings (ie. free access to the market – without visas, foreign currency restrictions, permists, etc. restricted access to the market, conditions associated with the political system), and trends in tourism (ie. growth market, currently established market, declining market, competitive situation of similar markets) (Meinung, 1989).

Tertiary or current decision factors refer to the marketing-oriented activities or operations that ensure the attractiveness of tourist destinations. They include the marketing of the region (ie. total marketing concept, partial marketing concept), the price situation (ie. prices in the target region, prices in the country of origin), and

organisation (ie. administration, economic organisation) (Meinung, 1989). A summary of the three types of determinants of the attractiveness of tourist destination is provided in Table 5.

Table 5: Determinants of Tourist Destination Attractiveness

Primary/Static Factors	Secondary/Dynamic Factors	Tertiary/Current Factors
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Landscape (e.g. natural, cultivated, forms of landscapes – plain, hills, mountains, coast and sea, rivers and lakes) • Climate (e.g. history, monuments, objects, local crafts, folklore, local customs, etc.) • Means of travel (e.g. to the region, in the region) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism supply (e.g. accommodation, catering, personal attention and service, entertainment and sport) • Administrative and political settings (e.g. free access to the market – without visas, foreign currency restrictions, permits, etc.) • Trends in tourism (e.g. growth market, current established market, etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marketing-oriented activities or operations (e.g. price situation both in the target region and in the country of origin) • Organisation (e.g. administration, economic organisation)

3.7 THE SELECTED ATTRIBUTES FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF THE ATTRACTIVENESS

Ritchie and Goeldner (1987) suggested three basic approaches to constructing an attitude scale. The first is to select a scale that has been previously developed and tested by others. The second is to develop a scale either by modifying an existing scale or by introducing a new set of items. The third is to develop a new scale that is valid and reliable. Bearing this in mind, the ‘*universal*’ attributes developed by Gearing et al. (1974) and those of Ritchie and Zins (1978) were selected. However, some minor modifications was made to take advantage of the appropriateness of the

attributes being used with the specific destination and purpose. These attributes are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Selected Attributes for the Measurement of Tourist Destination Attractiveness

Attributes	Subdivision/ Consideration
1 Natural factors	Natural beauty; climate; water; wildlife; vegetation
2 Cultural features	Architectural and artistic feature; historical and ancient ruins; carnivals and festivals; distinctive local features; religion; and food
3 Recreational and shopping facilities	Outdoor activities; facilities pursuing health, rest, and Serenity; nighttime recreation; and shopping facilities
4 Infrastructure	The quality and availability of different means of Transportation, accommodation
5 Accessibility	The physical distance to and the time involved in Reaching the vacation destination
6 Reception	Information centres; interpretation and language services; Pedestrian signposts; display maps; tour-local guides and tour operators; community attitudes towards tourists
7 Services	Banks/cash machines; currency exchange; Police/security; medical/health services; Communications; energy supply; water supply; and Sewerage services
8 Cost/Price	The value received for money spent on major services, food, lodging, and transportation within the Province

In Table 6, eight major attributes were identified as determinants that contribute to the overall attractiveness and the important compositions of the tourist destination. These are 'Natural Factors,' 'Cultural Features,' 'Recreational and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' 'Services,' and 'Cost/Price.' Among these attributes, those referred to primary tourism resources are 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features' whereas the remaining are regarded secondary resources. Also, the eight factors have subsequently been subdivided for the

measures of perceived importance of destination attributes of tourists. The 'Natural Factors' category, for example, were subdivided into five parts: 'Natural beauty,' 'Climate,' 'Water,' 'Wildlife,' and 'Vegetation.'

3.8 A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

There has been general recognition in the literature that the attractiveness of a destination reflects the feelings, beliefs, and opinions that tourists have about a destination's perceived ability to provide satisfaction in relation to their special vacation needs (Gearing *et al.*, 1974; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981; Var *et al.*, 1977). In this sense, attractiveness cannot be measured without explicit reference to the visitor context or to a consumer-based approach (Chen & Hsu, 2000; Ferrario, 1979; Goodrich, 1979; Haahti, 1986; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Kim, 1998; Nyberg, 1994; Ritchie & Goeldner, 1987; Tang & Rochananond, 1990). More specifically, the attractiveness of a tourist destination can only be defined in relation to the perceptions of someone who considers it an attraction. In other words, the evaluation of attractiveness will rely on some measures of visitor perception. Accordingly, the conceptual framework for this study is based on the belief that tourist perceptions are experiences of products are at the very root of the attractiveness of a tourist destination.

The conceptualisation of a destination, like other goods and services, is composed of a number of multi-attributes that together will determine its attractiveness to a particular tourist in a specific period of time. In essence, apart from primary resources, ie. natural factors, human-made assets, secondary or supporting resources such as accommodation, transportation, accessibility, infrastructure, recreational and shopping facilities, services, reception, and cost or price must not be disregarded

when measuring the total attractiveness of a tourist destination. This derives the application of a multi-attribute attitude model, which has been used to assess attitudes and perceptions of tourists after experiencing the tourism products in the destination.

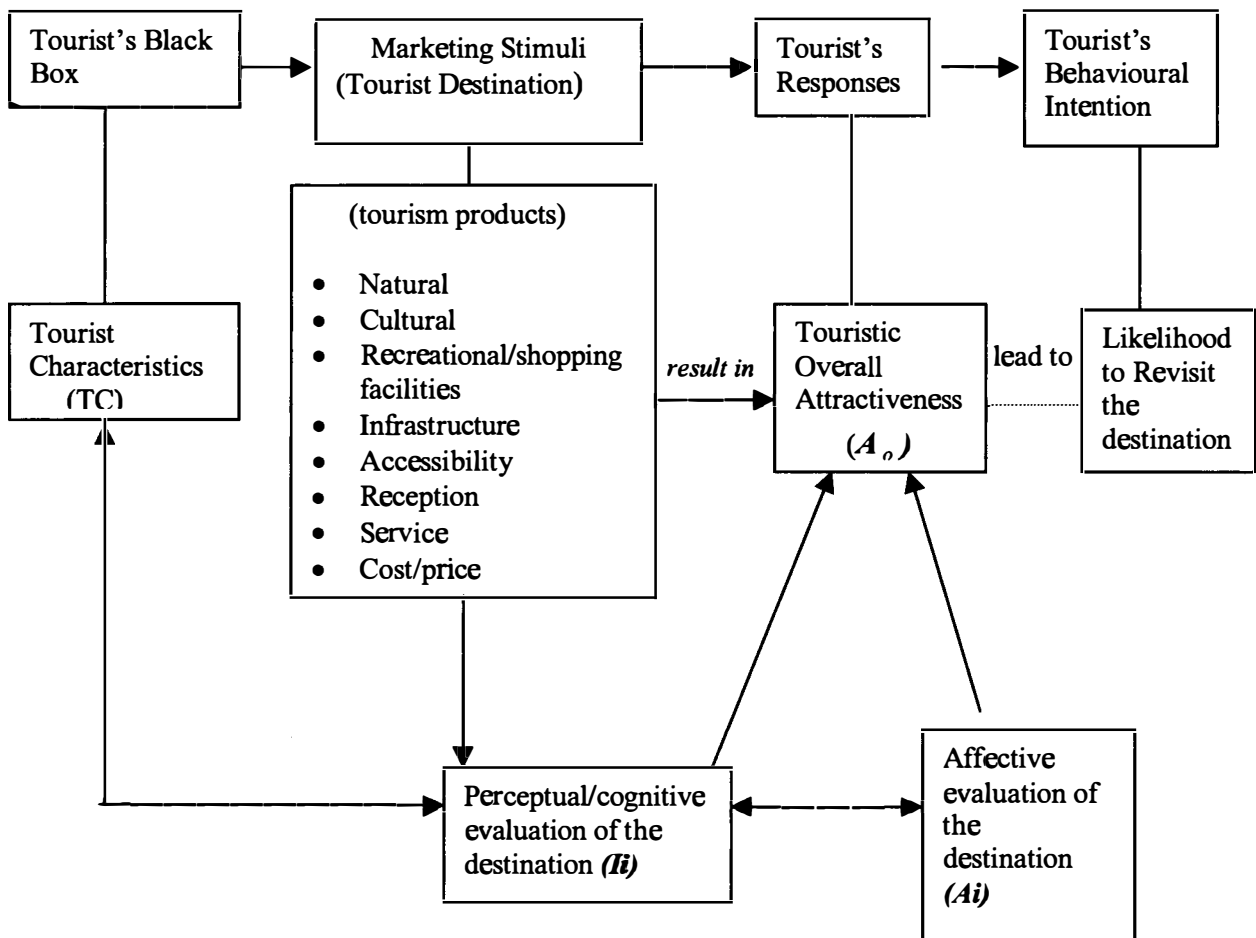


Figure 6: A Conceptual Framework of the Investigation of the Attractiveness of Tourist Destination

Figure 6 has conceptualised the framework of the investigation of the attractiveness of the tourist destination. It is composed of four main elements: tourist's black box, marketing stimuli, tourist responses, and tourist behavioural intention. Tourist's black box comprises tourist's internal and external characteristics. Internal characteristic refers to tourist's travel motivation. External characteristics include tourists' travel purpose, age, gender, education level, occupation, income, marital

status, and family size. Marketing stimuli refer to tourism products at the destination, which involve primary and secondary resources. After tourists experiencing tourism products, they will respond to the stimuli by evaluating the products in which affect their travel behavioural intention in the future.

3.8.1 Multi-Attribute Attitude Model: Fishbein Model

With regard to the measurement of tourist attractiveness, it was apparent from the review that there is not yet an accepted theory to replace the multi-attribute models (Pink, 2000). This present study, therefore, applied a multi-attribute attitude for evaluating the attractiveness of Chiang Mai Province. Multi-attribute models have been popular among marketing researchers. The models have been constructed to resolve the problem that a simple response does not always indicate everything the researchers need to know about why the consumers feel a certain way toward a product. The models assume that a consumer's attitude, that is, evaluation of an attitude object (A_o) will depend on the beliefs he or she has about several or many attributes of the object. In this sense, the use of a multi-attribute attitude model implies that an attitude toward a product or brand can be predicted by identifying these specific beliefs and combining them to derive a measure of the consumer's overall attitude. The most influential multi-attribute model called the Fishbein model is named after the primary developer, Martin Fishbein (Zikmund, 2000).

Although the model has been widely modified in the marketing discipline, there are, however, basic elements of the models exist. They include attributes, beliefs, and importance. Attributes are characteristics of the A_o . Most models assume that these relevant characteristics can be identified. That is, the researcher can include these

attributes that consumers consider when evaluating the A_o . For example, in this application, 'Natural Factors' are one of the attributes of the attractiveness of a tourist destination.

Beliefs are cognition about the specific A_o . A belief measure evaluates the extent to which the consumers (in this sense – tourists) perceive that a destination has, at least, a particular attribute. Importance weights reflect the relative priority of an attribute to the consumers (ie. tourists). Although, an A_o can be regarded on a number of attributes, some are likely to be more important than others, (ie. those attributes will be given greater weight). Also, these weights are likely to differ across consumers (ie. tourists) (Zikmund, 2000).

The Fishbein attitude model has been applied to obtain the overall or global destination attractiveness in this present study. It is formulated as $A_o = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i I_i$, where A_o denotes a tourist's overall attitude, that is, the overall or global attractiveness of the destination; i refers to attribute or touristic characteristic; I_i denotes the tourist's strength of belief or perceptions or the cognition that the destination is associated with attribute i , A_i denotes the tourist's affective evaluation of attribute i , and n refers to number of attributes. Overall, The perceptual/cognitive evaluations refer to beliefs or knowledge about a destination's attributes whereas affective evaluation refers to feelings toward, or attachment to it. A result of both perceptual/cognitive and affective evaluations of that place, therefore, form an overall or global attractiveness of a destination.

3.8.2 Internal and External Characteristics of Tourists

Other factors that are likely to influence tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes are tourists' internal and external characteristics. An internal characteristic is concerned with travel motivation, whereas external characteristics involve socio-economic demographics comprising place of origin, travel purpose, age, gender, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size.

Tourist customers are not homogeneous. In order to understand the customer, tourism markets may be divided into a number of segments, which share a set of common purchasing and behavioural characteristics (Dickman, 1999; Gartner, 1996; Hall, 1998; Middleton, 2001; Mill & Morrison, 1985; Morrison, 1996; Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). The characteristics of tourists can be measured objectively in terms of demographic, geographic, and socio-economic factors, and travel purpose/use of segmentation (Gunn, 1994) whereas motivation/expectation and preferred experiences may only be inferred (Hall, 1998). Both the objective and the inferred measures of tourist characteristics can, in turn, be examined from the general and the situation-specific perspective as shown in Figure 7

The model of tourist characteristics illustrated in Figure 7 indicates various variables that are assumed to be influential in a tourist's perceived attractiveness of the destination and his/her perceived importance of destination attributes. Demographic and socioeconomic factors or the personal characteristics of the tourists include age, gender, education level, occupation, household income, marital status, and family size. The geographic factor, regarded as a cultural factor, is the country of origin of the tourist. Another segment that may influence tourists' evaluation of perceptions of the importance of destination attributes is travel characteristic or travel purpose,

which includes leisure/recreation, education, business, visiting friends and relatives, and others. All these variables can be measured objectively whereas psychological factor such as travel motivation is evaluated by inferred method. The measurement of the motivation of tourists has been undertaken in this study by using Pearce's 'Travel Motivation Ladder' or 'Travel Career Ladder' adjusted by Kim and Lee (2000) (see Figure 4, and Figure 8)

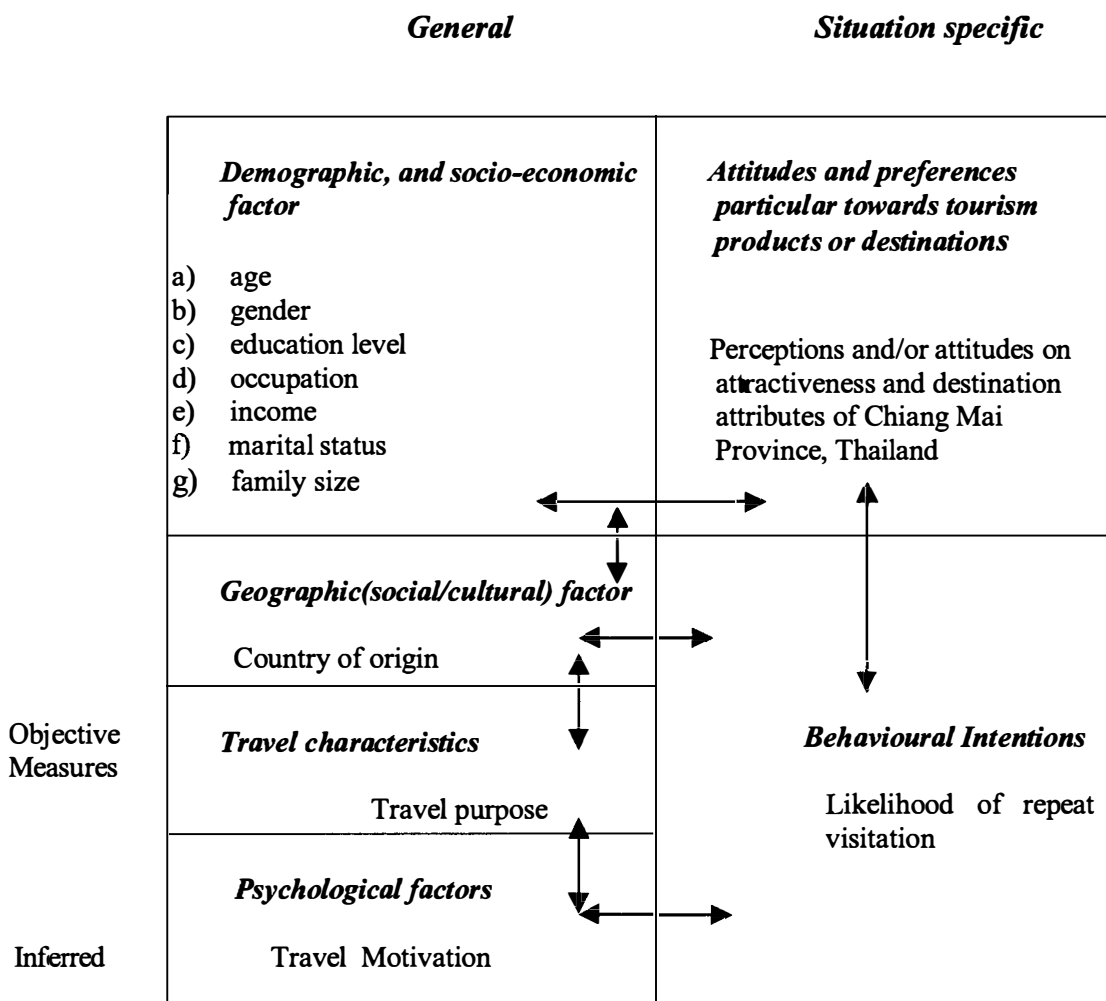


Figure 7: The Model of Tourist Characteristics

(Source: Adapted from Bryant and Morrison (1980, p.3, cited in Gunn, 1994, p. 38; Hall, 1998, p. 52))

In relation to situation specific, the tourist's attitudes (and preferences) are particular for the assessment has been taken under the specific conditions: towards the specific tourism products (ie. eight selected attributes) and the specific destination, Chiang

Mai, Thailand. It is believed that the perceptions of visitors influence their future behavioural intention such as the likelihood to repeat a visit.

More specifically, a summary of segmentation-based variables used in this study is illustrated in Table 7 as follows:

Table 7: A Summary of Segmentation-Based Variables

Category	Types of Variable
1. Sociodemographic	Gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size
2. Geographic	Country or place of origin
3. Psychological	Travel Motivation
4. Travel characteristic	Travel purpose
5. Behavioural	Likelihood to revisit to the destination

(Source: Based on variables listed by Dodd & Bigotte, 1997; Gumm, 1994; Hall, 1998; Morrison, 1996; Morrison, Hsieh & O'Leary, 1994; Smith, 1989; Wilkie, 1994)

3.9 TRAVEL MOTIVATION APPLICATION FOR THE THESIS

Pearce's 'Travel Motivation Ladder' or the 'Travel Career Ladder (TCL)' is an underpinning concept of the assessment of tourist's travel motivation of this study. Pearce (1993) stated that there are five different hierarchical travel career steps affecting tourist behaviour. Like a career at work, people may start at different levels and they are likely to change levels during their life – cycle. The direction of change within the TCL is variable, some individuals may come up the ladder predominantly on the left hand side of the system, while others may go through all steps on both the left and right hand side of the model. One motive at a time tends to be dominant but people may have several motives influencing their tourism activities. People at the lower level of the TCL, emphasise basic services (eg. food, space, toilets, etc.) and enjoy a sense of escape

as key motives. On the other hand, people at the higher levels are concerned with developing their skills, knowledge, ability and special interests.

The assessment of tourist's psychological profile in the present study has employed Pearce's TCL which Kim and Lee (2000) applied to their work. However, some minor modifications and differences were made to meet the objectives of the study. Based on the TCL, hierarchically, starting from the basic step of the ladder to the higher level, travel motivation used in this study is composed of five categories. They are (1) 'Relaxation,' which refers to a simpler life and getting away from the demands of home; (2) 'An Exciting Experience,' which includes two subcategories, adventuresome experiences, and fun; (3) 'Family Relationship,' governing the opportunity to be together as a family, and activities for the whole family; (4) 'Self-esteem' or 'Prestige,' embracing the chance to talk about the trip after returning home, and the chance to go to places that friends/relatives have not been; and (5) 'Cultural Experiences,' comprising two components, that is, unique cultures different from those of tourists, and learning about new things. The steps in the ladder has been summarised in Figure 8 below:

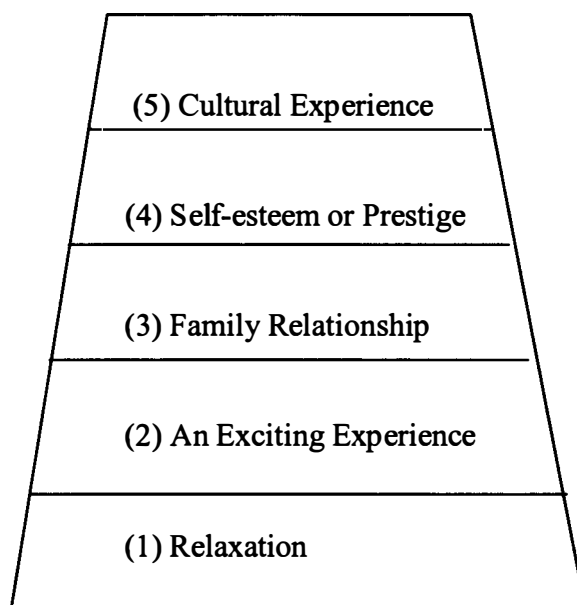


Figure 8: Applied Travel Motivation Ladder
(Based on Kim & Lee (2000); Pearce's TCL (1993))

With regard to the measurement of tourists' travel motivation in the present study, respondents were asked: Which of these statements is the most important motivation to you for choosing Chiang Mai Province as your vacation destination? They were asked to select one response from a list of possible motivations such as a simpler life, getting away from the demands of home, and so on (see Appendix A).

3.10 AN OPERATIONAL FRAMEWORK: THE ATTRACTIVENESS MODEL AND ASSOCIATED HYPOTHESES

According to Matheison and Wall (1982) and Kotler et al. (1999), tourist buying behaviour consists of four main components, namely marketing stimuli, the tourist's black box, the tourist's responses, and the tourist's behavioural intention (see Figure 2). An operational framework of the attractiveness model and associated hypotheses for the present study is illustrated in Figure 9 to explain the relationship of the variables.

As illustrated in Figure 9, the variables studied include four dependent variables. They are (1) the perception of the attractiveness of destination, (2) the relationship between the overall attractiveness and tourists' intention to repeat visitation, (3) the perception of the importance of destination attributes and (4) the relationship between tourists' perception of importance and their internal and external characteristics. Both of the perception of destination attractiveness and the perception of the importance of destination attributes have resulted from marketing stimuli or tourist destination attributes, that is, 'Natural Factors,' 'Cultural Features,' 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' 'Service,' and 'Cost/Price.' Tourists are presumed to perceive tourist destination attractiveness differently owing to the difference of the place of origin, the

geographical needs, trends, and cultures of a region. Also, geographical regions such as Western and Asian are presumed to influence visitors' perceptions of the attractiveness of a tourist destination. Therefore, Hypothesis 1.1, and 1.2 have been derived. Travellers from different place of origin and those who residing in different geographical regions are presumed to place the importance of the attributes of the primary and secondary tourism products differently. Hence Hypothesis 2.1 and 2.2 were emerged. Tourists who are more favourable the perception of destination attractiveness, are presumed to have greater the likelihood of repeat visitation. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was assumed. Studies in psychology, marketing and tourism have shown differences in the behavioural patterns of consumers based on motivation, travel purpose, gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size. Hence, Hypothesis 4.1 to 4.9 was derived.

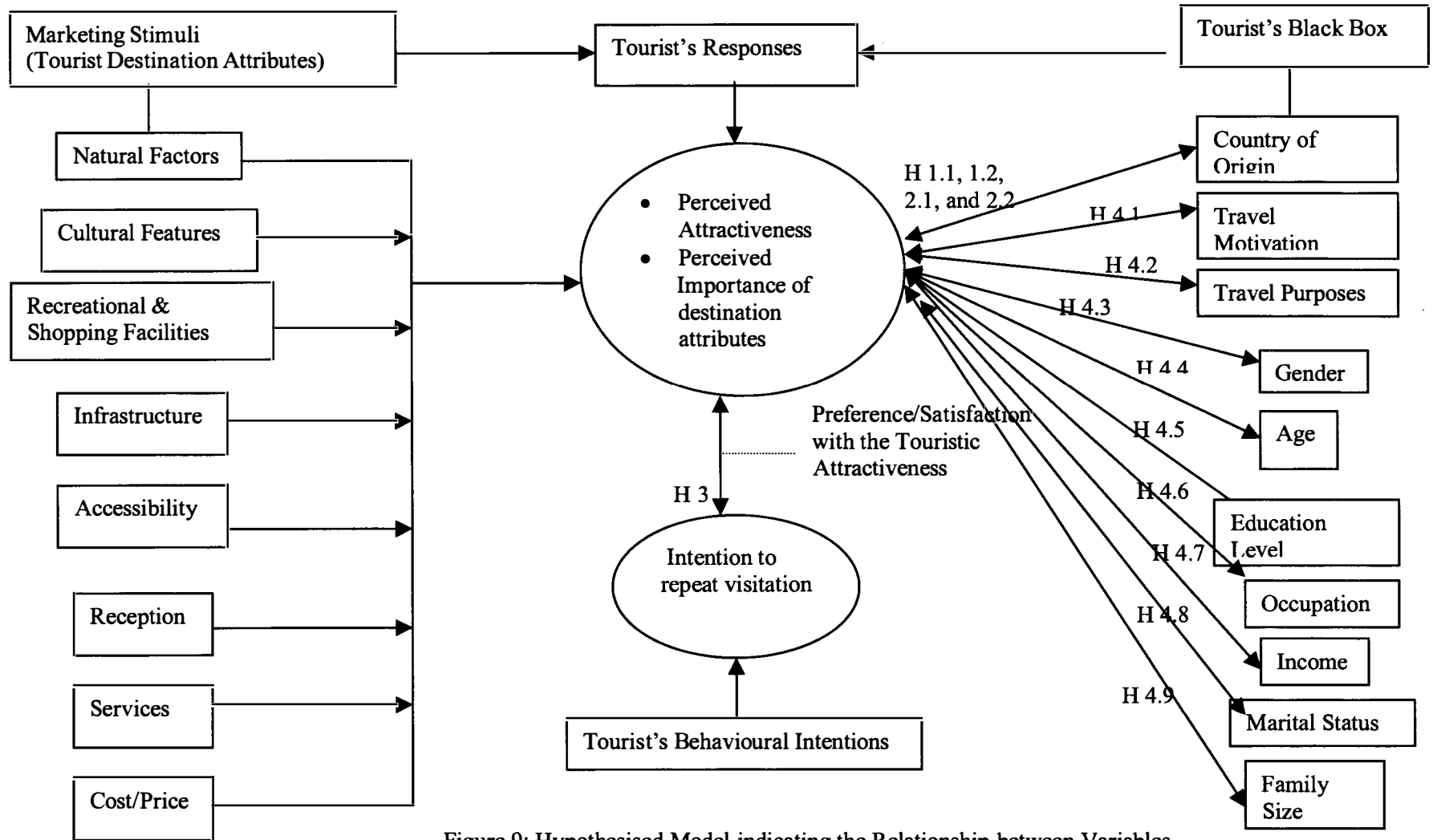


Figure 9: Hypothesised Model indicating the Relationship between Variables

3.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the literature relevant to the measurement of attractiveness of tourist destination. It began by presenting the definition of destination attractiveness and the discussions about the approach measures undertaken to assess attractiveness in key previous research studies. The five-point Likert numerical scale used as the measurement scale was also described. A segmentation-based approach and attributes as determinants of the attractiveness of tourist destinations were also outlined, followed by the attributes used in judging the attractiveness of a tourist destination. Also, the attributes selected for the measurement of the attractiveness and a working research model or the conceptual framework have been demonstrated. In addition, the model of tourist characteristics including the factors that are assumed to influence tourists' perceptions of attribute importance and the application of 'Travel Motivation Ladder' or 'Travel Career Ladder (TCL)' are described. The diagram indicating the relationship between variables has finally also been included in the chapter.

The next chapter describes research procedure. It includes research methodology, sample selection, research design, pilot study, validity and reliability, data collection, data analysis, coding of studied variables, and ethical considerations.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the procedure for the investigation, which includes research methodology (4.1), the sample selection (4.2), research design (4.3), research instrument (4.4), pilot study (4.5), face validity and reliability (4.6), the data collection (4.7). Data analysis (4.8), coding of variables studied (4.9) and the ethical considerations are also considered.

4.1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to investigate tourists' perceived attractiveness of the tourist destination and the importance of destination attributes that determine the overall attractiveness of a tourist destination. Self-administered survey questionnaires were analysed to answer the following research questions:

4.1.1 How do the tourists from the six countries of origin perceived the overall attractiveness of Chiang Mai?

4.1.2 How do tourists perceive importance of destination attributes that contribute to the overall attractiveness of the tourist destination?

4.1.3 What is the overall or global attractiveness of a tourist destination across tourists' six countries of origin?

4.1.4 What is the relationship between tourists' perceived attractiveness and the intention to revisit the destination?

4.1.5 What is the relationship between tourists' perceptions of attribute importance and characteristics of tourists in terms of travel motivation, travel purpose, gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size?

4.2 SAMPLE SELECTION

International tourists visiting Chiang Mai Province, Thailand during 1 - 30 April 2001 were engaged in this study. The sample size was determined by the researcher specifying the estimation of population (P) to within an amount 0.046 with 95% confidence, whatever the value of P (population). Then the required sample size was calculated according to model

$$\frac{\left(Z \frac{\alpha}{2}\right)^2}{4 e^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2}{4 e^2} = 452.$$

Thus, a minimum sample size was 452 (Kachigan, 1986). Subsequently, participants were selected by using a proportionate stratified sampling method. Applying this method, participants' place of origin was derived from Chiang Mai's top-6 inbound tourist markets of Tourist Arrivals based on data from April 2000, recorded by the TAT Northern Office Region (TAT, 2000) (Table 8).

Table 8: Samples Distribution (based on proportion of arrivals)

Chiang top-6 markets	Mai's tourist	Number of April 2000 arrivals	Percentage	Sample size
France		9,105	22.7 %	103
Taiwan		8,712	21.7 %	98
United Kingdom		8,196	20.4 %	92
Germany		4,795	12.0 %	54
United States		4,686	11.7 %	53
Japan		4,597	11.5 %	52
Total		40,091	100 %	452

Once the countries were selected, the sample size of each country was calculated. This produced the final sample size presented in Table 8. Also, participants were selected for the study on the basis of their understanding the English language. However, the literature suggests that the larger the sample, the smaller the sampling error and the more accurate the survey (Lewis, 1984), therefore, sampling error is expected to decrease as the size of the sample increases (Hurst, 1994). As such, when performing the actual data collection, more samples were drawn so as to allow for non-response and/or incomplete questionnaires, to guard against error, and to make the representation more accurate. Thus, the actual total number of respondents is shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Descriptive Data on the Number of Participants

Place of origin	Amount of distributed questionnaires	Useable questionnaires	Percentage of total questionnaire distributed
France	114	108	17%
Taiwan	114	107	17%
United Kingdom	114	114	17.3%
Germany	84	81	13%
United States	102	102	16%
Japan	109	102	16%
Total	637	614	96.3%

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study used a closed-ended, self-administered questionnaire to survey visitors' opinions on the attractiveness of Chiang Mai. Eight attributes or factors were used for assessing the overall attractiveness of the destination. These included 'Natural Factors,' 'Cultural Features,' 'Recreational and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' 'Services,' and 'Cost/Price.'

Thirty sub-attributes representing the eight major groupings mentioned above were obtained from a series of factors identified by Gearing et al. (1974) and Ritchie and Zins (1978) as significant in determining the importance of tourist destination attributes. However, some minor modifications were made to include specific features of the region with the agreement of several tourism scholars who inspected the validity of the research instrument used in this present study.

To find out the importance of attributes that contribute to attractiveness, the attributes were then rated. Internal and external factors - on the range of

psychological and geographic and socio-demographic variables were also analysed to determine the variations in the perceptions of factor importance amongst the international tourists.

4.4 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The instrument for this survey study was a closed-ended, self-administered questionnaire. Most of the questions were based on, or adapted from previous research questionnaire models and specifically research on the measurement of destination attractiveness of a tourism destination. The questionnaire utilises a five point Likert type numerical scale ranging from 1 - Not attractive to 5 - Outstandingly attractive for measuring tourists' affective evaluation of or preference for the destination. Also, a five point Likert type numerical scale ranging from 1 - Not at all significant to 5 - Most significant was utilised for assessing tourists' cognitive evaluation or the perceptions of importance of attributes that contribute to the attractiveness of a destination. To fulfil the ethical concerns about conducting research relating to human subjects, a covering letter indicating the purpose of the study and inviting persons to participate accompanied the questionnaire. The questionnaire was comprised of three parts; each was designed to elicit responses for the following:

Part I Evaluation of destination attractiveness (or the measures of affect or preference or saliency weights),

Part II Rating the importance of sub-attributes (for the measures of cognition or perceptions or desirability), and

Part III Background information of the respondents

4.5 PILOT STUDY

A preliminary small-scale study was launched to test the questionnaire, the feasibility of the research design, the data gathering and associated procedures, and the statistical and analytical procedure. The pilot study was conducted in the actual research context, using international visitors and in the study area--Chiang Mai Province. To obtain the objectives mentioned above, the following three questions were kept in mind:

4.5.1 Was the level of the English language used in the questionnaire easy to understand and appropriate for the target audience/sample?

4.5.2 Did any of the questions need to be rewritten in a different way to improve the clarity of the questions?

4.5.3 Did the collected answers produce information that was meaningful to answer the study research questions?

Accordingly, 47 international tourists who could understand English and who visited Chiang Mai during 25 February to 2 March 2001 were asked to participate in the pilot study and answered the questionnaires. They were from 10 countries: Italy, New Zealand, Germany, Taiwan, United Kingdom, USA, Korea, Australia, Japan, and France. The questionnaires were distributed at the departure lounge of Chiang Mai International Airport, the guesthouses, and along the pedestrian sidewalks in Chiang Mai City.

4.6 FACE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Face validity was gained by examining research objectives in relation to the questions built into the questionnaire by the researcher's supervisors and experts in the tourism and marketing research disciplines. They include Dr. Ross K. Dowling, Head of School of Marketing Tourism & Leisure of Edith Cowan University, Dr. Jack Carlsen, the Senior Lecturer and Research Manager, School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure of Edith Cowan University, Dr. Francis Lobo, an Associate Professor of School of Marketing of Edith Cowan University, and Dr Diane Lee, a Senior Lecturer of Tourism Programme of Murdoch University, Australia.

To observe how the pilot study respondents would understand the questions used in the questionnaire, the questionnaires were distributed to 35 Australians who had visited Chiang Mai to complete the questionnaire and provide feedback on the wording of the questions. The task was taken at Wat Puthamma Prathip (the Buddhist Temple) in Perth, Australia. As a result, some questions were changed to make them clearer, for example, from 'Please rate the attractiveness of Chiang Mai according to your opinions,' to 'To what extent do you rate the attractiveness of Chiang Mai Province?'

After the pilot questionnaires were collected and the responses coded, the individual items in the scale were tested to ascertain the reliability of the measures of the survey. Cronbach's alpha or coefficient alpha was obtained by using the reliability module of SPSS 10 (SPSS, 1999). According to Nunnally (1978), and Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998), reliability in the range of 0.6 to 0.7 will be tolerated. The reliability coefficients obtained for the items (8 items) in Part I of the

questionnaire were .77, and for the remaining items (30) in Part II, the coefficient alpha was 0.88. The composite measures of all items in both sections (38 items) in the questionnaire returned a Cronbach alpha of .88. This value indicates that there was internal consistency and reliability with the measurement items.

4.7 DATA COLLECTION

Due to the large number of participants and the survey period time frame, several research assistants needed to be recruited to help in collecting data. Four students from Chiang Mai University, twenty-one from Rajabhat Institute Chiang Mai, and two from Naresuen University were engaged. They were capable in the English language. The research assistants were provided with an understanding of the questionnaire and necessary principles and practice for approaching participants and collecting the data. The procedure of data collection was divided into two strategies.

4.7.1 *The First Strategy*

The investigator and/or research assistants were stationed at the departure area of the Chiang Mai International Airport, train station, hotels and resorts in Chiang Mai Province. Every international tourist was approached and asked if he/she was from the targeted countries. If yes, either was asked if they could understand English and be willing to participate in the research study. If they agreed to participate in the study, they then were asked to complete a closed-ended, self-administered questionnaire that took approximately 10 minutes.

4.7.2 *The Second Strategy*

The researcher and/or the research assistants would approach the leader of a tour group and/or an independent visitor from the targeted places of origin and asked for his/her cooperation in the study. If the group and/or the visitor agreed to take part in the study, the researcher and/or the researcher assistants, then, repeated the First Strategy.

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

This task was carried out in several steps. It included two major procedures. The first procedure included coding the variables, and the analysis of the respondents' profiles. The second involved analysis of the tourists' perceived attractiveness of the destination, and the analysis of perceived importance of destination attributes. Also, a confirmation of the structure of the factors or attributes in the importance scale was performed before further analysis of perceived importance of destination attributes was conducted. An analysis of the overall attractiveness of the destination and its relationship with the intention to revisit the region was also carried out. In addition, the relationship between tourists' internal and external characteristics and perceived importance of destination attributes were examined. The procedures that were undertaken are described as follows:

Step 1: Analysis of Profile of Respondents

Descriptive statistics namely frequency and percentages as provided in the module of SPSS 10 for Windows were employed to analyse the profile of respondents.

Step 2: Analysis of Perceived Attractiveness

To answer Research Question 1: “How do tourists from six countries of origin perceive the attractiveness of Chiang Mai,” the arithmetic average (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (SD) available on SPSS 10 were calculated. Hypothesis 1.1: “Tourist residing in different place of origin or residence will differ significantly in their perceptions of the overall attractiveness of a tourist destination,” was tested by employing an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with Post Hoc Tests. For testing Hypothesis 1.2: “There is a stronger affect or preference among Western tourists on the attractiveness of Chiang Mai, as compared to Asian tourists,” the Independent Samples *t*-test was employed.

Step 3: Confirming the Structure of the Factors in the Importance Scale

Running a Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation was used to check orthogonal factor dimensions. The latent root criterion of 1.0 was utilised for factor extraction and factor loadings of .40 were utilised for item inclusion (Hair et al., 1998; Nunnally, 1978).

Step 4: Analysis of the Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes

Step answered Research Question 2: “How do tourists perceive importance of destination attributes that contribute to the overall attractiveness of the destination?” was performed. Similar to computing the perceived attractiveness, this task was conducted by utilising descriptive statistical approaches, that is, the arithmetic average (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (SD) available on SPSS 10. In addition, the 30 sub-attributes were factor-analysed to check if the preconceived attributes of the destination applied from the Gearing et al. (1974) and the Ritchie and Hu (1978) that are similar to those, which the underlying dimensions of the present scale are

actually measuring. Hypothesis 2.1: “The relative importance of attributes in contributing to the overall attractiveness of the destination will differ in the perceptions of the international tourists from the six different countries,” was examined by applying the product moment correlation. For testing Hypothesis 2.2: “There was a stronger perceived importance of destination attributes among Asian tourists on the certain primary tourism products such as ‘Natural Factors’ and ‘Cultural Features’ of Chiang Mai, whereas Western visitors gave more importance to secondary tourism products” was then investigated by employing Independent Samples *t*-test.

Step 5: Analysis of the Overall Attitude

The Fishbein Model was applied to obtain the overall or global attitude toward the destination in order to resolve Research Question 3: “What is the overall or global attractiveness of the tourist destination across tourists’ six countries of origin.” Also, Research Question 4: “What is the relationship between the intention to revisit the region and the perceived global destination attractiveness was answered. Finally, Hypothesis 3, which stated “The higher preferred perceived overall attractiveness of the destination will be positively related to the likelihood to revisit the destination” was then tested by using the Spearman’s rho Nonparametric Correlations.

Step 6: Analysis of the Relationships between Perceptions of Attribute Importance and Tourists’ Internal and External Characteristics

For Research Questions 5: “What is the perceptions of attribute importance differ by tourist characteristics in terms of travel motivation, travel purpose, gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size” (Hypotheses

4.1 – 4.9) was resolved by using a Pearson's Chi – square. It was used to test the null hypothesis that there was no association between tourists' internal and external characteristics and their perceived importance of destination attributes. If there was no association, the proportions in which the answers occurred were not related to the perceptions of attribute importance and would have arisen by chance. If there was an association then the differences in the proportions would be related to the perceptions. The Pearson significance level used to determine whether the null hypothesis was accepted or rejected, was set at 0.05. If the statistic reported by SPSS was above 0.05, then the null hypothesis was accepted. If it was less than 0.05, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Step 7: Analysis of the Open-ended Question

In the questionnaire there was an open-ended question asking respondents to give comments or suggestions for the improvement of the destination after they had answered the closed-ended questions. All of the data were grouped into broad categories including 'Natural and Environment Condition,' 'Chiang Mai's Attractiveness/Image,' 'Cultural Aspects,' 'Tourist Information/Organisation,' 'Attitudes of Thai People towards Tourists,' 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Accommodation and Transportation,' 'Accessibility to the Destination,' 'Price of Goods and Services,' and 'Other/Miscellaneous.'

4.9 CODING OF VARIABLES STUDIED

All variables studied were coded and grouped into three categories due to the scales. The 614 (96.40 %) out of 637 collected questionnaires of the respondents were coded according to variables. These variables were then placed into the following groups:

1) Thirty-eight interval-scaled dependent variables (8 main factors or attributes to assess destination attractiveness in Part I of the questionnaire and 30 sub-attributes to evaluate the perceptions of attribute importance in Part II),

2) Ten nominal-scaled independent variables (concerning respondents' psychological and socio-demographics to assess the variations in perceived importance of destination attributes differentiated by tourists' internal and external characteristics in Part III of the questionnaire),

3) One nominal-scaled dependent variable (involving the intention to revisit the destination in Part III). Following this task, the scores obtained from respondents' ratings were put into the module of SPSS 10 for enumerating and further analysis.

All the values gained for the above variables were then entered into the SPSS 10 module for further analysis.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

According to the Western Australian Education Department, any research involving human subjects must take the ethical considerations into account, as the welfare of all human participants must be properly considered and protected. With respect to the nature of this study, participants were informed throughout the data collection process of the nature of data being collected and the reasons for collecting the data. Consent was sought and respondents were asked if they were willing to participate in the study. There was a statement in the questionnaire informing respondents of the study project (see the cover page of the questionnaire in Appendix A) and their participation in the research indicated their consent. Also, the confidentiality of

respondents was assured. Names were not recorded. The only socioeconomic information that was gathered included travel purpose, gender, age, educational level, occupation, income, marital status, family size, and country of origin. The rights of religious and cultural groups were also respected. If reference to certain religious or cultural variables prevent a person from participating in the study, they were given the choice of withdrawing from the study. All requirements pertaining to ethics were complied with in this study.

4.11 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the descriptions of methodology including research methodology, sample selection, research design, research instrument, pilot study, validity and reliability of the research instrument, followed by a description of the data collection, data analysis, the coding of variables, and ethical considerations.

In the next chapter describes the study location – Thailand and Chiang Mai Province and their tourism settings.

CHAPTER 5

THE STUDY LOCATION: THAILAND AND CHIANG MAI PROVINCE

5.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the context relevant to the location of the study reported in this thesis. It begins with an outline of Thailand, people and tourism settings (5.1). The remainder of the chapter precisely describes Chiang Mai Province – the study location, geographical features, historical backgrounds, and travel and tourism settings (5.2).

5.1 THAILAND

The information in this section provides readers with the comprehensive background of the country and its people, and the Thai tourism settings.

5.1.1 Land and People

Thailand, situated on Malay Peninsula, South-East Asia, has been governed by a constitutional monarchy with a democratic government since 1939. The population of Thailand is sixty million of whom more than 95 per cent are Buddhist, and the remaining five per cent practice Islam, Christianity, Hinduism, Sikhism, and other religions. With an area, approximately the size of France or Texas, the country covers more than 514 square kilometres. It is bounded by the People's Democratic Republic of Laos and the Socialist Republic of the Union of Myanmar (Burma) and the Indian Ocean, Democratic Kampuchea and Malaysia (Thailand Board of Investment - BOI, 2002).

The country is made up of four distinct natural regions. The North, the Central plain or Chao Phraya Basin, the Northeast or the Korat Plateau, and the South or Southern Peninsula. The North is a mountainous region consisting of natural forest, ridges and deep, narrow, alluvial valleys. The leading province of this region is Chiang Mai. The Central Plain or Chao Phraya Riverbank is the richest and most fertile region comprising the most extensive rice-producing area in the country. The capital of Thailand-Bangkok is located in this region. The Northeast or the Korat Plateau is an arid region with undulating hills. The South is hilly to mountainous covered with thick forests and substantial deposits of minerals and ores. Rubber, oil palm, and various kinds of tropical fruits are grown (National Identity Office of the Prime Minister, 1991).

Thailand is a monsoonal country. The climate, therefore, is a hot and rather humid, characterised by a rainy season lasting from about May to September and a relatively dry season for the rest of the year. The highest temperatures occur in March and April and the lowest in December and January. The average temperature is 23.7 to 32.5 degrees Celsius. (Guide, 2000).

Thai people are the mix of the assimilation of the Mons, the Khmers, and the Lawas. More specifically, the Thai people are recognised as the central Thais, living in the region between Sukhothai and Petchaburi, they speak the standard Thai language. The Southern Thais speak both dialects and standard Thai. The Northeast or Isan Thais, who are mixed with Khmers and Laos, also have their own dialects but speak standard Thai as well. The Northern Thais also descended from immigrants who are Tai Yuan, Karens and Lawas. Most Thais live in the countryside. A typical rural family will include

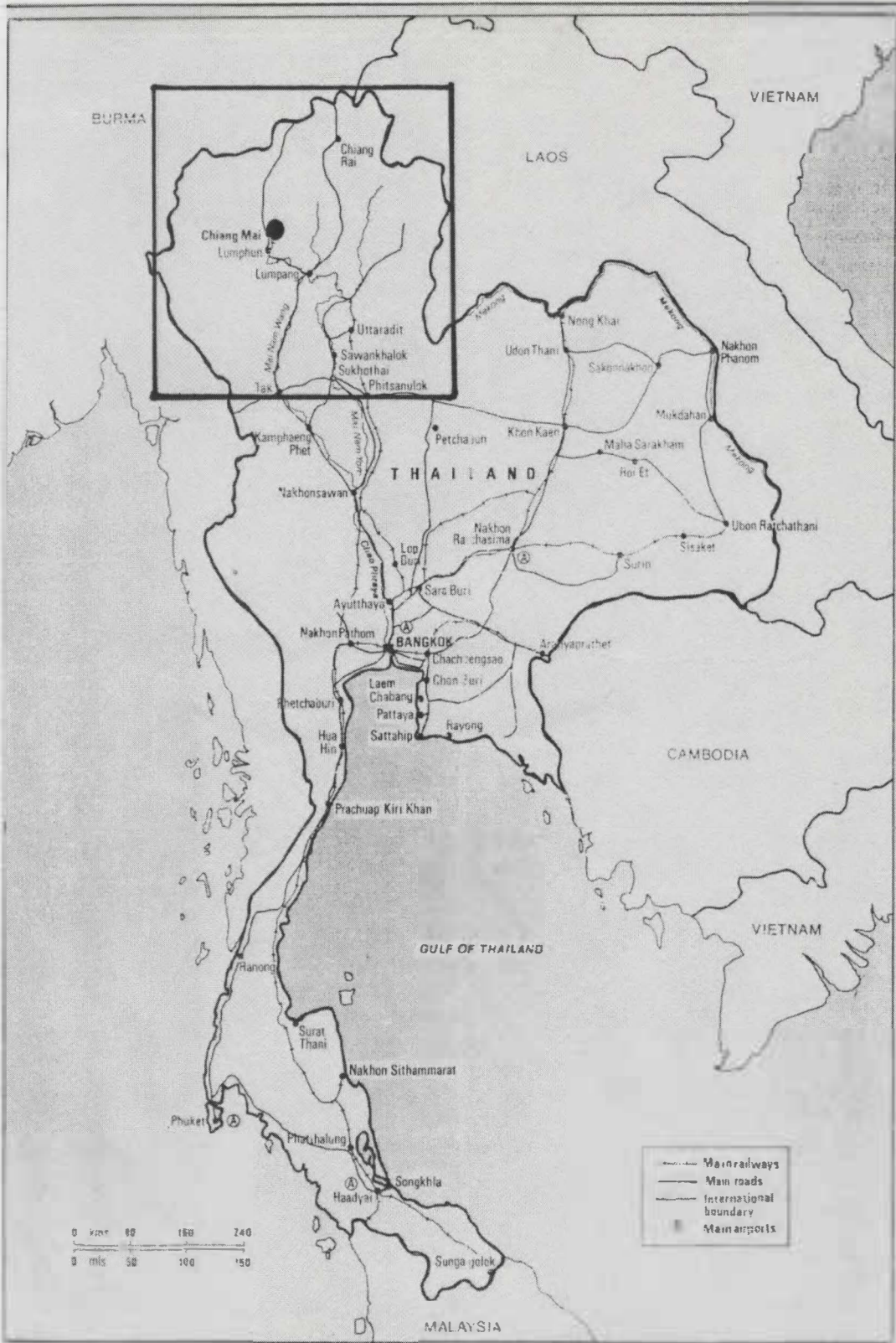


Figure 10: Map of Thailand (Source: Pathong, 1992 p. vi)

father, mother, children, grandparents, cousins, an uncle, or aunt, and even children of distant relatives. Since an early age, Thais are brought up to accept a code of social behaviour based on respect for superiors, parents, teachers, and the elderly. As a result, the typical relationships tend to be vertical, rather than horizontal. Deference, avoidance of conflict, and a desire to please are unique features of the Thai character (National Identity Office of the Prime Minister, 1991).

5.1.2 Tourism in Thailand

Over the past two decades, international tourists to Thailand increased over a hundred-fold and tourists' average length of stay more than doubled. Tourist expenditure in 1997 was estimated at 120 billion Baht (approximately US\$3.24 billion at the April 2000 rate of about 37 Baht to the dollar), and amounted more in 1999 when tourism improved again after a slowdown during the 1997-1998 Asian financial crisis (TAT, 2001).

Table 10: Number of Foreign Tourist Arrivals and their Average Length of Stay 1960-1999 (selected years)

Year	Number of arrivals	Average length of stay (days)
1960	81,340	3.00
1965	225,025	4.80
1970	628,671	4.80
1975	1,180,075	5.00
1980	1,858,801	4.90
1985	2,438,270	5.58
1990	5,298,860	7.06
1993	5,760,533	6.94
1996	7,192,145	NA
1999	8,280,000	NA

Source: Tourism Authority of Thailand (1979, 1998, 1999, 2001)

Thai people are proud of being the only South-East Asian country not to have been colonised, so tourism promotion has focused on the distinct history and unique culture. (Lonely Planet, 2002a; TAT, 2001). The Lonely Planet travel guide, for example, not only depicts Thailand with an easily accessible but also with people known for their

friendliness and hospitality. According to the guide, the country has a 'magical' history, 'heavenly' islands cultural 'treasures' and beaches which are delightfully urban. Moreover, its image as a cheap travel destination, with a budget of \$US15 – 25 per day for budget conscious tourists, Thailand has become even more popular and attractive to international tourists (Lonely Planet, 2002a).

Since the 1980s onwards, the TAT has promoted Thailand as 'a destination for cultural tourism' and 'a seaside vacationing' (Peleggi, 1996, p. 433). Several successful promotional campaigns had been launched. For example, the 'Visit Thailand year,' (1987) the 'Thailand Arts and Crafts Year' (1988 – 1989) and the recent 'Amazing Thailand 1998-1999' (Thaiways, 1997). The government placed great importance to the latter campaign since travel and tourism was a hope for significantly contribution to employment and foreign exchange during the period of deep economic crisis by targeting 17 million overseas tourists to Thailand during the two years of the campaign (TAT, 1999).

5.1.2.1 Historical Background of Thai Tourism

In the first half of the 19th century, King Mongkut (Rama IV) and King Chulalongkorn (Rama V) reformed and modernised Thailand. This resulted in paving the way to international tourism in Thailand. The reforms and modernisation of the country led to open-door economic policies that contributed to the construction of Western-styled hotels. To gain understanding of tourism activities and development, King Chulalongkorn, for example, travelled through Europe. The Thai Royals and elite would spend their vacations at Hua Hin - the seaside resort town on the Gulf of Siam coast. These were vital factors that steered the rise of domestic and international tourism in Thailand (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998).

Between the early 1900s until the late 1950s, international arrivals were low and the main tourists were British and French who passed through the country en route to their colonial kingdoms beyond Thailand's boundaries. The real growth of tourism began when Prime Minister Field Marshall Sarit Thanarat (1957 - 1963) established the Tourist Organisation of Thailand (TOT) in 1959 as a body responsible for tourism advertising and promotion. The Sarit government also encouraged tourism growth by constructing roads, water and electricity power supplies, banking, trade, communications and government services in order to improve access to numerous tourist sites throughout the country (TAT, 1979).

Besides investing in vast infrastructure improvement, the government and the TOT tried to create the image of 'the safety, cleanliness, and propriety of Thai Society' through laws and mass media. This was the first attempt to provide the institutional and organisational framework for international tourism in Thailand. Unfortunately, 'the Vietnam War' intervened change the nature and scope of tourism industry in Thailand from its original ideal as the presence of American troops from 1965 to 1975 brought enormous social and economic change to many parts of the country (Guide, 2000; Nimmonratana, 2000).

Apart from bringing large amount of military and economic assistance into Thailand, the US military bases were established all over the country. The presence of American troops induced a construction boom and a growth of restaurants, bars, nightclubs, and other services catering for American soldiers. During 1966 to 1977 there were 321,000 American soldiers stationed in military bases throughout the country. During this period another 310,392 troops visited Thailand on 'Rest and Recreation (R & R)' taken as diversion from the fighting in Vietnam (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998). These troops spent more than US\$ 78 million or 38% during 1974-75 of the total expenditure of all overseas tourists in Thailand (TAT, 1979).

Changes to the tourism industry resulting from the American military presence can probably be formulated into three main impacts. First, the R&R trips led to a direct increase in international visitors (Nimmonratana, 2000). Second, the military presence stimulated the development of tourism particularly in businesses and services to fulfil the leisure demands of American soldiers. This resulted in the infrastructure foundations for future mass tourism development throughout the country. Third, Thailand was popularised internationally and this led directly to a change of image from a mystical '*exotic*' kingdom to an '*erotic*' destination involving more mundane sexual and recreational pursuits. This increased the number of male tourists from the USA and elsewhere (Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998). The tourism industry, therefore, had blossomed and continued although the American military personnel were withdrawn in the mid-1970s (Nimmonratana, 2000). However, in recent years, there have been attempts by the government and the TAT to avert international attention away from sex tourism.

Overall, the tourism industry in Thailand gained importance when the Tourist Organisation of Thailand (TOT) was established in 1959. This organisation was later upgraded and transformed into the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) in 1976. One year later, the industry was introduced into the National Economic and Social Development Plan, NESDP. However, the country mainly gained its high profile and worldwide acknowledgment at the beginning of 1962 when the Vietnam War began and the U.S. army was stationed in Thailand (Nimmonratana, 2000).

According to the World Tourism Organisation, Thailand was ranked as Asia's third most popular tourist destination in 1998 resulting from the attractiveness of many aspects such as 'beautiful beaches, diverse cultural and historical attractions, numerous world-class hotels and resorts, gourmet restaurants, and low prices' (Rittichainuwat et

al., 2001, p. 82). In 1999, tourist arrivals reached 8.6 million, a 106-fold increase from the year 1960. Tourism revenue has risen from \$US9 million in 1960 to \$US6.7 billion in 1999, 743 times that of 40 years ago (TAT, 2001).

Therefore, the tourism industry in Thailand, grew rapidly following the Vietnam War and has now blossomed into 'one of the touristically most developed countries in the Third World' (Cohen, 1996, p. 1). The country receives the second largest number of tourists in South-East Asia and the fourth largest number (after Malaysia) in the broad East/Pacific region (WTO, 1999a). The industry also represents the global travel trend towards enhanced diversity of attractions and activities such as cultural attractions, natural resources, urban-based activities, shopping and entertainment (TAT, 2001).

5.1.2.2 The Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT)

The Tourist Organisation of Thailand (TOT) was changed to the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) on March 18, 1976. It is the first and only Thai government organisation responsible for the development and promotion of tourism. TAT provides information and data on tourist areas to the public, publicises Thailand so as to encourage Thai and international tourists to travel in Thailand. The body also conducts studies to set development plans for tourist areas, and co-operates with and supports the development of personnel in the field of tourism (TAT, 2002).

Since the commencement of the first local office of TAT in Chiang Mai in 1968, 22 local offices have been established throughout Thailand. TAT has also established many overseas offices the first being the New York office in 1965. TAT has since established 15 more offices in different parts of the world during the past 30 years (TAT, 2002).

The administration of the TAT can be characterised as shown in Figure 11.

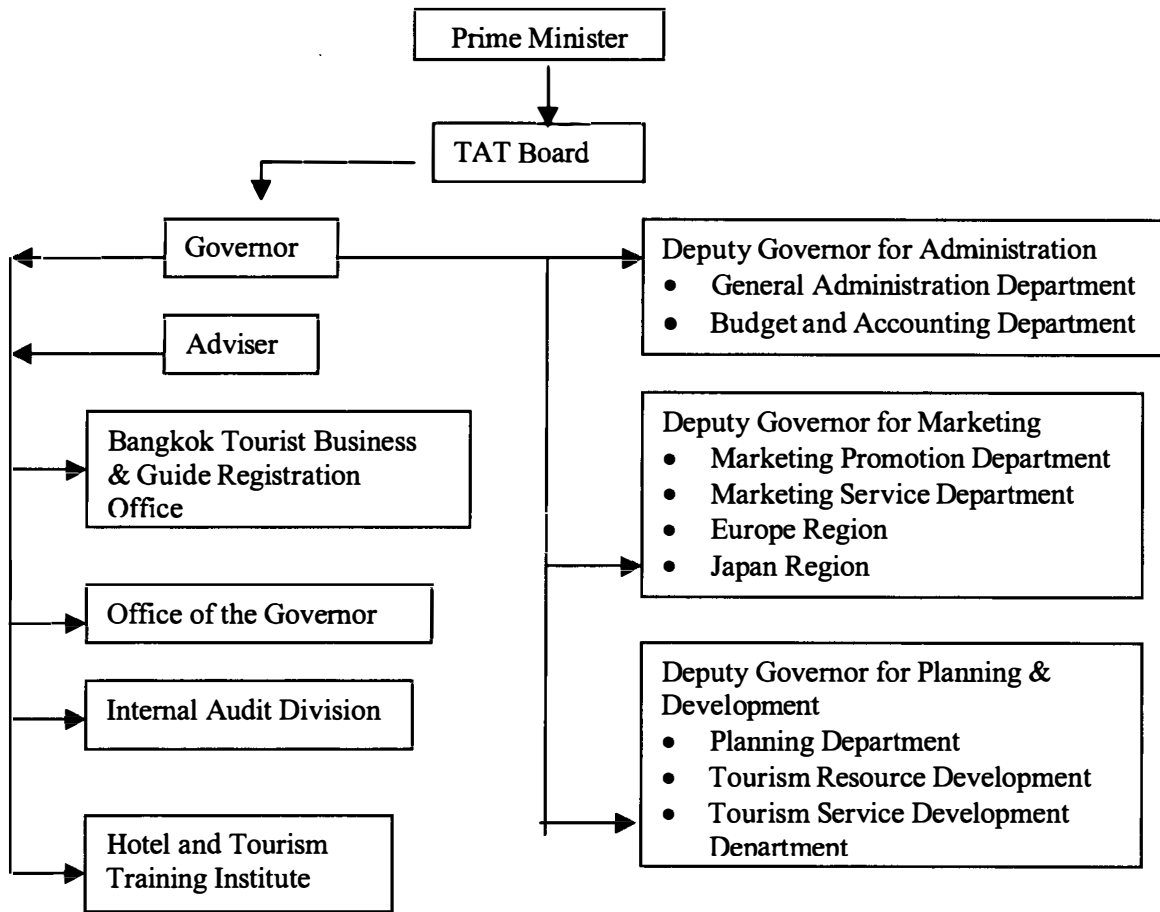


Figure 11: The Organisational Chart of the TAT (Source: TAT, 2001, p. 5)

5.1.2.3 The Responsibilities of the TAT

As seen in Figure 11, the TAT is under the jurisdiction of the Office of the Prime Minister. The body is composed of the Governor, appointed as the head of the organisation to be responsible for the promotion of tourism, the collection of tourism statistics, the development of plans for tourist areas and for personnel resource development in Thailand. Administratively, three departments including Administration, Marketing, and Planning and Development and five sections were established to take responsibility of those missions. In order to support and make all the missions possible and sound, the Board of TAT was also formed. The responsibilities of the TAT include:

1. To emphasise sustainable tourism development and promotion to enable the country to accommodate tourists in the long terms and preserve national identity and heritage.
2. To co-ordinate with public and private offices and the general public to prevent and solve problems, as well as to develop and administer tourism in a proper direction and raise the standard of the tourism industry, to maximise benefits to the country.
3. To co-ordinate with neighbouring countries to develop and promote tourism so as to establish Thailand as the centre for tourism in the region.
4. To develop TAT as an organisation to increase its efficiency to prepare manpower at every level, to construct budgets and produce projects that comply with the economic and social situation, technological development, and ongoing change of the tourism industry, so as to enhance effectiveness.
5. To create widespread awareness and understanding of the role, responsibility and work of TAT by beginning internally and expanding to the local, national and international levels.

It is of importance to note that at the time of writing, the Thai (Thaksin's) government has currently established a new ministry namely the Ministry of Travel, Tourism and Sports and the TAT has been under the jurisdiction of the new ministry. As a consequence, it is hoped that the change will encourage and provide the TAT with responsibilities for all future development and legal aspects of Thai tourism, including environmental, social and cultural issues. It will also oversee human resource development and the registration and licensing of guides and tour operators. Effectively, the Ministry is in charge of all tourism management and development issues, and the TAT takes care of marketing.

5.2 CHIANG MAI PROVINCE

This section describes the location, Chiang Mai, as a tourist destination in terms of its brief geographical features, historical background, people and language, and travel and tourism settings in Chiang Mai.

5.2.1 Geographical Features

Chiang Mai Province is located 750 kilometres north of Bangkok in a valley 310 metres (1027 feet) above sea level. The province is the second largest after Bangkok, measuring 130 kilometres from east to west and 320 kilometres from north to south, with a total area of 20,107 square kilometres. Its northern border is attached to Shan State of Myanmar (Burma). This region consists of a series of parallel and longitudinal of folded mountains in continuation of the Himalayan System running through the east of Assam in India, Yunnan Province of China and the Shan State of Burma. Chiang Mai is situated on the Ping River bank. The alluvial soil of these basins is fertile for rice cultivation and for growing vegetables, tobacco, and various fruit trees such as longai, lychee, and oranges (Wutdanairaj, 1992). The average height of the peaks in this area is about 1600 metres above sea level. Doi Inthanon, with a height of 2576 metres, is the highest peak in Thailand, and is about 50 kilometres Southwest of Chiang Mai. Doi Suthep, where the Royal Palace – Phu Phing Ratchanivet is located, rises to 1676 metres, overlooking the city of Chiang Mai from the west (Lonely Planet, 2002b).

Chiang Mai has a cooler and drier climate than other parts of the country. It has three main seasons: the winter season is from late October to mid – February; summer lasts from late February to May and the rainy season extends from June to October. The

average temperature is 21 degrees Celsius during the cool season; 30 degrees Celsius during the summer, and 25 degrees Celsius during the rainy season (Hargreave, 1998). Administratively, the province is divided into 22 amphors (districts), 2 branch districts, 204 tambols (groups of villages), 1881 villages, and 29 municipalitiess (Robru, 2000).

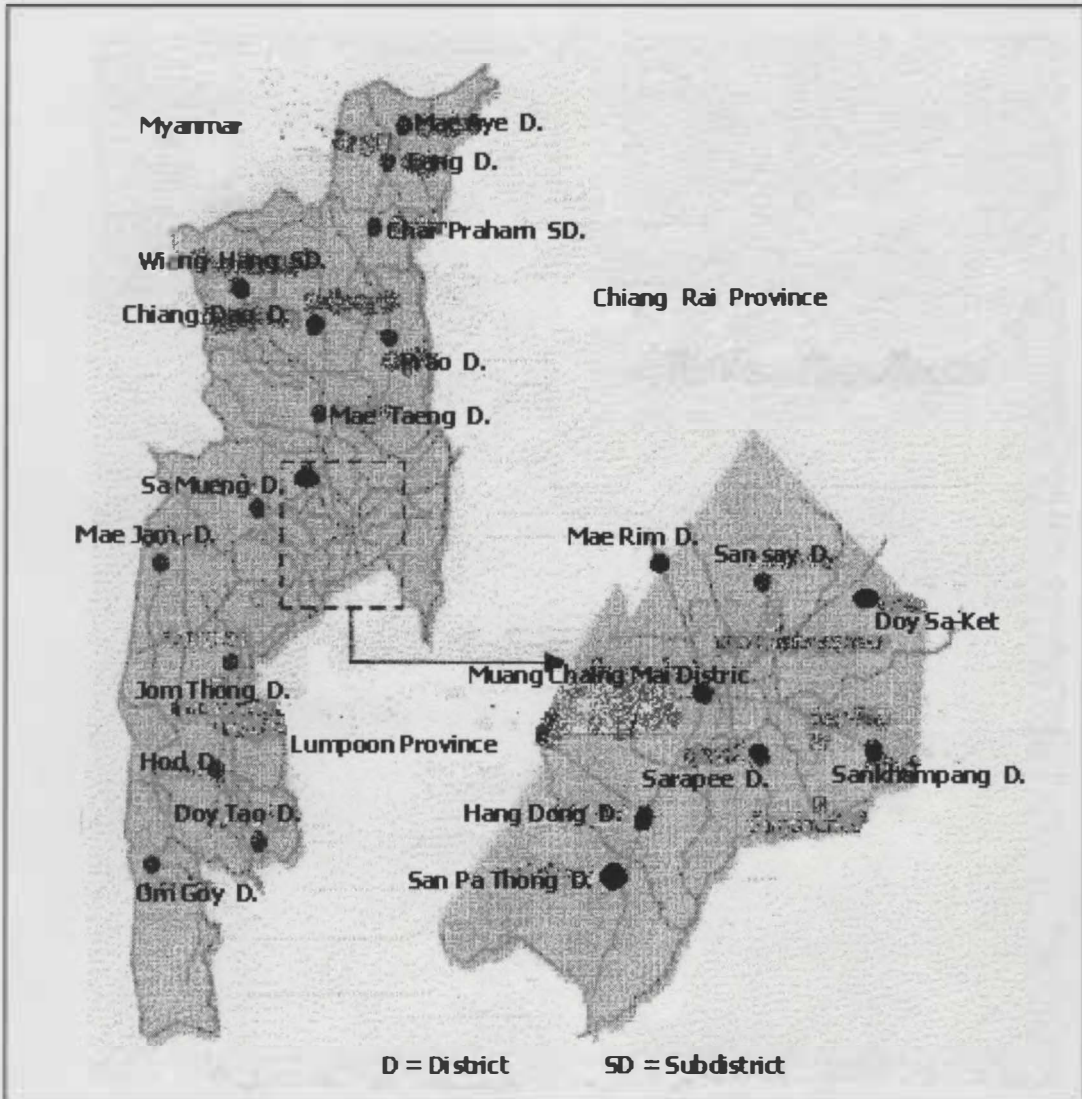


Figure 12: Map of Chiang Mai
 (Source: http://www.sabuy.com/76sabuy/newmap/map_chengmai.gif)

5.2.2 Historical Background of Chiang Mai

The history of Chiang Mai dates back to the beginning of the 13th century, when the Mongols began to migrate southwards after defeating China. One of the powerful chiefs of these migrations, namely King Mengrai (sometimes written as Mangrai) (1259 – 1317) established his settlement in Chiang Rai in 1239 and founded the city of Fang in 1268. In 1287, Kublai Khan, the leader of the Mongols, captured the Kingdom of Pagan Burma. King Mengrai, successfully established friendship pacts with the rulers of neighbouring principalities: King Ramkhamhaeng of Sukhothai, and King Ngam Muang of the small independent state of Phayao. This helped the King forge alliances with his associates and secure his kingdom from attack and provide a counter threat to the Mongol Chinese. King Mengrai captured the richer and more powerful city of the old Mon Kingdom of Haripunchai (Lamphun) in 1281. He then moved his capital to Wiang Kun Kam around 1288, however, the region proved to be unsuitable. Therefore, in 1296 he founded his new capital – Chiang Mai, meaning ‘new town’ (Hargreave, 1998).

King Mengrai’s new capital was centred on Wat Chiang Man. He spent the rest of his life in adorning Chiang Mai with temples. He died in the year 1317. King Mengrai’s second son, Chai Songkram, was to continue the dynasty that ruled Chiang Mai until the demise of Phra Mekuti in 1564. The Kingdom fell without struggle to the Burmese in the reign of Phra Mekuti in 1558. After that Chiang Mai became a base for attacks between Ayutthaya and Burma. In 1598 King Naresuan of Ayutthaya captured Chiang Mai and soon after began to extend his influence. He controlled most of the kingdom of Ayutthaya, thus bringing its border right up to Chiang Mai – in the north of Thailand.

This began a struggle with Burma lasted on and off nearly four hundred years (Hargreave, 1998).

Up to 1796 Chao Kawila, a son of Prince of Lampang, re-established Chiang Mai and had his direct descents ruled the Kingdom until the last semi-independent ruler – Chao Inthawichayanon. In 1892 Siam was ruled by King Rama V (or King Chulalongkorn) who annexed Chiang Mai into his administration unit of ‘Momthon Phayap.’ Thus Chiang Mai became a province of Siam Kingdom in 1932 (Hargreave, 1998).

5.2.3 People and Language in Chiang Mai

The people of Chiang Mai call themselves the ‘khon muang’ which means ‘Citizen of the city’. They have mixed origins. The first inhabitants of Chiang Mai were known as the ‘Lawes’. These people were joined by other groups such as the Mons, the Tai Yuan, and the Karens who moved along the trading routes of the river valleys. The Mons, whose origin was from the area around the Thaton in Burma, established Haripunchai (Lamphun) which later became a new branch of the Dvaravati civilisation that influenced the Chao Phraya basin from the 6th – 10th centuries (Robru, 2000).

The Thai Yai, called the Ngiaw by the Thais, originated and migrated from the Shan State of Burma in the 19th Century. Today the Shan are scattered throughout the north especially in Mae Sariang and Mae Hong Son Province (Hargreaves, 1998). This migration, has resulted in the present-day mix of people in Chiang Mai Province, where the population was 1,472,403 in 2000 (Robru, 2000).

The northern Thais use the standard Thai language taught in schools but they also have their own dialect known as ‘Kham muang’. It is different from the central Thai language

both in vocabulary and tones. ‘Kham muang’ has its own script, which are mostly used in religions texts. Nowadays most local people are unable to read Kham Muang. Despite the fact that ‘Kham muang’ borrows many much of its vocabulary from the central Thai dialect, people from other parts of the country cannot immediately understand it (Robru, 2000).

5.2.4 Travel and Tourism Settings in Chiang Mai

The following subsection provides the settings of travel and tourism in the province including travel and tourism settings, and tourism products in Chiang Mai.

5.2.4.1 Travel and Tourism Settings in Chiang Mai

Tourism in Chiang Mai was probably first recognised when a rail link from Bangkok to Chiang Mai was built in 1921. Also important was the official proclamation of Chiang Mai as a province of Thailand in 1933 (Wutdanairaj, 1992). This brought great change in social, educational and cultural development to the region. Along with this development, there has been promotion of tourism and travel with the foundation of Public Relations of the State Train Department by Prince Khampaeng Petch Akkharayothin in 1924, which was later transferred to the Tourism Office of Thailand (TOT) in 1959. This organisation was later renamed by the Sarit Thanarat government as the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) in 1976. Tourism has been Chiang Mai’s primary industry ever since (Wutdanairaj, 1992). As with the TAT is responsible for travel and tourism industry throughout the country, the TAT, Northern Office Region was established as the first local office, which takes the responsibility for travel and tourism industry in the northern areas in 1968 (TAT, Northern Office Region, 2000).

According to the statistics from the year 2000, 3,361,764 tourists visited Chiang Mai. This figure was divided into 1,360,007 international and 2,001,757 domestic travellers. This represents a 1.27% increase on 1999 tourist arrivals. The revenue generated from this industry was 35,605.46 million Baht (or approximately \$US791 million), a 4.5% increase over 1999. In 2001, the number of tourists reached four million people with the contribution of 37,406 million Baht (or approximately \$US831 million) to the local economy (TAT, Northern Office Region, 2000).

5.2.4.2 Tourism Products in Chiang Mai

The wide and fertile valleys on the River Ping provide Chiang Mai with a channel for trade from China and Burma to the Gulf of Siam. For tourists, Chiang Mai owes her existence to the name of the 'Rose of the North' for the abundance of flowers that thrive in the cooler mountain climate. The richness of traditions and cultures has been the pride and joy of the people of Chiang Mai for centuries. The province has grown from her origins as a small northern Lanna capital to become a city representative of modern Thai culture. The people themselves are an unforgettable part of the region. Handicrafts made from silk, silver and wood are local industries. Along with all this, a wide variety of accommodations, restaurants and entertainment establishments all, make Chiang Mai one of Thailand's prime tourist destinations (TAT, Northern Office Region, 2000).

Tourism products in Chiang Mai are characterised by both primary and secondary tourism resources. For example, the potential tourist sites that portray these attributes include Doi Inthanon and National Parks, Doi Suthep - Doi Pui National Park, Queen Sirikit Botanical Garden, Orchid and Butterfly Farms, and several hot springs. They are considered as the primary or the main tourism products. Essentially, Chiang Mai is a city built on a strong traditional heritage of over 700 years. Established in 1296 the city

has enjoyed relative independence from the rest of the country. The distinctive culture is called 'Lanna' which literally means 'the kingdom of a million-rice field.' The influence of Lanna traditional culture in Chiang Mai can be seen in the religious architecture and the artistic features of crafts, cuisine, dress, and traditional ceremonies (Nimmonratana, 2000). Thus Chiang Mai provides two types of tourist attractions: the old city and the surrounding outskirts sites (TAT, Northern Office Region, 2001).

Chiang Mai, the second biggest city in Thailand after Bangkok, has been the most popular northern destination for both domestic and foreign tourists for decades. With its bordering provinces, for example, Chiang Rai, and neighbouring southern China, Chiang Mai provides numerous advantageous locations for the tourism industry. Moreover, the province is 'the main terminus of the northern route of the railway system. Chiang Mai also has an international airport and a network of roads to nearby areas' (Nimmonratana, 2000, p. 71). Therefore, infrastructure and services developed are important factors in boosting the travel and tourism in this region.

Chiang Mai is easily accessible. It can be reached either by air, car or coach, or train. Several flights daily by the domestic carrier Thai Airways International (THAI) take one hour from Bangkok. Daily coach services from Bangkok to Northern Bus Terminal take nine hours on the Asia Highway travelling from Bangkok to Nakhon Sawan Province, from Nakhon Sawan to Thoen District, Lampang Province, and from Lampang to Chiang Mai City on Highway No. 106. Daily train services from Bangkok to Hua - Lumpong Train Station takes 13 hours and is also good alternatives (TAT, Northern Office Region, 2000).

5.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented the study location, that is, Chiang Mai Province, Thailand. The chapter firstly describes Thailand including the land and its people, followed by tourism settings and the Tourism Authority of Thailand and its responsibility. Also, Chiang Mai has been outlined in terms of a tourist destination including its geographical features, and historical background, people and language, and travel and tourism settings.

In the next chapter the presentation of analysis results and discussions has been presented. It includes the profiles of respondents and the analysis of tourists' perceived attractiveness of the destination.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION OF ANALYSIS RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

6.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains analysis of data from the survey of 614 international tourists who visited Chiang Mai Province, Thailand between 1-30 April 2001. Two types of data analysis were performed. They included the respondents' profiles (6.1) and the examination of the tourists' perceived attractiveness of Chiang Mai across countries of origin (6.2).

6.1 PROFILES OF RESPONDENTS

In order to understand how the tourists perceived the destination attractiveness and importance of destination attributes, it is important to firstly examine the tourists' characteristics. Descriptive statistical approaches (eg. frequency and percentages) available in the SPSS 10 were applied to obtain the outcomes.

6.1.1 Description of Respondents

The total number of respondents in this study was 614, of which 108 (17.80%) came from France, 107 (17.40%) from Taiwan, 114 (19%) from United Kingdom, 81 (13%) from Germany, 102 (16.60%) from the United States, and 102 (16.60%) from Japan (Figure 13). This produced the total 405 (66%) representing Western tourists and 209 (34%) representing Asian visitors (Figure 14).

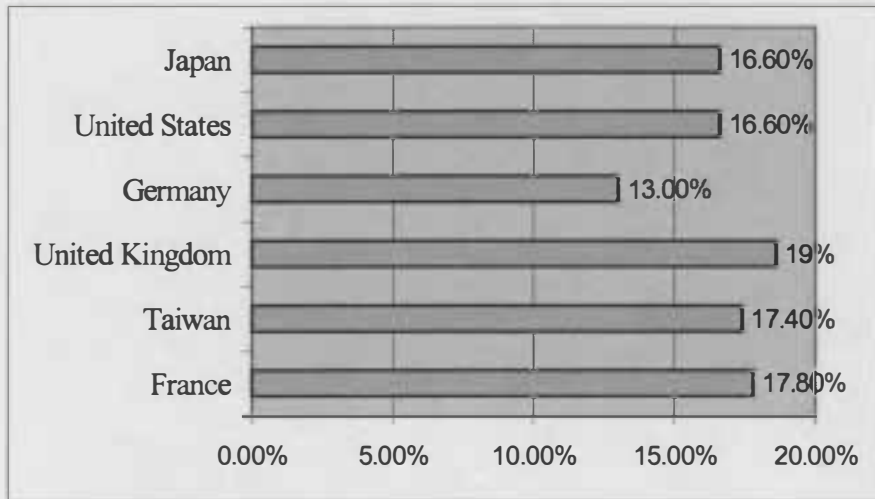


Figure 13: Country of Origin of Respondents

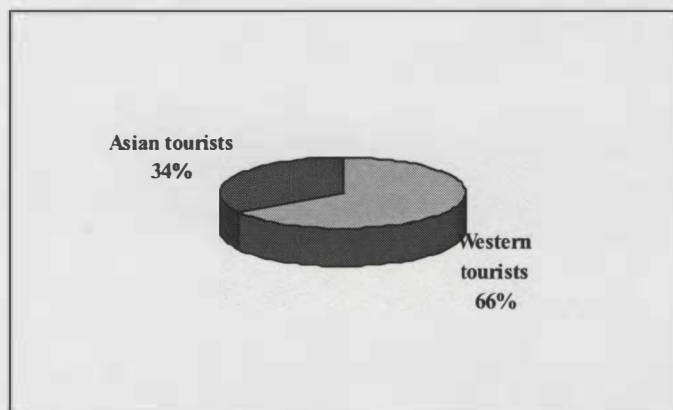


Figure 14: Geographical Region of Respondents

Among the tourists from the aforementioned countries, more than a half visited Chiang Mai Province for leisure (60.20%), 19.20% came for educational purposes, 11.20% for business, 6% came to visit friends and relatives, and 3.40% for other reasons (Figure 15).

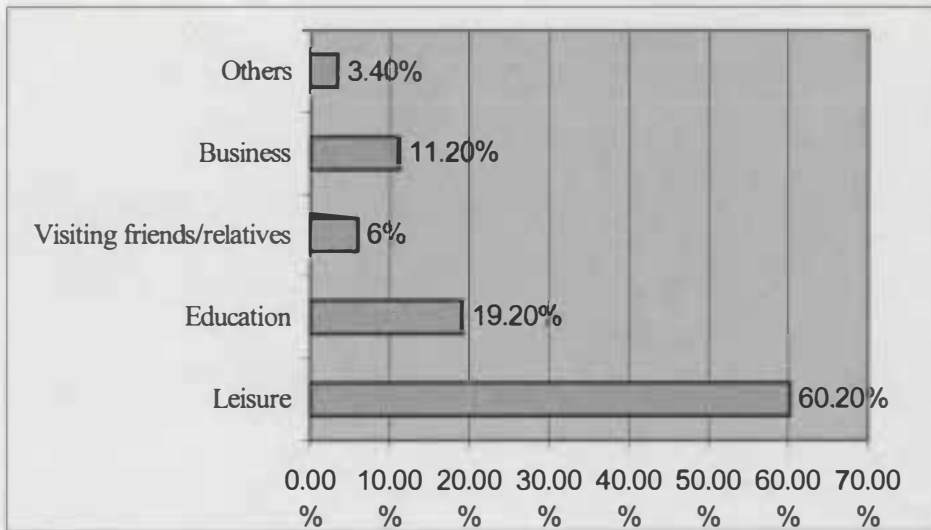


Figure 15: Travel Purpose of Respondents

This study also investigates what motivates tourists in selecting Chiang Mai as their vacation destination. As shown in Figure 16, 44% of the study respondents wanted to experience a culture that differs from their own and 37% of those wanted exciting experiences. Other travel motivations such as self-esteem, relaxation, and family relationship accounted for 7%, 6%, and 6%, respectively.

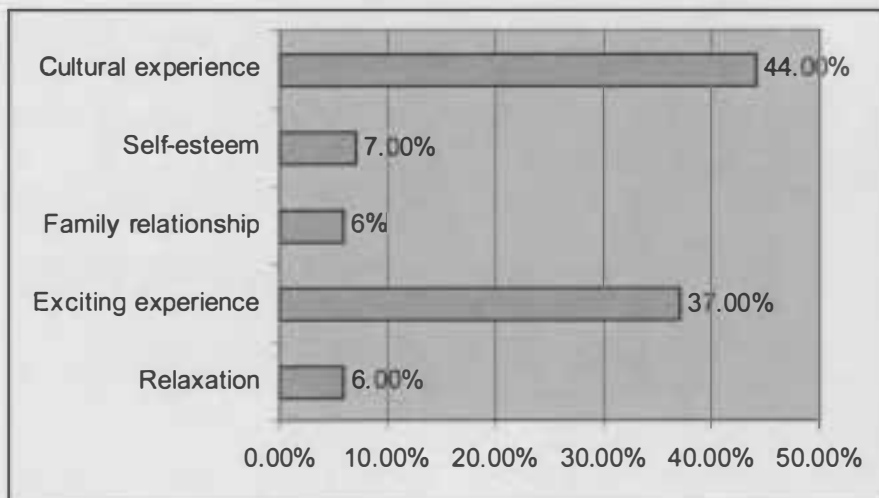


Figure 16: Travel Motivation of Respondents

The range of age groups of the respondents was from under 15 years to 65 years and over, with the largest group in the age range 25-34 (37%). The cohort of 35-44 and 45-54 accounted for similar numbers of 17.90% and 17%, respectively, as presented in the breakdown of age in Figure 17.

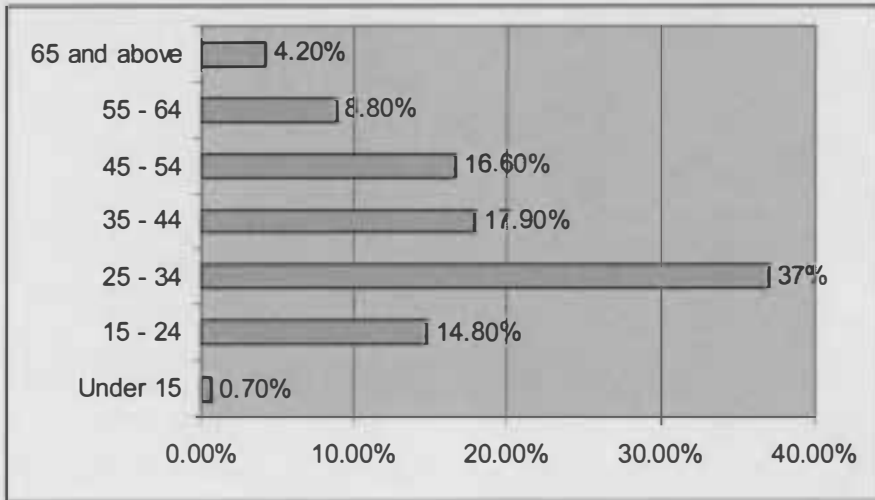


Figure 17: Age Groups of Respondents

Of the total number of respondents in this study, more than a half (62%) was male and 38% was female (Figure 18)

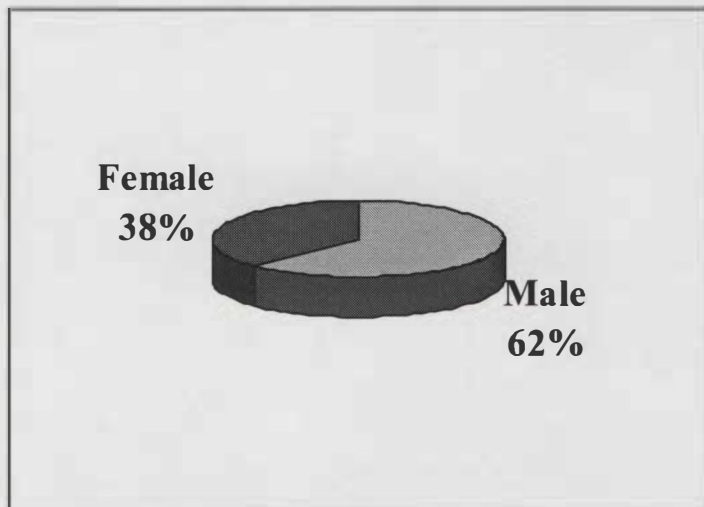


Figure 18: Gender of Respondents

The education level of respondents was generally high, with 51% having university qualifications and another 23% having at least a two-year college certificate (Figure 19).

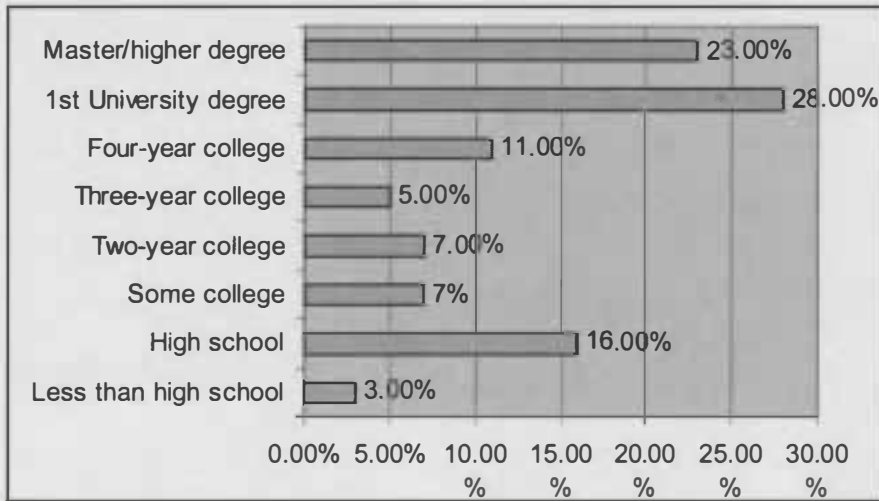


Figure 19: Education Level of Respondents

As illustrated in Figure 20, of the total number of respondents, over 50% were in white collar employment with approximately half the respondents having an annual income between US\$ 20, 000 – 60,000 (48%) and a further 23% having an income less than US\$ 20,000 (Figure 21).

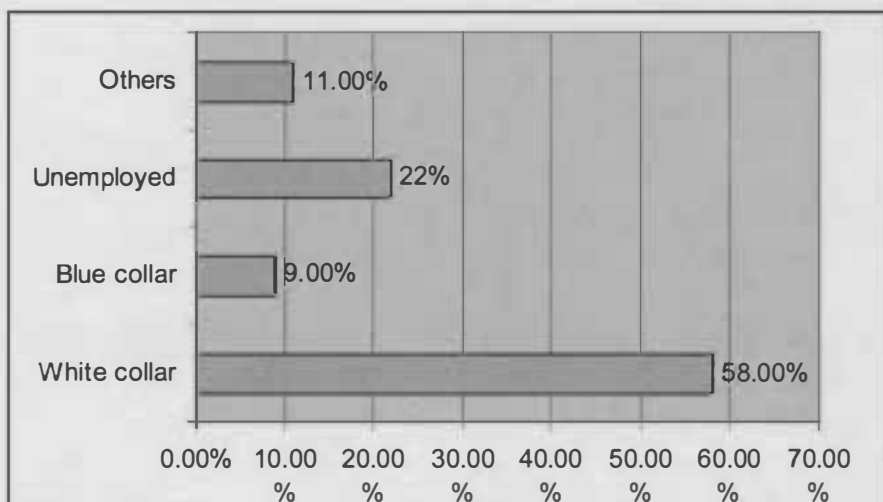


Figure 20: Occupation of Respondents

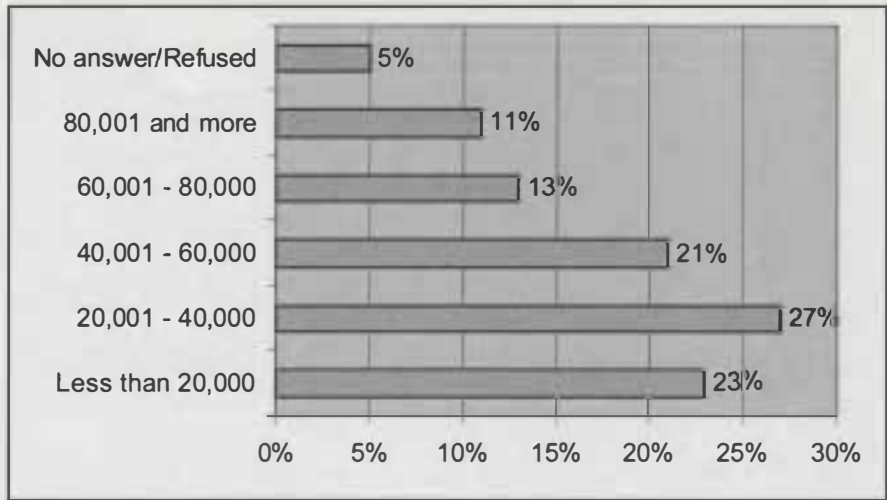


Figure 21: Yearly Income of Respondents

The marital status of respondents showed that more than 52% had never married, and 37% were married (Figure 22). This accorded with the family size of those who do not have dependent children in their household (80%). For those who were married have one child (7.10%), and two and more children (13%) (Figure 23).

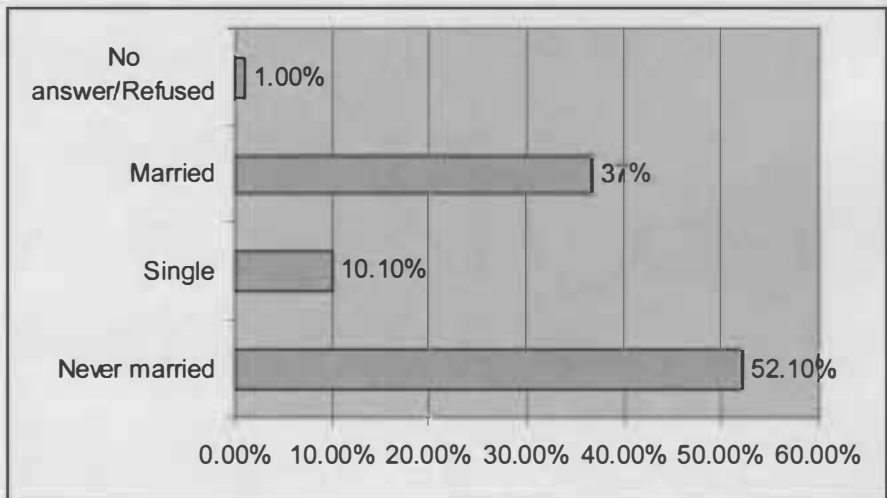


Figure 22: Marital Status of the Respondents

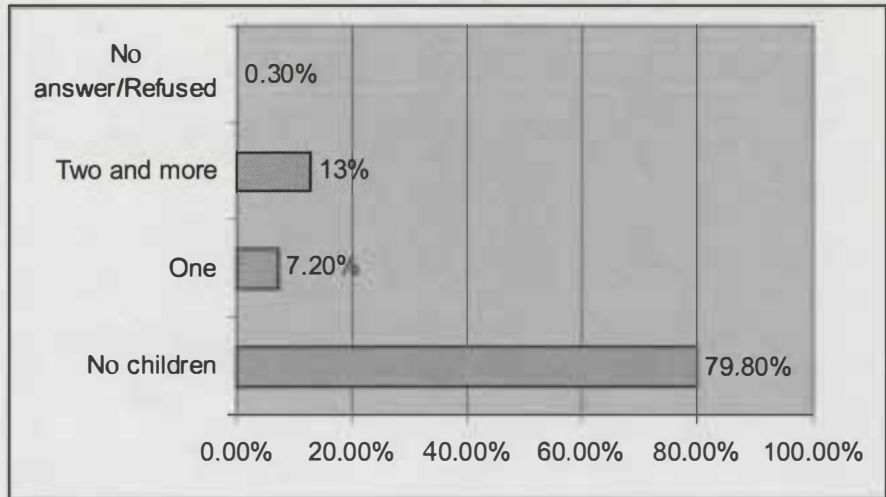


Figure 23: Family Size of Respondents

Of the total respondents, 90% indicated their intention to return to Chiang Mai Province for their next vacation (Figure 24).

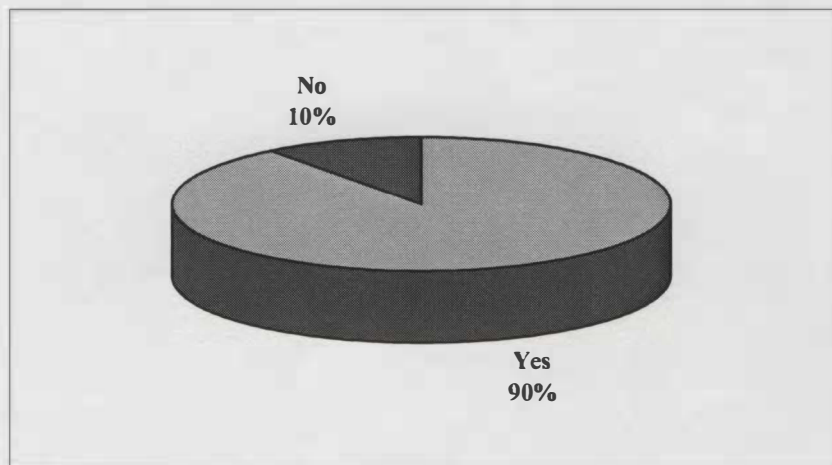


Figure 24: Intention to Repeat Visitation of Respondents

6.1.2 Discussion of the Profile of Tourists

The respondents who participated in the study were from France, Taiwan, United Kingdom, Germany, the United States, and Japan. These countries were selected on the basis of the top-6 inbound tourist markets of Tourist Arrivals visiting Chiang Mai Province in April 2000, as recorded by the TAT. As seen in Figure 13, there is very

little difference in the number of respondents from each country, with the exception of Germany. However, the total number of 81 from Germany was more than the minimum sample size required for this country of origin that was calculated at 54.

When asked about the purpose of their visit to Chiang Mai, more than a half (60%) of the respondents indicated that leisure such as recreation, holidays, and sports was the main reason for their visit. However, when asked about what motivated their visit, nearly a half of the study respondents (45%) considered either the unique cultures different from their own or wanting to learn about new things most important motivation in choosing Chiang Mai as their vacation destination. This suggests that cultural experience is highly regarded and this is supported by the 'Travel Motivation Ladder' or the 'Travel Career Ladder (TCL),' which suggests that people in this category or the step of the Ladder are believed to be seeking peace, have a desire to learn and experience new things such as cultural settings and performances. However, 37% of the respondents indicated regarding either fun or adventure as their important motivation. These people were characterised as those on the 'Stimulation' level of the ladder. They were motivated by fun and the thrill of unusual experiences, out of the ordinary settings, and different foods and people.

In terms of socio-demographics, the result from this study indicated that males were the largest group, accounting for 62% of respondents. This imbalance may reflect the dominance of men in travel and tourism markets. In terms of age, the largest proportion of respondents (37%) was in the 25 to 34 cohort. The education breakdown showed a generally high level of education among tourists with 51% having received a university or higher degrees. This may have influenced the rating of cultural experience as highest travel motivation (45%). Based on the respondents'

occupations, the largest proportion was in white collar employment such as professionals, administrative managerial personnel, government personnel, etc. with 58% of the total whose yearly income ranged from less than US\$ 20,000 to 60,000. The marital status breakdown showed that the major proportion of respondents (53%) had never married. Of those did not have any dependent children in their household accounting for 80%. Of the total number of respondents, 90% intended to go back to Chiang Mai for their next vacation.

6.2 ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED ATTRACTIVENESS OF CHIANG MAI

Research Question 1 states the following: “How do the tourists from the six countries of origin perceive the destination attractiveness?” To answer this question, participants were asked to rate each of the eight attributes on a five-point attractiveness scale based on the beliefs about the attractiveness that Chiang Mai possesses. The anchor points of the scale were 1 (less attractive) and 5 (more attractive).

The simple average technique was used to obtain an average score for each attractiveness factor given by respondents of each country of origin. The value received represents A_i in the attractiveness measurement model and refers to the evaluative aspect or belief toward each of eight attractiveness attributes for the destination.

6.2.1 Results

As illustrated in Table 11, of the eight identified attractiveness attributes, tourists from the total six countries of origin evaluated ‘Cultural Features,’ defined as

'Architectural and Artistic Feature,' 'Historical and Ancient Ruins,' 'Carnivals and Festivals,' 'Distinctive Local Features,' 'Religion,' and 'Food,' the most attractive ($\bar{x} = 3.80, SD = .87$).

Reception, which refers to 'Information Centres,' 'Interpretation and Language Services,' 'Pedestrian Signposts, Display Maps,' 'Tour Local Guides and Tour Operators,' 'Community Attitudes towards Tourists,' was ranked second ($\bar{x} = 3.77, SD = .77$).

'Cost/Price,' which was defined as 'the Value Received for Money Spent on Major Services, Food, Lodging, and Transportation within the Destination' was ranked third in attractiveness ($\bar{x} = 3.75, SD = .95$).

'Natural Factors' such as 'Natural Beauty,' 'Climate,' 'Water,' 'Wildlife,' and 'Vegetation' has emerged in fourth place ($\bar{x} = 3.68, SD = .95$).

'Services,' which represent 'Banks/Cash Machines,' 'Currency Exchange,' 'Police/Security,' 'Medical/Health Services,' 'Communications,' 'Energy Supply, Water Supply, and Sewerage Services' were ranked fifth ($\bar{x} = 3.67, SD = .92$).

'Recreational & Shopping Facilities,' which involve 'Outdoor Activities,' 'Facilities Pursuing Health, Rest, and Serenity,' 'Nighttime Recreation,' and 'Shopping Facilities,' were perceived less attractive and are sixth on the scale of attractiveness ($\bar{x} = 3.47, SD = .98$).

‘Accessibility,’ which is defined as the ‘Physical Distance to and the ‘Time Involved in Reaching the Vacation Destination’ was rated seventh ($\bar{x} = 3.32, SD = .88$).

Finally the lowest scoring touristic attractiveness attribute was ‘Infrastructure,’ which refers to ‘the Quality and Availability of Different Means of Transportation,’ and ‘Accommodation’ ($\bar{x} = 2.93, SD = .95$).

Table 11: Tourists’ Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Country of Origin (Derived from Questionnaire Part I)

Attributes	Country of Origin						\bar{x} *	SD	Attractiveness Ranking
	France (n = 108)	UK (n=114)	Germany (n = 81)	USA (n = 102)	Taiwan (n = 107)	Japan (n = 102)			
Cultural Features	3.81	3.90	3.74	3.88	3.37	4.10	3.80	.87	1
Reception	3.87	3.89	3.59	3.87	3.64	3.72	3.77	.77	2
Cost/Price	3.73	3.84	3.67	4.00	3.48	3.75	3.75	.95	3
Natural Factors	3.75	3.69	3.70	3.70	3.16	4.11	3.68	.95	4
Services	3.80	3.55	3.91	3.83	3.36	3.64	3.67	.92	5
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	3.61	3.55	3.60	3.75	2.92	3.45	3.47	.98	6
Accessibility	3.40	3.46	3.42	3.56	2.98	3.10	3.32	.88	7
Infrastructure	3.05	2.84	3.31	3.10	2.48	2.94	2.93	.95	8

* The scores are obtained by utilising the simple average technique. Scale: 1 = Not attractive, 2 = Fairly attractive, 3 = Attractive, 4 = Very attractive, 5 = Outstandingly attractive

6.2.2 Discussion

Among eight identified attractiveness attributes, the emergence of 'Cultural Features,' as the most attractive attribute for Chiang Mai is not a surprising finding. As a city built on the roots of traditional heritage, Chiang Mai has enjoyed her cultural wealth of 'Lanna.' The influence of Lanna can be obviously seen in the areas of religious architectural and artistic features, crafts, cuisine, dress, and traditional ceremonies. Such distinctive primary tourist features influence visitors' evaluation of destination attractiveness. In responses to the question 'Which of these statements is the most important motivation to you for choosing Chiang Mai as your vacation destination area?' nearly half of the respondents (44%) indicated that they came to experience cultural significant attractions. Additionally, another factor which may influence the preference for the 'Cultural Features' attribute may be their education level. Slightly more than fifty percent (51%) of the respondents had obtained a university degree.

In support of this finding, several other studies have found that cultural uniqueness is a potential 'pull' factor for tourists. For example, Ritchie and Zins' (1978) found that attractiveness in terms of 'Cultural Features,' was ranked second to 'Natural Attributes' in their destination studied. Hu and Ritchie (1993) investigated destination attractiveness of Hawaii, Australia, Greece, France, and China by categorising the respondents into two groups: seekers of recreational vacation experience and seekers of educational vacation experience. Among the latter, the most important touristic attributes was the uniqueness of way of life of the local population, and historical attractions. Kim (1998) found that the seasonal and cultural attractiveness of Korea was rated the most attractive and a recent study of Thailand

conducted by Rittichainuwat et al. (2001) found that of the thirty-one selected attributes, 'Architecture and Buildings,' 'Interesting Customs and Culture,' and 'Numerous Cultural and Historical Attractions' were ranked the highest. Recent research undertaken by Kozak (2002) has found 'Cultural Motivations' the highest scores among German travellers in Mallorca.

The literature also indicates that cultural determinants are of growing importance in the global demand for tourism. Areas with an important history, (eg. Europe and Asia), generate significant demand simply because of their rich cultural background, whether manifested in living settings or in museums (Kim, 1998).

This present study finding confirms Dann's (1977) identification of 'Cultural Motives' as pull factors. It also supports Gray's (1970) claim that a basic human is to want to leave things which familiar and go and see, at first hand, different cultures and places, or the relics of past cultures in places famous for their historical associations, ruins and monuments.

Interestingly, Thailand's other primary tourism resource, 'Natural Factors' was evaluated fourth rank in attractiveness. This is in spite of the TAT's attention to this aspect of tourism. This attribute, which includes 'Natural Beauty,' 'Climate,' 'Water,' 'Wildlife,' and 'Vegetation,' could not compete with the other two secondary resources of tourism, that is, 'Reception' and 'Cost/Price.' This finding contrasts with several previous research reports. For example, Gearing et al. (1974), in measuring the attractiveness of Turkey, found that 'Natural Beauty' was ranked the highest, followed by 'Climate.' This finding was supported by Var et al. 's (1977) study of the attractiveness of British Columbia. Their study showed that 'Natural

Beauty' and 'Climate' are two major factors that contribute to the attractiveness of the region.

Ritchie and Zins (1978) measured the attractiveness of a destination and also found that, of the eight attributes evaluated, natural beauty and climate were ranked the most important. In an attempt to identify tourist preferences for a specific category of attractions in Southern Africa, Ferrario (1979) found strong emphasis on 'Scenery and Landscape,' 'Wildlife,' and 'Natural Vegetation.' Elwin (1989) found 'Climate' to be one of the most significant components for the enjoyment of outdoor tourism activities. Also, Meinung (1989) points out that the landscape, its natural form, and its comparability with other tourist locations is the most important factor in attracting visitors to any tourist region. Tang and Rochananond (1990) support this in their comparison the attractiveness of 32 tourist destinations. They found that all respondents considered natural beauty and climate important.

Similarly, in Hu and Ritchie's (1993) investigation of the destination attractiveness judgements of educational vacation experience visitors, 'Views,' 'Scenery,' and 'Climate' were evaluated as most attractive. Weber (1997) studied tourist satisfaction of the German travel market in Australia and found that variables such as seeing 'Spectacular Landscapes' and 'Watching Unique Fauna' were rated highest. Moreover, according to Vauhan and Edwards' (1999) study of tourists' experiential perceptions of two winter sun destinations, Algarve and Cyprus, 'Weather' was the most important factor in tourists' selection of the destination. The preservation of the natural environment, the cleanliness of beaches, the range of facilities available on beaches and the provision of comfortable sunbathing were also found to be

significant variables influencing tourist evaluation of satisfaction (Yusel & Yusel, 2001).

Results from the open-ended question in the present study show concern about exploitation of the natural environment. The most critical problems are traffic, noise, water pollution (both the Ping River and the canal around the city), and air pollution. For example, there are too many trash cars, bikes, and Tuk-Tuk (mini-buses). To reduce air pollution, vehicles need to change from petrol to gas. Also, more garbage bins are needed and canal needs cleaning. These problems were undoubtedly the cause of the reduction of 'Natural Factor' attractiveness. In accordance with the present study, in the study of international tourist's satisfaction of Thailand, Rittichainuwat et al. (2002) found the 'cleanliness and hygiene,' and 'environment' rated lowest in their satisfaction level.

It is of interest to find that secondary tourism product, 'Reception' was rated the second most attractive attribute for Chiang Mai. As noted by Gunn (1994), one of the greatest impacts on the success of the tourism industry is the travel service business, which encompasses accommodation, food service, transportation, travel agencies and several other hospitality services. This statement is confirmed by many research reports whose studies have identified that the friendliness and hospitality of the hosts and local people plays an important role in the formation of destination attractiveness and tourist satisfaction (Ohja, 1982; Stringer, 1981; Vaughan & Edwards, 1999).

In Echtner and Ritchie's (1993) study, the friendliness of local people was found rated high for Jamaica as well as attributes such as local standard of cleanliness and hygiene, good quality of restaurants and hotels. Hu and Ritchie (1993) also found that visitors who travel for recreational vacation experience rated local people's

attitudes towards tourists most important. In other recent studies such as, Yusel and Yusel (2001), study of tourists' satisfaction with Turkey as a tourist destination compared with other countries, of the ten identified significant factors, hospitality components comprising the attitudes of local people and service employees towards tourists were ranked the highest in satisfaction. Rittichainuwat et al. (2001, 2002) also found that 'service in restaurants,' 'attitudes of Thai people toward tourists,' played important parts in attracting international tourists to Thailand. .

Another secondary tourism resource, which scored third in destination attractiveness, was Cost/Price. Price can be a determining factor for destination attractiveness or tourist choice, as Meidan (1989) states customers rate the product at a price. The price of goods or services influences customers' (ie. tourists') patronage decisions (Holloway & Plant, 1988; Lawson, Gnoth & Paulin, 1995). As stated by Sirgy and Su (2000, p. 343) 'Higher prices are likely to be associated with higher quality, commonly associated with upscale destinations and typically visited by affluent or status-conscious tourists on the other hand a resort that engages in heavy discounting and does a lot of price promotions is likely to be perceived as catering to tourists who are price conscious and bargain hunters.' Essentially, price includes the costs for travel, accommodation, and participation in a range of selected services at the destination (Middleton, 1989). Therefore, without the price there is no indication of value. Rittichainuwat et al. (2001, 2002) who have measured image of Thailand through the international perspective, as well as their satisfaction found that visitors agreed that a trip to Thailand returned value for money.

With regard to attribute 'Cost/Price,' tourists in this study indicated in the open-ended question that the price for goods in Chiang Mai is not regular for all people.

For example, because of their tourist status, they were charged excessive prices when entering many tourist attraction sites, and for transportation. Also, they stated that bargaining for everything was difficult because they did not know the real values of goods in the Thai society.

For the fourth ranked attractiveness attribute was 'Services.' Rittichainuwat et al. (2002) found that international tourists rated 'service in restaurants' as the most second satisfied attribute of Thailand. Davidoff and Davidoff (1994) report on the attractiveness of 'Services.' For example, they found that unsafe tourist destinations would not attract people to the regions. In Masterson and Verhoven's (1995) report on the importance of a wide arrays of accommodation and facilities which they called 'soft amenity attributes' contributing to visitors' enjoyment. According to the authors, the importance of hospitable service and clean, well-run facilities, providing information about area attractions planned activities, providing opportunities for socialisation and entertainment outlets are equally important. This suggests that the attractiveness of a tourist destination could be spoiled if the services and facilities that facilitate tourists' comforts would not be met.

According to Yusel and Yusel (2001), the attribute 'Service,' is comprised of service courtesy and friendliness, efficiency and the responsiveness of service personnel to tourist requests and complaints. In their study, 'Services' was rated as the second most important factor influencing tourist satisfaction. In the present study, the attribute 'Services,' which also covers to 'Banks/Cash Machines,' 'Currency Exchange,' 'Police/Security,' 'Medical/Health Services,' 'Communications,' 'Energy Supply,' 'Water Supply and Sewerage Services' is therefore taken into consideration when tourists evaluate destination attractiveness. As a result, there

were some complaints from tourists on the availability of street signs in English, as well as the information about accommodation and transportation on a more long term basis for those who wanted to stay in Chiang Mai longer than a short holiday. Most of the information provided by the TAT was found to refer only to tourists.

In relation to 'Recreational and Shopping Facilities,' which was found rated sixth in attractiveness ranking in the current study contrasts with Chon (1999) in that American travellers rated shopping attribute highest for Korea. However, the finding from the present study supported the study performed in an attempt to evaluate tourist satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination, by Kozak and Rimmington (2000). They found that the facilities and activities such as sport and shopping, nightlife and entertainment had the lowest satisfaction scores. This suggests that destination attributes such as outdoor activities, facilities pursuing health, rest, and serenity, nighttime recreation, and shopping facilities could be perceived differently by tourists and they were one of important aspects to attract visitors to the region.

For the attribute 'Accessibility,' it was rated seventh in attractiveness ranking. This finding did not correspond with the study conducted by Ferrario (1978) in his evaluation of visitor's preference of the potential of tourism products in Southern Africa including 'Seasonality,' 'Accessibility,' 'Admission,' 'Importance,' 'Fragility,' and 'Popularity.' Of the six criteria, 'Accessibility' was rated highest. Ferrario's (1978) finding was supported by Heung and Qu (2000) examination of Japanese tourists' satisfaction levels with Hong Kong as a travel destination. The authors found that among the 32 attributes tested, 'Overall Accessibility' of Hong Kong was perceived the most satisfying.

In contrast to such previous studies, this research has found that 'Accessibility,' composed of the 'Physical Distance to' and the 'Time Involved in Reaching the Vacation Destination,' rated the second lowest in attractiveness. The respondents noted some interesting possible causal factors. For example, the accessibility from the airport to the inner city was difficult because of the lack of public transport and taxis. Many tourists were unhappy or dissatisfied with the minibuses provided. In addition, they noted the risk and difficulty in crossing roads in Chiang Mai City. They suggested an underpass or pedestrian crossing at Tha Pae Gate, and the Huay Kaew road be improved. Such negative factors may have contributed to the low rating of the 'Accessibility' attribute.

Among eight touristic attractiveness attributes, 'Infrastructure,' which refers to 'the Quality and Availability of Different Means of Transportation' and 'Accommodation,' was ranked lowest in attractiveness. Echtner and Ritchie (1993) examined the image of four countries, Jamaica, Japan, Kenya, and Switzerland, and found that 'Infrastructure,' which they defined as comfort/security which include local standards of cleanliness and hygiene, good quality restaurants and hotels scored highest in importance. This contrasts with the present study. Literature review therefore shows that when tourists make an accommodation choice, they consider cleanliness, location, room rate, security, service quality, and the reputation of the hotel chain (Burton, 1990; Choi & Chu, 2000; Clow, Garretson, & Kurtz, 1994; Marshall, 1993; McCleary, Weaver, & Hutchinson, 1993; Weaver & Heung, 1993). The low attractiveness rating of accommodation in terms of availability and quality reported in this study may derive from the insufficiency of services during peak tourist periods in April. During this period, there is a popular annual festival in

Chiang Mai known as 'Songkran.' As a result, every unit of accommodation is booked with heavy demands from both domestic and international visitors. Consequently, both the availability and quality of accommodation suffered as noted in the recommendations made by tourists, for example, 'guided tours are very disappointing and not what they said it would be' and 'the services were not as described in brochure at home.'

According to the analysis of the open-ended question, services in transportation section were also not satisfactory. For example, the lack of taxis and public transportation in Chiang Mai could affect independent tourists. Very often buses and minibuses or Tuk Tuk are the only inner city or intra-city transport. Indeed, the prices for these services are expensive (even for domestic visitors, compared with Bangkok and other Thai cities) and even more excessively expensive for international tourists when they were charged higher rates. It was also suggested that the drivers show more control with regard to discourteous driving habits. All these factors are likely to contribute to the low attractiveness rating of the 'Infrastructure' attribute.

Further analyses of how tourists from the six countries of origin perceived the attractiveness of Chiang Mai were performed. However, in order to make the presentation manageable, the tables indicating the statistical results of the previous discussions have been included in Appendix B (B1 - B6).

6.2.3 Test of Hypotheses

In order to investigate the significant differences among the mean ratings for six countries of origin in the perceived attractiveness of Chiang Mai on eight identified

attributes, hypothesis testing for Hypothesis 1.1 was undertaken. An ANOVA was performed on each of the factors and showed significant differences between the countries on seven of the eight variables. Table 12 shows the mean rating for each of the countries on all eight variables. The variables are shown in order of their overall ranking with 'Cultural Features' selected as the highest ranking and 'Infrastructure' as the least. Table 12 also shows the F-value, degrees of freedom and probability level for each of the ANOVA calculations.

Table 12: Differences in Tourists' Perceived **Attractiveness** of Chiang Mai Province based on Tourists' Country of Origin

Attribute ^a	Country of Origin						F-value	df	Significance
	France (n=108)	UK (n=114)	Germany (n=81)	USA (n=102)	Taiwan (n=107)	Japan (n=102)			
1.Cultural Features	3.81	3.90	3.74	3.88	3.37	4.10	8.596	5, 608	.000*
2. Reception	3.87	3.89	3.59	3.87	3.64	3.72	1.760	5, 608	.119
3. Cost/Price	3.73	3.84	3.67	4.00	3.48	3.75	3.616	5, 608	.003*
4.Natural Factors	3.75	3.69	3.70	3.70	3.16	4.11	11.594	5, 608	.000*
5. Services	3.80	3.55	3.91	3.83	3.36	3.64	5.319	5, 608	.000*
6.Recreation and Shopping Facilities	3.61	3.55	3.60	3.75	2.92	3.45	10.170	5, 608	.000*
7.Accessibility	3.40	3.46	3.42	3.56	2.98	3.10	7.320	5, 608	.000*
8.Infrastructure	3.05	2.84	3.31	3.10	2.48	2.94	9.247	5, 608	.000*

* $p < .01$

a = indicates descending attributes of Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai

To investigate the perceived differences further, a Scheffé Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison test was used to find statistically significant differences between the

mean scores for the six countries. In almost all cases, Taiwan stands out as the country, which has significantly different mean ratings from the other five countries, a summary is shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Scheffé Post-Hoc Comparison Test for **Taiwan** compared to the other five countries.

<i>a</i> Attribute	Country of Origin					
	France	United Kingdom	Germany	United States	Taiwan	Japan
Cultural Features	*	*		*		*
Reception						
Cost/Price				*		
Natural factors	*	*	*	*		*
Services	*		*	*		
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	*	*	*	*		*
Accessibility	*	*	*	*		
Infrastructure	*		*	*		*

** Indicates a statistically significant difference between Taiwan and the country identified in the column. ($p < 0.05$)*

a = indicates descending attributes of Perceived Destination Attractiveness

The tables indicating the statistical results of mean rating differences for other countries were included in Appendix C (C1 – C8).

The significant differences of the mean scores between Taiwan and other countries are perhaps influenced by several factors. Travel mode, for example, was different. From the informal interviews with tour operators and coach tour drivers and the researcher's observations at Chiang Mai international airport, it was clear that Taiwanese and Japanese tourists most often came as tour group while those from

other countries travelled independently or with their families. This is consistent with Mok et al. (1995) study, which found that the all-inclusive package tour was the most popular travel type among Taiwanese.

The popularity of the all-inclusive package tour among Taiwan's visitors was probably the result of the cost of these tour packages promoted in Asian markets by many Thai and Chinese tour operators (Rittichainuwat et al. 2001). Additionally, Prideaux (1995) suggests that distance and proximity, shorter time in reaching other Asian countries, for example, seem to be an important factor coupled with the belief that Asian neighbouring countries 'offered few cultural barriers to Taiwanese tourists,' (p. 151). The all-inclusive package tours generally included heavily discounted or free accommodation, transportation, and meals, which might also be low in quality. This may have affected the perceived attractiveness of some attributes of Chiang Mai such as 'Infrastructure.' In support of this finding the statement in the open-ended response indicating 'private tours are much nicer and better than guided tours,' was found. Unfortunately, the current study has not focused on the travel mode. As a consequent, the apparent conclusion of the cause cannot be made.

However, in Mok et al.'s study (1995) of Taiwan travellers' appreciation of leisure destination attributes, the distance from place of origin to the destination was found to be unimportant. The low rating of the attractiveness for the attribute 'Accessibility' found in the present study probably emerged from the mode of travel.

The tour group mode might also result in inconvenient of times for reaching many vacation sites or changed activity schedules because many members of the group might not be punctual and might delay the whole group.

Another possibility for the significant differences of the mean ratings for Taiwan, which were lower than for other countries, possibly resulted from stereotypical Taiwanese behaviour. As reported by Wang, Kandampully and Ryan (1998, p. 31) in their study of Taiwanese visitors to New Zealand, these tourists 'like to mix with other Taiwanese in their group and stay up late at night talking to each other; they sleep on the coach and thus miss the very views they have paid to see.' This characteristic might have caused their lower appreciation of some of tourist attributes.

According to the analysis result, the Scheffé test indicates a significant difference between country means in the other two factors. The attribute 'Accessibility' showed a significant difference between the United States and Japan (mean rating: 3.56 and 3.10, respectively), and the attribute 'Infrastructure' showed a significant difference between United Kingdom and Germany (mean rating: 2.84 and 3.31, respectively).

The significant differences found between the mean ratings for Japanese respondents and those from the United States on the attribute 'Accessibility' showed that Japanese tourists are less likely to rate this attribute highly. Similar to the Taiwanese, Japanese tourists have been stereotyped as 'travellers who love to shop, spend money, travel in groups, and who are concerned about travel safety and quality' (Yamaguchi, Emenheiser, & Reynolds, 2000, p. 203). Their participation in group tours has been reported in several studies (Ahmed & Krohn, 1992; Carlile, 1996; Dace, 1995; Hsieh, O'Leary, Morrison & Chiang, 1997; and Heung & Qu, 2000; Jansen-Verbeke, 1994; Lang, O'Leary & Morrison, 1993; March, 1993; Nozawa, 1992; Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke & Steel, 1997). As a result, some travel agencies are offering less expensive package tours including air fares, food, and lodging (Ono,

1993). Such inclusive facilities and services are perhaps inferior in quality, which would lead to the users' dissatisfaction with the attribute 'Accessibility.'

Group tours also have 'tight' schedules, which are disrupted some group members. This too may have affected the results of the study. Several scholars have found that Japanese travellers prefer a shorter stay in overseas destinations (Carlile, 1996; Jansen-Verbeke, 1994; Kurokawa, 1990; Lang, O'Leary & Morrison, 1997; Nozawa, 1992). While British tourists have been found to stay longer at a destination (Choi & Chu, 2000; Hsieh, O'Leary & Morrison, 1994). This may result in Japanese visitors being more aware of time and more anxious to see things before they return. Hence they may have been hindered in the accessibility to particular sites. Thus they may rate Chiang Mai attributes such as 'Accessibility' low because their cultural norms are a more regimented compared to visitors from United Kingdom.

Another occasion that the Scheffé test indicates a significant difference between country mean scores is between United Kingdom and German on the attribute 'Infrastructure.' Respondents from United Kingdom had lower mean scores than the German tourists. According to some earlier research reports, both British and German tourists are considered to be 'experienced' travellers as the former have a long history of travel and the latter have highest propensity to travel in the world (Bauer, 2002; Gibson, 2002; Poon & Adams, 2000). The two nationalities, however, have been found different in some aspects of travel behaviours.

Gibson (2000, p. 28) noted that 'certain segments of British markets such as clerical, supervisory, and semi-skilled occupations, which comprise more than 50% of holidaymakers, seek out British-style pubs, fish and chip shops, and home-like

newspapers.' In comparing the travel motivations of British and German tourists, Kozak (2002) found that the British had higher rating scores than German tourists for 'Pleasure seeking/Fantasy-based motivation,' while Germans had higher mean scores for 'Cultural motivations.' Kozak's study of British tourists had higher ratings for types of accommodation, the availability of facilities, and catering for families. In support to Kozak's finding, Hsieh, O'Leary, and Morrison (1994) report that British tourists have more interest in high quality restaurants, first class hotels, resort areas, and guided tours.

According to Jamrozny and Uysal and (1994), German tourists were perceived as alone travellers who desired novelty, experience, and adventure. They were the least likely to tend to seek out a safe and friendly environment. Conversely, they demand a 'care-free' environment. They would be less impressed by sunshine and more impressed by exciting cultural and learning opportunities within a foreign destination. They were also considered to be less threatened by surprise and were willing to take more risks and therefore, were more tolerant. As such, it may be concluded that the low level of appreciation of 'Infrastructure' in the present study by British tourists may derive from their preferring to visit destinations where the culture or infrastructure is familiar or similar to their own country, while their German counterparts are more likely to appreciate culture or infrastructure that is different.

From the aforementioned discussions, it may be concluded that Hypothesis 1.1 which stated that the perceived attractiveness of tourists would vary across country of origin was partly accepted because, with the exception of attribute 'Reception,' there were significant differences among the mean scores for all six countries on all identified

attractiveness factors (Table 11). The indifference of the mean scores for attribute ‘Reception’ probably derived from all tourists, with the exception of the mean ratings for Germany and Taiwan, rated this attribute highly in attractiveness. However, the lower ratings for Germany and Taiwan were not statistically found significantly different from other countries.

To validate the answer for Research Question 1 further, Hypothesis 1.2 that “there is a stronger affect or preference among Western tourists on the attractiveness of Chiang Mai, as compared to Asian visitors” was also tested. An Independent Samples *t*-test was used to test for the differences in mean scores for each perceived attractiveness factor among the two travel groups, Western and Asian.

Table 14: Differences in Tourists’ Perceived **Attractiveness** of Chiang Mai by Geographical Regions of Tourists

<i>Attribute</i>	<i>a</i>	Western (n = 405)		Asian (n = 209)		<i>t</i>	Probability	Significance
		\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>			
Cultural Features		3.84	.79	3.73	1.00	1.437	.152	NS*
Reception		3.82	.94	3.68	1.02	1.656	.098	NS
Cost/Price		3.82	.90	3.61	1.03	2.440	.015	< .05
Natural Factors		3.71	.89	3.62	1.07	1.036	.301	NS
Services		3.76	.86	3.49	.99	3.312	.001	< .05
Recreation and Shopping Facilities		3.63	.88	3.18	1.08	5.549	.000	< .01
Accessibility		3.46	.85	3.04	.87	5.754	.000	< .01
Infrastructure		3.05	.93	2.70	.93	4.418	.000	< .01

* NS = Non-significant

a = indicates descending attributes of Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai

An Independent Samples *t*-test indicated significant differences among the mean ratings for both groups of travellers, Western and Asian, on the preference of the eight attractiveness attributes identified for Chiang Mai. The summary of differences in Table 14 shows the attributes in descending importance with mean scores, standard deviation, *t*-values, probability level, and the significance for each of the attribute. Differences exist between the mean ratings for Western and Asian tourists on five attractiveness attributes. They are 'Cost/Price,' 'Services,' 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Accessibility,' and 'Infrastructure.'

The significant differences between the mean scores are significant at $p < .05$ between Western and Asian countries on those five attributes. Such differences resulted from an overall lower mean rating on all five attributes by travellers from Asian countries. The finding confirms the hypothesised assumption that Western tourists' have stronger preferences on the attractiveness of the destination, than do their Asian counterparts. This finding supports Rittichainuwat et al.(2002) in their claim of Asian travellers' less satisfaction of Thailand vacation compared to their European, North American, Oceania and visitors from other regions. Indeed, the authors found that Asian tourists appear to have lower satisfaction level than European, North American, and visitors from other regions with many destination attributes such as 'lodging and restaurant,' 'shopping and tourist attractions,' 'transportation,' 'foods,' and 'environment and safety.'

This phenomenon probably emerges from the Asian travellers receiving lower service quality than travellers from Europe, North America and other regions. Although Asian tourists are the main target of the inbound markets of the industry (TAT, 2001) the Thai travel and tourism providers seem to fail to give the most important

customers satisfaction with impressive travel experiences. The fact is that the highly discounted Asian tour packages, which include shopping itineraries to visit high priced souvenir and jewelry shops. In addition, the marginal profit of such tour packages is traded off with low quality lodging, food and beverage, and visits to deteriorated tourist attractions. Another thing is that the industry providers underestimated the expected level of service quality of Asians. As Ap (2000) claimed that some Asians such as Chinese, Japanese, and Koreans appeared to keep silent instead of expressing their dissatisfaction to save face and avoid embarrassment of the vendors. This may lead to a misunderstanding that Asians are tolerant to low service levels and poor product quality.

The difference in appreciating and judging destination attractiveness of tourists may also be explained on the basis of cultural background. Although only a small number of studies have compared the travel behaviour of Western and Asian tourists, some earlier research reports on cross-cultural behaviour do provide supporting evidences for the finding of this current study. Schuster and Copeland (1986), for example, constructed a Cultural Classification Model which depicts how cultural groups differ in the way they judge tasks and relationships and devote time to each. It also shows how each cultural group perceives the importance of different parts of the global sales and negotiation process. Hofstede (1991), for example, analysed a database showing the behaviour of people from 85 countries and demonstrated the differences in cross-cultural behaviour.

According to his summary, which has later been widely quoted and modified, culture is divided into five dimensions. They include (1) power distance dimensions, which refer to the extent to which societies accept inequality in power and regard it as

normal, (2) individualism versus collectivism, which demonstrates the interdependence between people and their environments/societies, that is, one is encouraged and expected to be responsible for oneself and one's immediate family members in individualist societies, in contrast, in collectivist societies such as extended family, clans, and organisations, one has strong ties and is expected to look after the interests of his/her in-groups, (3) masculinity versus femininity, which exhibits the difference in societal roles between genders, (4) uncertainty avoidance, which discloses the extent to which people in a particular culture are encouraged to take risks and to tolerate uncertainty, (5) long-term orientation dimension, which defines the extent to which a society represents a pragmatic future-oriented view rather than a normative or short-term perspective.

According to Hofstede (1991), Anglo-Saxon societies rate low in power distance and long-term orientation but have high scores on uncertainty avoidance and masculinity and individualism characteristics. While Asian people are likely to score high in power distance and long-term orientation, and low on uncertainty avoidance and have masculinity and collectivism perspective.

The aforementioned cross-cultural findings may help explain the difference in destination attractiveness appreciation between Western and Asian tourists on some attributes. This may have an influence on Asian travel behaviour in a sense that they are more likely to be 'passive' and avoid or appreciate less adventurous activities. So they would avoid local foods and beverages, insisting on eating their own cuisine. Since eating unfamiliar food may cause a risk, people from a 'high uncertainty avoidance' culture would avoid the apprehension associated with it. For Western travellers, on the other hand, as they have higher scores on uncertainty avoidance,

consequently, they may be more tolerate of the unexpected consequences that they encounter while in foreign countries. This may affect the lower ratings of Asian tourists for attractiveness in several attributes of this present study.

In addition, some geographical practitioners such as Ritter (1987) had compared the travel pattern of Japanese with those of Western Europeans. According to Ritter (1987 p. 7-8) ‘... Japanese prefer to travel in groups and take short holidays only, while Europeans are more individualists and fully use their holidays in 2-4 weeks for long absences from home.’ The author continued to describe Japanese travel characteristics as ‘... Japanese to a destination once there is an infrastructure for large groups. They are neither pioneers nor adventurers. Both group travel and short-term holidays can be traced to the cultural background of Japanese. People there think of themselves less of individual and more of being members of some group. A long vacation away from the group means painful separation and a danger to physic well being.’ He concluded that this example shows a national style of tourism, which extremely different from what is normal in Europe.

Similar to Japanese tourists, Pizam and Jeong (1996) studied an Asian national travel aspect - Korean travel characteristics. Korean have also been described as different from Western travellers. They ‘have implacable loyalty to their sociocultural identity and being unwilling to accept anything that has little in common with the Korean way of living. They insist on going to Korean restaurants while abroad, are fond of travelling to Asian countries that are based on Confusion Philosophy like Korea, and prefer to travel in groups rather than individually. They usually feel comfortable with cash in hand and tend to show off their cash and spend freely’ (p. 278). In their comparison, Pizam and Jeong (1996) suggested some traits identified in the

American culture that has influenced the leisure and travel behaviour of the Americans. Americans have a love of novelty, a desire to be near nature, the freedom to move, and individual and social acceptance.

In a more recent study, Go, Pine and Yu (1994) investigated traveller arrivals from Asian countries to Hong Kong, especially from the main land China, Taiwan and Japan who have tended to use mid-priced hotels. In addition, they tend not to spend as much as their Western counterparts. This is similar to the Asian sample visiting Chiang Mai. With packaged-tour provision of cheap or 'mid-priced' accommodation, the quality of services and facilities from those hotels might not meet their expectations. This will lead to their lower scores in certain attributes such as 'Infrastructure,' 'Cost/Price,' 'Services,' and 'Accessibility' in the destination.

Therefore, Hypothesis 2.2, which stated that there would be a stronger affect or preference among Western tourists on the attractiveness of Chiang Mai, compared to Asian visitors, has been accepted. This finding confirms past research by Richardson and Crompton (1988), Calantone et al. (1989), Luk et al (1993), Haung et al (1996), and Armstrong et al. (1997). These studies also found those tourists' appreciation of destination attributes varies according to countries of origin.

6.3 CONCLUSION

This chapter has focused on the first part of the analysis results and discussion of the findings. The data describes the respondents' profiles, the measurement of the tourists' perceptions of the attractiveness of Chiang Mai across their country of origin and geographical regions.

In the next chapter, the results of the investigation of tourists' perceptions of attribute importance, followed by the analysis of the overall attractiveness of Chiang Mai and its relationship with the intention to repeat visitation will be presented. In addition, the relationship between the perceptions of importance of destination attributes and tourists' personal characteristics in terms of travel motivation, travel purpose, age, gender, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size will also be outlined.

CHAPTER 7

PRESENTATION OF ANALYSIS RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS (continued)

7.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter continues presenting the analysis of data from the survey of 614 international tourists whom visited Chiang Mai Province, Thailand, taken between 1-30 April 2001. Three types of data analysis were performed. They include tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes (7.1). The analysis of the overall attractiveness of the destination and identification of the relationship between tourists' perception of overall attractiveness of the destination and the likelihood to revisit (7.2) are also included. The investigation of the relationship between destination attributes perceived by tourists and their personal characteristics in terms of tourists' travel motivation, travel purpose, and socio-demographic factors, such as gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status and family size (7.3) were finally outlined in the chapter.

7.1 ANALYSIS OF TOURISTS' PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES

The answer for Research Question II, which states: 'what is the relative importance of attributes that influence the overall attractiveness of the tourist destination' has been sought in this section. This part includes the confirmation of the scale used to measure the perceptions of attribute importance and the results of calculation of ratings for the importance of attributes of the destination.

7.1.1 Confirmation of the Scale

The preconceived factors and their sub-attributes that were used to measure perceptions of attribute importance were selected from the studies of Gearing et al. (1974) and Ritchie and Zins (1978). However, some minor modifications were made to obtain feedback from each participant on how the importance of the many particular features of Chiang Mai is rated. They are as follows:

- 1) Natural Factors include five sub-items:
 - Natural beauty
 - Climate
 - Water
 - Wildlife
 - Vegetation
- 2) Cultural Features cover the following six factors:
 - Architectural and artistic features
 - Historical and ancient ruins
 - Carnivals and festivals
 - Distinctive local features
 - Religion
 - Food
- 3) Recreation and Shopping Facilities involve:
 - Outdoor activities
 - Facilities pursuing health, rest, and serenity
 - Nighttime recreation and shopping facilities
- 4) Infrastructure involves two items:
 - The quality and availability of different means of transportation

- Accommodation
- 5) Accessibility includes two sub-items:
- The physical distance to vacation destinations
 - The time involved in reaching the vacation destination
- 6) Reception consists of four sub-attributes:
- Information centres, interpretation and language services
 - Pedestrian signposts and displayed maps
 - Local tour guides and tour operators
 - Community attitudes towards tourists
- 7) Services are composed of five factors:
- Bank/cash machine and currency exchange
 - Police/Security
 - Medical/Health Services
 - Communication
 - Energy/water supply and sewerage services
- 8) Cost/Price concerns three sub-attributes:
- The value received for money spent on food within the destination
 - The value received for money spent on lodging within the destination
 - The value received for money spent on transportation within the destination

Since the investigator determined these determinants beforehand, it is necessary to check if the preconceived attributes of the destinations previously selected from the studies by Gearing et al (1974) and Ritchie and Zins (1978) are similar to those which the underlying dimensions of the present scale are actually measuring. A

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation was utilised to identify the underlying destination attributes that explained the variance in the attributes. This produced a similar factor structure with eight factors or attributes with items similar to those used by Gearing et al. (1974) and Ritchie and Zins (1978). These were some minor derivations from the factor structure by Gearing et al (1974) and Ritchie and Zins (1978) and these will be discussed below.

Table 15 shows the results of 30 destination attributes factor-analysed by using principal component analysis with orthogonal Varimax Rotation. As seen in the table, only items with factor loadings (correlations between the factors and the items or variables) equal to or greater than .40, and with Eigenvalues equal to or greater than one were considered significant.

From the Varimax rotated factor matrix, eight factors, representing 59.05 percent of the explained variance, were extracted from the original 30 variables. Eight destination attributes with 28 variables were defined by the original 30 variables that were loaded most heavily – greater than .40. The Varimax process produced a clear factor structure with relatively higher loadings on such factors. This means that the variables with high loadings signalled the correlations of the variables with the factors on which they were loaded. However, some attributes have obtained the loadings of 0.39 for climate and 0.38 for water. Although less than .40, these are close to the desirable loading of .40, and therefore, it may be acceptable to leave them in the natural factors as was done in the studies by Gearing et al (1974) and Ritchie and Zins (1978). Reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) was calculated to test the reliability and the internal consistency of the items within each factor. The results show that the alpha coefficients for the eight factors ranged from 0.76 to 0.79,

well above the minimum value of 0.50 considered acceptable as an indication of reliability for basic research. (Hair et al. 1998; Nunnally, 1978).

Table 15: Factor Analysis of Importance Attributes for **Importance Rating Scale**

Importance Factors	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)^a	Reliability^b
Factor 1: Services		7.190	23.965	.76
Bank/cash machine and currency exchange	0.44			
Police/Security	0.64			
Medical/Health services	0.78			
Communication	0.70			
Energy/water supply and sewerage services	0.63			
Factor 2: Natural Factors		2.434	8.113	.78
Natural beauty	0.70			
Climate	0.39			
Water	0.38			
Wildlife	0.78			
Vegetation	0.80			
Factor 3: Cultural Features		1.661	5.536	.78
Architectural and artistic features	0.65			
Historical and ancient ruins	0.70			
Carnivals and festivals	0.70			
Distinctive local features	0.64			
Religion	0.57			
Foods	0.49			
Factor 4: Reception		1.513	5.043	.76
Information centres, interpretation and language services	0.63			
Pedestrian signposts and displayed maps	0.68			
Local tour guides, and tour operators	0.68			
Community attitude toward tourists	0.59			

^a Total variance explained = 59.05 %

^b Cronbach's Alpha.

Table 15: Factor Analysis of Importance Attributes for **Importance Rating Scale** (continued)

Importance Factors	Factor loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained (%)^a	Reliability^b
Factor 5: Cost/Price		1.496	4.987	.79
The value received for money spent on food in the province	0.79			
The value received for money spent on lodging in the province	0.81			
The value received for money Spent on transportation in the Province	0.55			
Factor 6: Accessibility		1.229	4.096	.78
Physical distance for the vacation destination	0.71			
Time involved in reaching the vacation destination	0.67			
Factor 7: Infrastructure		1.139	3.797	.77
Quality and availability of transportation	0.63			
Accommodation	0.54			
Factor 8: Recreation and Shopping Facilities		1.055	3.515	.79
Outdoor activities	0.66			
Facilities pursuing for health, rest, and serenity	0.58			
Nighttime recreation and shopping centres	0.64			

^a Total variance explained = 59.05 %

^b Cronbach's Alpha.

Thus, the data suggest that the original scale developed by Geraing et al. (1978) and Ritchie and Zin (1978) may be used in this study as a reliable and valid instrument to measure the attribute importance of Chiang Mai Province.

7.1.2 Results

Similar to the perception of the attractiveness of tourist destination, the perceptions of attribute importance can be obtained by using the simple average approach. The scores obtained were the products of calculation of the average importance rating of each of eight main touristic attributes that respondents from each country valued important in their choice of preference for the destination. This value represents I_i or the weight or importance of attributes i in the model. To complete this task, the average scores of each of thirty sub-attributes that all respondents considered the destination to possess must be performed. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate on a five-point scale each of thirty sub-attributes in terms of how important they were to the respondent. The anchor points of the scale were 1 (less importance) and 5 (more importance). Respondents' ratings for each of the thirty sub-attributes were then averaged. The average of each sub-attribute was calculated for the composite value of each main attribute. Smaller values show that all respondents perceived the destination to possess less of that attribute.

Table 16 summarises the results of attribute importance of tourists from the six countries of origin. The table indicates the mean scores, standard deviation, and the importance ranking for each identified attribute. As seen in the table, 'Cost/Price' was rated most important for tourists from all six countries, followed by 'Cultural Features,' 'Infrastructure,' 'Services,' 'Natural Factors,' 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' and 'Reception.' 'Accessibility' was considered least important.

Table 16: Tourists' Perceived **Importance** of Destination Attributes by Country of Origin
(Derived from Questionnaire Part II)

Attributes	Country of Origin						α *	SD	Importance Ranking
	France (n = 108)	United Kingdom (n = 114)	Germany (n = 81)	The United States (n = 102)	Taiwan (n = 107)	Japan (n = 102)			
Cost/Price	3.77	3.61	3.61	3.75	3.92	4.03	3.78	.88	1
Cultural Features	3.58	3.46	3.52	3.58	3.57	4.01	3.62	.67	2
Infrastructure	3.64	3.57	3.65	3.61	3.76	3.44	3.61	.76	3
Services	3.50	3.41	3.47	3.50	3.74	3.54	3.52	.72	4
Natural Factors	3.43	3.38	3.43	3.35	3.50	3.84	3.49	.69	5
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	3.51	3.56	3.51	3.48	3.31	3.60	3.49	.70	6
Reception	3.36	3.28	3.20	3.37	3.91	3.53	3.45	.80	7
Accessibility	3.11	3.10	3.27	3.25	3.78	3.38	3.31	.87	8

**Scale (used for rating each of sub-attribute): 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Marginally important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, and 5 = Most important*

Further analysis of the perceptions of attribute importance of respondents from the six countries of origin was carried out. However, the results of the analysis presented in the tables can be seen in the Appendix D (D1 – D6).

7.1.3 Test of Hypotheses

In testing the hypothesised assumptions, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then employed in order to measure the differences between the mean ratings of importance the six countries of origin and to test Hypothesis 2.1, which states: ‘the relative importance of attributes in contributing to destination attractiveness will differ in perceptions of the international tourists from six countries of origin.’

Table 17 indicates the significant differences among the mean scores for the six countries on all identified variables. The variables are illustrated in order of attribute importance with ‘Cost/Price’ the most important and ‘Accessibility’ the least. In the table F-value, degrees of freedom, and probability level are also illustrated for each of the ANOVA computations.

To seek further the differences in perceptions, Scheffé Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison tests were employed to obtain statistically significant differences between the mean scores for the six countries. Interestingly, the mean ratings for two countries, that is, Japan and Taiwan, were found to be significantly different from those of the other countries. The findings are illustrated in Table 17 and 18. The details of the results of a Scheffé Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison have been included in Appendix E (E1 – E8).

Table 17: Difference of Tourists' Perceived **Importance** of Destination Attributes based on Tourists' Country of Origin

Attribute ^a	Country of Origin						F-value	df	Significance
	France (n=108)	UK (n=114)	Germany (n=81)	United States (n=102)	Taiwan (n=107)	Japan (n=102)			
1. Cost/Price	3.77	3.61	3.61	3.75	3.92	4.03	3.791	5,608	.002*
2. Cultural Features	3.58	3.46	3.52	3.58	3.57	4.01	9.339	5,608	.000*
3. Infrastructure	3.64	3.57	3.65	3.61	3.76	3.44	2.039	5,608	.071
4. Service	3.50	3.41	3.47	3.50	3.74	3.54	2.678	5,608	.021*
5. Natural Factors	3.43	3.38	3.43	3.35	3.50	3.84	7.122	5,608	.000*
6. Recreation and Shopping Facilities	3.51	3.56	3.51	3.48	3.31	3.60	2.192	5,608	.054
7. Reception	3.36	3.28	3.20	3.37	3.91	3.53	11.396	5,608	.000*
8. Accessibility	3.11	3.10	3.27	3.25	3.78	3.38	9.579	5,608	.000*

* $p < .01$

** $p < .05$

^a = indicates descending attributes of Perceived Importance of Chiang Mai's Attributes

Table 18: Scheffé Post-Hoc Comparison tests for **Japan** compared to the other five countries.

<i>Attribute</i>	Country of Origin					
	<i>a</i> France	United Kingdom	Germany	United States	Taiwan	Japan
Cost/Price		*				
Cultural Features	*	*	*	*	*	
Infrastructure						
Services						
Natural Factors	*	*	*	*	*	
Recreation and Shopping Facilities						
Reception					*	
Accessibility					*	

* Indicates a statistically significant difference between Japan and the country identified in the column. ($p < 0.05$)

a = indicates descending attributes of Perceived Importance of Chiang Mai's Attributes

In Table 18 the significant difference between the mean scores for Japan and United Kingdom are exhibited on 'Cost/Price' (mean rating: Japan = 4.03, UK = 3.61). Moreover, such differences were identified between Japan and the other five countries on 'Cultural Features' (mean rating: Japan = 4.01, UK = 3.46, Germany = 3.52, Taiwan = 3.57, France = 3.58, and USA = 3.58) and on the attribute 'Natural Factors' (mean rating: Japan = 3.84, USA = 3.35, UK = 3.38, Germany = 3.43, France = 3.43, and Taiwan = 3.50). In addition, the significant differences between rating scores for Japan and Taiwan were also found on two attributes, namely 'Reception' (mean rating: Japan = 3.53, Taiwan, 3.91) and 'Accessibility' (mean rating: Japan = 3.38, Taiwan = 3.76).

Table 19 shows the significant differences between the mean ratings for Taiwan and the other countries. A Scheffé Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison results exhibit significant differences on mean scores for Reception between Taiwan and the other five countries (mean rating: Taiwan = 3.91, Germany = 3.20, UK = 3.28, France = 3.36, USA = 3.37, and Japan = 3.53). A significant difference between Taiwan and the other five countries was also evident for ‘Accessibility’ (mean rating: Taiwan = 3.76, UK = 3.10, USA = 3.25, Germany = 3.27, France = 3.11, Japan = 3.38). Moreover, significant differences were demonstrated between Taiwan and Japan on ‘Cultural Features’ (mean rating: Taiwan = 3.57, Japan = 4.01), and on ‘Natural Factors’ (mean rating: Taiwan = 3.50, Japan = 3.84). In addition, significant difference was found on the attribute ‘Services’ between Taiwan and United Kingdom (mean rating: Taiwan = 3.74, UK = 3.41).

Table 19: Scheffé Post-Hoc Comparison tests for **Taiwan** compared to the other five countries.

<i>a</i> Attribute	Country of Origin					
	France	United Kingdom	Germany	United States	Taiwan	Japan
Cost/Price						
Cultural Features						*
Infrastructure						
Services		*				
Natural Factors						*
Recreation and Shopping Facilities						
Reception	*	*	*	*		*
Accessibility	*	*	*	*		*

** Indicates a statistically significant difference between Taiwan and the country identified in the column. ($p < 0.05$)*

a = indicates descending attributes of Perceived Importance of Chiang Mai's Attributes

Hypothesis 2.2 posits that “there is a stronger perception of attribute importance among Asian tourists on (the importance of) primary tourism products, that is, the ‘Natural Factors’ and ‘Cultural Features’ of Chiang Mai, whereas Western visitors would give more importance to secondary tourism products.” An Independent Samples *t*-test was employed to test this hypothesis. The analysis of sub-attributes for each main attribute has been presented in Appendix F (F1 – F8).

Table 20: Differences in Tourists’ Perceived **Importance** of Destination Attributes by Geographical Region

<i>Attribute^a</i>	Western (N=405)		Asian (N=209)		<i>t</i>	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>			
1. Cost/Price	3.70	.76	4.00	1.041	-3.849	.000	< .01
2. Cultural Features	3.54	.66	3.80	.67	-4.470	.000	< .01
3. Infrastructure	3.61	.76	3.61	.77	.147	.883	NS*
4. Services	3.47	.71	3.64	.72	-2.846	.005	< .05
5. Natural Factors	3.40	.65	3.67	.75	-4.459	.000	< .01
6. Recreation and Shopping Facilities	3.52	.68	3.45	.74	1.066	.287	NS*
7. Reception	3.31	.80	3.73	.72	-6.328	.000	< .01
8. Accessibility	3.17	.84	3.60	.86	-5.698	.000	< .01

* *Non-significant,*

a = indicates descending attributes of Perceived Importance of Chiang Mai’s Attributes

Table 20 provides the summary of significant differences that exist among the mean ratings for Western and Asian visitors. The table shows mean scores, standard deviation, *t*-values, probability level, and significance of each attribute between the two geographical regions. Significant differences were found on six importance

attributes. They are 'Cost/Price,' 'Cultural Features,' 'Services,' 'Natural Factors,' 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility,' respectively.

When further investigating each sub-item or attribute for the factor 'Cost/Price,' the differences between the mean scores were statistically significant at $p < .05$ for 'Value for Money Spent on Food' and the 'Value for Money Spent on Transportation,' and at $p < .01$ for 'Value for Money Spent on Lodging within the Destination.'

For 'Cultural Features,' an Independent Sample t-test indicated significant differences among the six sub-items of this factor at $p < .01$ in terms of 'Historical and Ancient Ruins,' 'Carnivals and Festivals,' and 'Distinctive Local Features.' Also, a difference in mean ratings for 'Architectural and Artistic Features' was exhibited at $p < .05$.

In relation to sub-items for attribute 'Services,' of the five identified items, the differences were found to be statistically significant at $p < .01$ for the item 'Police/Security' and at $p < .05$ for the two items 'Medical/Health Services' and 'Energy/Water Supply and Sewerage Services.'

With regard to 'Natural Factors,' all the sub-items, with the exception of 'Natural Beauty' and 'Vegetation,' were identified as statistically different at $p < .05$ for 'Climate' and $p < .01$ for 'Water' and 'Wildlife.'

In terms of 'Reception,' differences were demonstrated on the mean scores for

almost all cases, except 'Community Attitude toward Tourists.' The probability levels for such differences were at $p < .01$ for 'Information Centres,' 'Interpretation and Language Services,' 'Pedestrian Signposts and Displayed Maps,' and 'Local Tour Guides and Tour Operators.'

The last attribute identified as having significant differences was 'Accessibility.' An Independent Sample t -test illustrated differences at $p < .01$ on both sub-items, that is, 'Physical Distance to the Vacation Destination' and 'Time Involved in Reaching the Vacation Destination.'

7.1.4 Discussion

It is of interest to know that of among the eight identified attributes of importance, tourists from all countries rated 'Cost/Price' the highest, followed by 'Cultural Features,' 'Infrastructure,' 'Services,' 'Natural Factors,' 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' and 'Reception.' Among the eight attributes, 'Accessibility' was evaluated the lowest in importance. More specifically, the mean ratings for Japan stand out from each of the other countries on two occasions. For primary tourism products, that is, 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features,' Japanese tourists perceived these to be more important than tourists from other countries five countries. On another occasion, Japanese travellers placed less importance than did Taiwanese tourists on some secondary tourism products such as 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility.' Additionally, Japanese tourists also considered the attribute 'Cost/Price' more important than tourists from the United Kingdom.

There are some explanations for this phenomenon – in spite of the fact that both Japanese and Taiwanese tourists preferred to travel in grouped tours (Ahmed &

Krohn, 1992; Carlie, 1996; Dace, 1995; Jansen-Verbeke, 1994; Lang, O'Leary, & Morrison, 1993; Lang, O'Leary & Morrison, 1997; Mok, Armstrong, & Go 1995; Nozawa, 1992; Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke, & Steel, 1997; Wang, Kandampully & Ryan, 1998), the characteristics of their group tours are likely to be different.

Japanese outbound travels began in the 1980s and since then has increased dramatically being ranked the first in Asia (Nozawa, 1992). With the Japanese government 'Ten Million Program' which aimed to double Japanese outbound travel from 5.5 million to 10 million between 1986 and 1991, the Japanese tour wholesalers and agencies have been directly encouraged to organise and market a variety of package tours to hundreds of overseas destinations, as well as to improve their levels of service quality. Moreover, during the early 1990s, the government announced a new programme, 'Two-Way Tourism 21' for Japanese tourism in the 21 century, to facilitate tourist flow both to and from Japan to enhance mutual understanding between the Japanese and other people (Nozawa, 1992).

This resulted in considerable competition among tourist companies in Japan. They conducted research and planning, and organised many different package tours for different market segments, and marketing them through an extensive network of retail outlets. Huge sums of money were spent on consumer research and the printing of extremely attractive catalogues to promote their package tours. In terms of improving the quality of services, travel agencies provide a 'one-stop' convenient service, which ranges from obtaining passports and visas for their customers to pre-arranged shipping of gifts from the places that they plan to visit (Nishiyama, 1996). With such convenience, Japanese tourists can travel abroad without worrying about reception and the accessibility to the destination. They just leave it in the tour

leader's hands. Therefore, they do not consider the attribute 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility' to have much importance.

Outbound travel from Taiwan has grown to become the second largest in Asia Pacific. Such growth tends to be influenced by several factors such as political stability, fast economic growth, intensification of trade, air transport, disposable income, and increased leisure time (Mok, Armstrong, & Go, 1995) as well as the obvious support and promotion from government bodies for the travel and tourism industry, as with Japan. However, the tour wholesalers and agencies in Taiwan might not have as much capital development and experience as those of Japan. This is probably reflected in the lack of quality and variety of the package tours for Taiwanese customers. Consequently, Taiwanese tourists are concerned more about attributes of a tourist destination such as 'Accessibility' and 'Reception.'

In addition, published work on Japanese and on Taiwanese travel characteristics (Heung, Qu, & Chu, 2001; Hui, & Yuen, 2002; Lee, 2000; Wang, Kandampully, & Ryan, 1998) reports that Japanese tourists are seen as polite, patient, and tolerant while their Taiwanese counterparts are seen more likely to argue for a discount are more critical. They are also more demanding, persuading, and persistent in negotiating prices and services (Wang, 1996; Wang, & Ryan, 1997). These characteristics are perhaps reflected in their ranking highly destination attributes in that Japanese tourists gave less importance for example 'Reception' and 'Accessibility.'

With respect to Japanese tourists being more price sensitive than tourists from United Kingdom, this may be influenced by national characteristics such as Japanese being

more likely to be the 'big spenders' in buying gifts and souvenirs for family, relatives and friends than tourists from the United Kingdom. It is generally known that some characteristics are extreme in degree and practice, for example, Japanese industriousness, collectivism, economics, self-denigration, shyness, politeness, and formality. Such characteristics have been shaped during the impoverished post-war period. (Hashimoto, 2000). The characteristic of being economical may be reflected in the value of money spent on travel.

It is extensively reported in the literature that Japanese tourists love shopping during their overseas trips. They are described as big spenders, sophisticated consumers, and enthusiastic but clever shoppers (Dace, 1995; Jansen-Verbeke, 1994; Keown, 1989; Nozawa, 1992; Pizam, Jansen-Verbeke, & Steel, 1997). The preference for shopping is influenced by the '*senbetsu-omiyage*' custom (Jansen-Verbeke, 1994; Keown, 1989; Nozawa, 1992). When a Japanese traveller is to travel abroad, he/she is given a farewell party, where members of the family, along with close friends and colleagues, give money as a present (*senbetsu*) and wish him/her a pleasant vacation.

Thus, the tourist is obliged to reciprocate by buying presents overseas of similar value as the money received and bring them back home. Such gift-buying might even account for over three-fourths of the travellers' spending budget (Keown, 1989). Japanese tourists also like to purchase souvenirs to legitimise and commemorate their visit to a particular tourist destination (Ahmed & Krohn, 1992). They can spend up to \$251 per day, which was about two and half times that spent by American mainland tourists. This figure represents one-third of the total Japanese visitors' expenditure. The Hong Kong Tourist Association ranks Japanese visitors as its second top-spending tourist group, after the Taiwanese, with a per capita expenditure of US\$956

(HKTA, 1998). The propensity to buy things at a vacation destination was mainly because the price of goods is much lower than in Japan. Therefore, price was a major concern for the Japanese travellers and explains why they favour duty-free shops (Keown, 1989).

Another possibility for the greater sensitivity to Cost/Price' of Japanese tourists compared with their tourist counterparts from the United Kingdom may result from the current economic downturn, the devaluation of the Yen, and the instability of the Yen compared to Pounds Sterling or Euro Dollars (Mok & Lam, 2000). Additionally, Ahmed and Krohn (1992) report that Japanese travellers with college or university education and whose income is from US\$89,906 to US\$107,886, were more likely to travel to destinations such as Singapore, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and Guam, that is, destinations in close proximity destinations, than those in a higher income group earning US\$107,887 or over. Interestingly, the Japanese participants in this present study mainly indicated their range of income as between less than US\$20,000 and US\$40,000, while their UK counterparts indicated less than US\$20,000 and US\$80,000 and more. This finding may suggest that those with lower earnings are more likely to travel to other Asian and Pacific countries because of their inability to afford travel to more distant destinations.

With regard to the primary tourism products, 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features,' which Japanese tourists considered more important, there has been some evidence that confirms this finding. For example, Morris (1990) conducted Japanese consumer surveys and concluded that Japanese travellers preferred places with natural scenery and good beaches, as well as cities rich in historical spots and modern cultures. Lang, Oleary, and Morrison (1993) categorised Japanese tourists

based on activity type through cluster analysis into five categories: outdoor sports, sightseeing, life-seeing, activity combo, and naturalist. They found that the Japanese naturalists had strong interests in visiting historically important places, commemorative places, archaeological places, and national parks/forests. Jang, Morrison, and O'Leary (2001) segmented Japanese travel markets based on the profitability and risk of individual market segments by using factor cluster analysis. They found that Cluster I, that is, nature and environment containing the five benefits of environmental quality, air, water and soil, standard of hygiene and cleanliness, personal safety, agreeable weather, and interesting rural countryside had the highest importance ratings. However, historical and culture, outdoor activities, and lifestyle were not highly rated.

The phenomenon by which Japanese tourists are prone to prefer destinations with the attributes 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features' may also be explained by Japanese's own geographical location. With an area of 377,435 square kilometres or 234,010 square miles and population of 126.5 million, Japan is one of the most densely populated countries in the world. As a result, when Japanese travellers take their vacations abroad they are likely to appreciate what they rarely get in their own environment – nature and cultural features (Mok & Lam, 2000).

In relation to the significant difference of the mean ratings for Taiwanese tourists, the mean scores were different from those of other countries in two cases. Taiwanese tourists considered primary tourism products, such as 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features,' as less important than did Japanese visitors. While secondary tourism products, such as 'Reception' and 'Accessibility,' were perceived more important by the Taiwanese than by tourists from the remaining five countries. In addition,

Taiwanese tourists also considered the attribute 'Services' more important than did tourists from the United Kingdom.

Over the last 30 years, Taiwan has developed into one of the world's largest trading economies with many exports directed at the U.S.A. Outbound travel from Taiwan was first allowed in 1979, and since then the number of Taiwanese tourists going abroad has increased to become the second largest in the Asian Pacific region after Japan (Mok, Armstrong & Go, 1995). Tourists from Taiwan have their own unique characteristics, as reported in the literature. For example, Lang, O'Leary, and Morrison (1997) studied the travel behaviour of Taiwanese tourists in relation to travel arrangements, philosophy, and benefits. They concluded that Taiwanese consumers are people with diverse cultures. Such diversity was derived from the cultural influences of American, European, Japanese, and their own cultures. So Taiwanese travel behaviour will apparently not be the same as other Asian such as Japanese. In agreement with this, Mok, Armstrong and Go, (1995) also concluded that Taiwanese consumer reactions are harder to predict than those of the Chinese in Singapore and Hong Kong where European influence was established early and channelled predominantly through the British. Historical shock after historical shock in fairly rapid succession has compelled Taiwanese consumers to look for symbols in diverse cultures (American, European, and Japanese) in addition to their own. As a source of travel market Taiwan may be 'categorised as developing outbound tourist market in that the tastes and styles of travellers is still of an emerging nature' (p.18).

Therefore, specific Taiwanese national cultural characteristics, as noted by Mok et al. (1995) may have influence on particular perceptions of destination attribute importance such as for 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features,' as they rated the

two attributes less than their Japanese counterparts. Although Taiwanese and Japanese tourists are neighbours and have some cultural similarities, differences still exist in that Taiwanese visitors perceive those attributes. This may be explained, as by Weiermair and Fuchs (1999), as cultural conflict, reflected in negative quality judgements and more critical attitudes towards service quality among tourists from similar cultural backgrounds: the greater the cultural distance, the less criticism occurs. Moreover, visitors from Taiwan also perceived some attributes, such as 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility,' as more important. They also gave more importance to attribute 'Service' than did tourists from the United Kingdom. One study that confirms this finding was conducted by Mok et al. (1995). They found that Taiwanese tourists were likely to perceive the quality and variety of foods, service in hotel and restaurants, shopping facilities and the services and friendliness of local people as most important in selecting a vacation destination.

As noted above, it may be concluded that Hypothesis 2.1 stating that the relative importance of attributes contributing to the overall attractiveness of the destination will differ across the tourists' countries of origin, was partly accepted because the mean ratings for all variables, with the exception of 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities' and 'Infrastructure,' were significantly different at a probability level of $p < 0.05$.

In relation to Hypothesis 2.2, not only were the mean scores of Asian tourists for primary tourism resources or products likely to be higher than their Western counterparts, but some certain secondary products (ie... 'Cost/Price,' 'Services,' 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility') were also higher. More specifically, Asian tourists generally gave greater importance to both types of destination products. This present

finding is in agreement with Mayo and Jervois's (1981) claim in that travel attributes might be perceived differently by members of different cultural groups. Mill and Morrison (1985) also confirmed this in their finding that tourists from different countries and cultures generally have different perceptions as to their favourite attractions.

7.2 ANALYSIS OF THE OVERALL ATTRACTIVENESS OF CHIANG MAI AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH THE INTENTION TO REPEAT VISITATION

7.2.1 Results

This section focuses on seeking the answer of Research Question 3 and 4 stating "What is the 'overall' or global attractiveness for the tourist destination of the tourists' six countries of origin?" and "What is the relationship between tourists' perceived overall attractiveness and the intention to revisit the destination?" The value for the destination's overall attractiveness is represented by A_j in the model of attractiveness measurement. The outcomes were the calculation of a summed score for each country. Each score for each region is the sum of eight products of the average rating of each of the responding attractiveness attributes that respondents from each country of origin believe the region possesses (A_i) and the average importance of each attribute (I_i). These results are demonstrated in Table 21. For example, the summed score of 106.45 shown in the table for Japan was derived from the following computations: $(4.11 \times 4.03) + (4.10 \times 4.01) + (3.75 \times 3.84) + (3.72 \times 3.60) + (3.64 \times 3.54) + (3.45 \times 3.53) + (3.10 \times 3.44) + (2.94 \times 3.38)$. Similarly, the summed score of 104 for the United States was arrived at by the following calculations: $(4.00 \times 3.80) + (3.88 \times 3.61) + (3.87 \times 3.58) + (3.83 \times 3.50) + \dots +$

(3.10 × 3.25). The first figure in each parenthesis is obtained from Table 11(A_i) and the second figure from Table 16 (I_i). The outcomes of the computations are shown in Table 21. Based on the summed score as illustrated in the table, the highest summed score (106.45) for Japan has the top rank of derived ‘overall’ or ‘global’ attractiveness of 1. The next highest score is that of the United States (104), followed by the summed scores of France (101.60), Germany (100.24), and United Kingdom (100). The lowest score belongs to Taiwan (94.10).

Table 21: Summed Score ($\sum_{i=1}^n A_i I_i$) of Overall Attractiveness for Each Country and Ranking

Country Origin	of	$\sum_{i=1}^n A_i I_i$ (or Summed Score)	Derived Overall Attractiveness Rank (highest = best = 1)
Japan		106.45*	1
The United States		104	2
France		101.60	3
Germany		100.24	4
United Kingdom		100	5
Taiwan		94.10	6

***Example Computation** of summed score for Japan (using A_i scored attributes in Table 11 and I_i for Japan’s scored attributes in Table 16) = 106.45 derived from $(4.11 \times 4.03) + (4.10 \times 4.01) + (3.75 \times 3.84) + (3.72 \times 3.60) + (3.64 \times 3.54) + (3.45 \times 3.53) + (3.10 \times 3.44) + (2.94 \times 3.38)$

7.2.2 Test of Hypothesis and Discussions

To resolve Research Question 4, which states “What is the relationship between tourists’ perceived overall attractiveness and the intention to revisit the destination?”

Hypothesis 3: “Higher preferred perceived global or the overall destination

attractiveness will be positively related to the intention to revisit the destination” has been tested. Since we are dealing with ranked data (that is, the ‘Yes –No’ response to the intention to revisit Chiang Mai for the next vacation in Part III of the questionnaire), the Spearman’s rho nonparametric correlation was used to test the hypothesis. As a result, $r_s = -.115$ implies a very small negative correlation which is statistically significant at $\alpha < .01$, but the magnitude of the correlation is so small that it has little predictive significance. In order to confirm the finding, the differences between the mean scores for the six countries, ANOVA, and a Scheffé Post-Hoc Multiple Comparison were utilised. The result indicates that only the mean ratings for Japan were significantly different from each of the remaining countries with the mean difference significant at $< .05$ level.

As illustrated in Table 11, it appears that the score for Japan is in the highest rank for attractiveness compared to other nation counterparts. This finding is partly consistent with Rittichainuwat et al. (2001) in that those traveller from Japan are satisfied with their trip to Thailand. Moreover, the majority of the respondents of Rittichainuwat et al.’s study indicated that they would return to Thailand and would recommend Thailand to their friends and relatives.

The factors that contribute to the more favourable ratings by tourists from Japan may derive from the close proximity between Japan and Thailand, compared to other Western countries. As stated by Choi and Chu (2000), that the demand for more short-haul tourist destinations from the Asian tourism markets would dramatically increase. Additionally, the exchange rate of the Yen, which is stronger than the Baht currency is perhaps another incentive for Japanese travellers to visit Thailand. This

assumption is supported by Rittichainuwat et al. (2001) who report a significant positive relationship between good value and a return visit. Another factor that may influence the more favourable ratings from Japanese tourists is the positive image of the destination. This might be attributable to the Amazing Thailand campaigns of 1998, 1999, and 2000 which has been successful in capturing Thailand's strengths and in reinforcing the nation's organic reputation as good value for money and as a cultural and scenic travel destination (TAT, 2001).

However, it is of interest to note that visitors from Taiwan, which is an Asian counterpart of Japan, gave the lowest ratings. This may result from the negative reactions to certain social and environmental problems in Thailand, such as environmental degradation, traffic jams, pollution, and prostitution (Rittichainuwat et al. 2001).

As discussed above, the findings of this present study are similar to previous research reports indicating that perceptions of tourism products and services play an important part in an individual's choice (or nonchoice) of that destination product or service (Goodrich, 1978). In addition, this study appears to support the theory that the more favourable the perception of a vacation destination, the greater the likelihood that a tourist will choose that destination over other less favourably perceived attractive destinations (Goodrich, 1978; Mayo, 1973).

7.3 ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TOURISTS' PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL CHARACTERISTICS

7.3.1 Results

This section focuses on Research Question 5, which states: 'What is the relationship between perceived importance of destination attributes and tourists' internal and external characteristics in terms of travel motivation, travel purpose, gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size?' Pearson's Chi-square was utilised to investigate the relationship between the perceived importance of destination attributes and the nine tourist characteristics or variables of travel motivation, travel purpose, gender, age, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size. The results indicating the overall significant relationships between variables are shown in Table 22. It is important to understand these relationships because it helps to identify the direction for possible market segmentation and would suggest specific courses of marketing action that tourism organisations and involved personnel can take to attract particular targeted travellers.

As seen in Table 22, some sociodemographic factors are significantly related to the perceived importance of destination attributes. The significant relationship implies that perceptions or preferences in terms of a destination are characteristics vary according to a tourist's internal and external attributes. For those values showing details in both significant and non-significant relationship between variables have been indicated in Appendix G.

Table 22: Relationship between Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes and Tourists' Travel Motivation, Travel Purpose, and Socio demographics*

Variables	df	Natural Factors		Cultural Features		Recreation and Shopping Facilities		Infrastructure		Accessibility		Reception		Services		Cost/Price	
		χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p
Travel Motivation	8					21.340	.006	16.776	.033							18.665	.017
Travel Purpose	8			16.592	.035											19.395	.013
Gender	2							10.992	.004			20.554	.000				
Age Group	12													30.676	.002		
Education Level	14			37.229	.001					23.947	.047	24.841	.036	24.541	.039	28.979	.011
Occupation	6											18.679	.005				
Income	12	22.027	.037														
Marital Status	6	13.631	.034							16.925	.010	23.896	.001				
Family Size	6									15.524	.017						

• Blank cells indicate non-significant relationship between variables. Details representing the values have been presented in Appendix G

7.3.2 *Test of Hypotheses and Discussions*

In examining the relationship between tourists' perception of the importance of destination attributes and their internal and external characteristics, several hypotheses (Hypothesis 4.1 to 4.9) were tested.

7.3.2.1 Hypothesis 4.1

According to Table 22, there are significant relationships between travel motivation and the attributes 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities' ($x^2 = 21.340$, $df = 8$, $p = .006$), 'and 'Infrastructure' ($x^2 = 16.776$, $df = 8$, $p = .033$), and 'Cost/Price' ($x^2 = 18.665$, $df = 8$, $p = .017$).

A further analysis of the results indicates that tourists who have a 'higher motivational level' (Pearce, 1993), ie. they are more interested in cultural experiences, appear to show greater interest in 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' and 'Cost/Price' than tourists who have a lower motivational level. Hence, the hypothesised assumption, which stated that tourists with 'a higher travel motivational level' are more likely to rate 'Natural Factors' and 'Cultural Features' more importantly, whereas those in lower level would more likely place greater importance on superstructure (ie. infrastructure, facilities, accessibility, reception, and services) or secondary tourism products, is rejected.

From the analysis results, it appears that certain characteristics of tourists have influence on the perceived importance of destination attributes. For the variable

travel motivation, the respondents in higher levels of the travel motivation ladder (ie. 'Cultural Experience') tend to place more importance on 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' and 'Cost/Price' than those who have a lower motivational level. This is in contrast to the hypothesised assumption. Thus, it appears that, while 'higher motivational level' tourists come to a country for cultural experiences they do also feel that the 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' and 'Cost/Price' factors that allow their basic needs to be of a high level for them to delve into cultural pursuits important.

According to Pearce's (1988, 1993) 'Travel Career Ladder,' which is grounded in Maslow's work, choice of destination and tourist roles may be influenced by previous tourism experience. He claims that more experienced tourist seeks to satisfy higher order needs such as affiliation and esteem, while less experienced ones are more likely to be occupied with lower order needs such as food and safety. Unfortunately, the present study does not engage with tourists' past experiences. Thus, the accurate conclusion of the inverse relationship between tourist's travel motivation and the perceived importance of destination attributes cannot be based on tourists' past experiences. However, Pearce (1993) argues that tourists at a certain stage in their 'Travel Career' seek different travel experiences and select particular forms of travel and types of destinations.

By using the five steps in the 'Travel career' to explain tourists' motivation, this study found that the psychological profile of international tourists from the six country of origin was 'Cultural Experience.' Tourists consider it as the most

important motivational factor when deciding to travel to Chiang Mai. This accords with Kim and Lee's (2000) investigation. The authors evaluated the destination based on 'Travel Career Ladder,' the demographic and psychological profiles of Japanese visitors to Australia and the Great Barrier reef (GBR) region and tourists' perceptions of their travel experiences in the GBR region. The results suggest that Japanese visitors' motivational factors are 'Experiencing Excitement' and 'Cultural Experience.'

However, Kim, Pearce, Morrison and O'Leary (1996) found that the relationship between some demographics such as age and experience did not seem to support the concept of the 'Travel Career Ladder.' Perhaps the relationship between lifestyle, motivation, and preference for certain types of tourism mediate the idea of travel career more than previously thought (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002). In addition, Ryan (1998), in a study of 997 British tourists, found that age was an influential variable in explaining the relationship between motivation, past experience, and choice of holiday. These findings support Pearce's (1993) suggestion that motivational theory should be conceptualised as a dynamic process and should be flexible enough to account for individual changes across the lifespan, hence the concept of a 'Travel Career':

'Like a career at work people may start at different levels, they are likely to change levels during their life-cycle and they can be prevented from moving by money, health or other people. They may also retire from their travel career or not take holidays at all and therefore not be a part of the system (Pearce, 1993, p. 121).

Although Pearce's work makes specific reference to theme parks, it may also be adapted to general pleasure travel. The basic points are that travel patterns change including the tourist's own perceptions as the individual moves through her/his life-span and/or family life cycle, and in that tourism destination preference and patterns vary according to internal and external characteristics and personal barriers. These influence annual tourism decisions and the perceived importance of destination attributes.

7.3.2.2 Hypothesis 4.2

For the travel purpose variable, there are significant relationships between travel purpose and perceptions of two attributes, that is, 'Cultural Features' ($\chi^2 = 16.592$, $df = 8$, $p = .035$), and 'Cost/Price' ($\chi^2 = 19.395$, $df = 8$, $p = .013$).

A closer analysis of the data suggests that all people who travel to the region are interested in leisure activities (ie, recreation, holiday, sports, etc.), but only those who travelled for educational experiences and business purposes placed moderate and high importance on the 'Cultural Features' attribute. In terms of value for money, people who gave the attribute 'Cost/Price' a high level of importance felt that their visit to the region was well worth it, whereas those who thought this attribute less important indicated an average assessment of value for money. No other significant relationships were found for the variable travel purpose. Thus, the data indicate that Hypothesis 4.2 assuming that the perceptions of attribute importance of destination would be influenced by the nature of the individuals' travel purpose, is partially accepted.

With regard to the travel purpose variable, it seems that people who travel to Chiang Mai for educational experiences and business purposes consider 'Cultural Features' as of moderate to high level importance. This finding is supported by Hu and Ritchie's (1993) measurement of the destination attractiveness of Hawaii, Australia, Greece, France, and China. They found that tourists who came to the regions for the purpose of an educational vacation experience rated culture-related attributes as the most important, that is, the 'Uniqueness of the local people's way of life,' 'Historical attractions,' 'Scenery,' and 'Local people's attitudes toward tourists.' In a comparative study of Thailand and thirty-two selected countries conducted by Tang and Rochananond (1990), Thailand was considered one of the most attractive destinations occurring within the top five countries. The most important attributes included 'Natural Beauty and Climate,' 'Culture and Social Characteristics,' 'Cost of Living,' and 'Attitudes Towards Tourists.' These results are consistent with Rittichainuwat et al. (2001). In their attempt to identify Thailand's travel image from 510 international tourists perspectives, 'Beautiful architecture and buildings,' 'Interesting customs and culture image,' and 'Numerous cultural and historical attractions' were ranked of highest important among the thirty-one selected attributes. Thus, this present study result supports the previous findings in that the international tourists placed 'Cultural Features' attribute very important but in the second highest rank of importance after the 'Cost/Price' attribute.

In this study, a significant difference was found between travel purpose and the attribute 'Cost/Price.' Tourists who gave high level importance to this attribute felt that their vacation experiences gave value for money for food, accommodation, and transportation, while people who thought of this less importance gave an average assessment of the value for money.

It is not surprising to find that tourists gave high importance in this attribute as Baldwin and Brodess (1993) claim that the demand for more short-haul tourist destinations of reasonable cost would be the dynamic growth of tourism market in the future. A study of the levels of satisfaction among Asian and Western travellers on the awareness of value for money conducted by Choi and Chu (2000) found that Asian tourists are more likely to be aware of value for money on hotel rooms, food and beverages, the ambience and the reputation of hotels compared to their Western counterparts. In addition, in investigating the image attributes of overseas tourist destinations that affect Korean tourist choice behaviours of trip planning, time frame, budgeted travel costs, and length of trip, Choi and Chu (2000) found that 'Low travel cost,' was significantly related to tourists' planning time frames. This implies that cost is one of the major barriers to travel. Indeed, they found that those who perceived the travel cost of a destination as low tended to make their decisions less than two months in advance.

Rittichainuwat et al.(2001) also found that international tourists considered a trip to Thailand worth the money that they paid for tourism products and services and placed the importance of this attribute in the fourth level after the three attributes

relevant to cultural aspects. This suggests that Thailand's low travel cost image could help entice international tourists. Hence, we may say that, according to previous studies and the present study show the trends indicating tourists' attitudes in viewing 'Cost/Price' as the most important factor when deciding to travel to a destination. In other words, the international tourists are likely to be more price sensitive.

7.3.2.3 Hypothesis 4.3

With regard to tourist's gender, the results show significant differences in the perceived importance of two attributes. They are 'Infrastructure' ($\chi^2 = 10.992$, $df = 2$, $p = .004$), and 'Reception' ($\chi^2 = 20.554$, $df = 2$, $p = .000$).

When looking closer at the data, it appears that male tourists tend to give more importance to the attribute 'Infrastructure' (ie. the quality and availability of transportation and accommodation) than female counterparts. However, for the attribute 'Reception' (ie. information centres, interpretation and language services, pedestrian signposts and displayed maps, tour local guides, and tour operators, and community attitude toward tourists), female tourists are likely to consider this attribute as of medium to high level importance, whereas their male counterparts considered 'Reception' low to medium level. It is interesting to note that twice the number of males (29.5%) compared to the females (14.7%), rated 'Reception' in the lowest category of importance. Subsequently, Hypothesis 4.3 stating that the perceived importance of destination attributes would differ in relation to tourists' gender is partially supported.

The results of this study indicate that male and female tourists seem to accord importance to 'Infrastructure' and 'Reception' differently. Indeed, male tourists perceived the importance of 'Infrastructure' higher than their female counterparts whereas female travellers tended to give more importance to 'Reception.' In fact, twice number of male tourists scored, compared to their female counterparts, 'Reception' at the lowest rank of importance. This supports the study of Hsieh et al. (1994), who found that package travellers tend to be females who like to travel with relatives and friends in small parties for comfort and to well-developed resorts. They prefer escorted tours. Also, this present study finding appears to be consistent with a study conducted by Hsu, Kang, and Wolfe (2002) who investigated the interest levels of leisure travellers in various tourism niches and identified the demographic and psychographic characteristics of individuals interested in those niches. By using MANOVAS to identify differences in interests among various demographic groups, they found that women were more likely to be pampered than male tourists. The preference of 'Reception' of female tourists may derive from the development in a strong sex role identification which leads them to acquire and display various traits, attitudes, and behaviour expected of their gender (Croese, 1997). As Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) suggest that differences in tourist role preference among men and women may result from the societal expectations related to the appropriateness of different vacation behaviours. In their exemplifying, women in early adulthood (20s to 30s) are more likely to become 'Anthropologists' than men while on vacation. That is, women tend to be socialised, to be much more relationship-oriented than men who, are taught the

values of individualism and self-reliance.

Additionally, Lehto, O’Leary and Lee (2001) studied differences within the older travel group with respect to travel product preferences and benefits sought between males and females and found the differences in the way elder male tourists and their female counterparts view importance of the destination attributes and travel preferences. Female were more likely to value social communicative aspects of travel benefits, while males were more likely to give importance in ‘functional, instrumental aspects of travel benefits,’ (p. 69). Research in lesiure about traditional gender-role differences (Kruause, 1988; Szinovacz, 1992) showed that females tend to be more sensitive to safety aspects and opportunities to socialise and interact with people that travel brings them than their male counterparts. Older male tourists appear to prefer instrumental measures on travel benefits such as pursuing health and fitness through outdoor recreation type of activities such as golfing, fishing, hiking, etc. These findings of gender role differences may underline the findings on the differences in travel behaviours and preferences in this present study in that female tourists view communication and relationship (‘Reception’) more important than their male counterparts.

7.3.2.4 Hypothesis 4.4

For the age factor, the different age groups of tourists affected the perceived importance of only attribute ‘Services’ ($\chi^2 = 30.676$, $df=12$, $p = .002$). The main groups who visited the region were between 25-34 years old (37%), 35 - 44 (17.90%) and 45 - 54 (17%).

The result shows that younger people (under 25) and older visitors (35 and more) consider the attribute 'Services' (ie. 'Bank/Cash Machine and Currency Exchange,' 'Police/Security,' 'Medical/Health Services,' 'Communication,' 'Energy/Water Supply and Sewerage Services') important at the medium to high level. However, persons in the 25 to 34 age groups rated 'Services' as of low to medium level of importance. Consequently, Hypothesis 4.4 assuming that tourists' age would influence the perceived importance of destination attributes is partially accepted.

As with gender, age becomes a proxy variable for segmenting consumers into groups of individuals that share common values, attitudes, and preferences (Noble & Schewe, 2002). As Mieczkowski (1990, p.157) states that 'One of the most important demographic variables influencing demand is age and the stage in the lifecycle ... the age structure of the population and its changes are of vital interest to tourism and recreation planner.' Recognising the importance of this market in accounting for travel and tourism revenues, several research have compared the older visitor segment with other age segments and identified significant differences between the younger and older groups in their travel style, product preferences and trip characteristics (Eby & Molnar, 2001; Harssel, 1997; Javalgi, Thomas, & Rao, 1992; Master & Prideaux, 2000; Romsa & Blenman, 1989; Ryan, 1995).

Harssel (1997), for example, discovered that older travellers tended to rely on the advice of travel professionals. They seemed to have a strong tendency to choose

travelling in groups. The main motives for travel among this group appeared to be meeting new people and seeing new things. Romsa and Blenman (1989) investigated the influence of environmental and motivational factors on travel participation among four different age groups and found similar patterns in travel motivations between the groups. Senior travellers, however, tended to be influenced more by environmental factors such as weather than younger age groups. In addition, Master and Prideaux (2000) examined the influence of tourists' age and determination of the importance or satisfaction of tourists found variation between the various age groups for importance and satisfaction levels. The authors suggest that the tourists aged 40 or more rated cultural attributes more important than the younger counterparts. More recently, Eby and Molnar (2001) studied the importance of numerous factors in choosing a destination and trip satisfaction between young and old United States tourists found social interaction, education and health as the main travel motivations for older age groups whereas relaxation, business and adventure/exploration were found in younger counterparts. The results for both age groups in choosing the destination (pull factors) for their trip also showed that accessibility, accommodations, scenery, safety, food/restaurants, and climate/weather were given the highest importance ratings. However, older tourists were likely to be more concerned about safety than their younger counterparts

In agreement with the other study findings, the present study found that younger tourists who were aged under 25 and older counterparts who were 35 and more view 'Services' as more important than did in the 25 – 34 age group. This may

result from younger people, who have just started their 'Travel Career Ladder' or travel abroad, are probably lack of experience, confidence and the absence of security. As a result, they may rely more on the services of the host regions. For the older tourists, although they appear to be 'experienced' travellers, they may still prefer special care and/or supervision or other personal assistance. This older age group would also enjoy the benefits of a more affluent lifestyle at home, and would therefore expect access to similar services when on vacation. Therefore, the expectation of affluent and good quality of services in the host countries remains very important to them. Also, the result may emerge from the fact that when people begin to experience physical and mental declines they begin to feel more vulnerable. This vulnerability is reflected in mature tourists' greater concern for safety and services. As Dann (2001) pointed out that while their activity participation rates may decline with age, and may not be disposed to long stays, for the older age tourists, even the actual journey or destination may be less important than those who care for them.

As for the younger travellers who were in the age group of 25-34, their lowest rating for 'Services' may derive from their focusing on activity participation at the destination rather than service. Indeed, tourist in this age group may focus their interests in the more active pastimes -- outdoor recreational activities and the nightlife entertainment. Accordingly, the result of this present study supports Levinson's (1996) suggestion of the first stages of early adulthood which he characterised as the 'Action Seeker,' 'the Drifter,' the 'Thriller Seeker,' and the 'Explorer' tourist role preference patterns. According to Levinson, the tourists in

these categories have a desire for exploration, adventure, experimentation, and a lack of commitment to any one option. Similarly to Levinson, in investigating the relationship between interest levels of leisure travellers in various tourism niches and the demographic and psychographic characteristics of individuals in those niches, Hsu, et al. (2002) suggest that 'Outdoor recreational sites' attract the younger respondents while 'Pioneer and frontier history sites' are enjoyed more by the middle aged.

However, it may be of interest to note that research in gerontographics has clearly stated that older consumers are heterogeneous and there have been a wide variety factors that may explain various types of consumer behaviour observed in later life (Moschis, 1997). Such heterogeneity in this age group was found in Shoemaker's (1989) study the senior Pennsylvania residents into three groups. The first group was the short trip takers who tended to return to the same destinations rather than exploring the new places. The second group was called the active 'resters' who regarded travel as an opportunity for socialisation. The third group was the older set, who preferred to take arranged and physically non-challenging trips.

In addition, in the study of age and cohort effects, You and O'Leary (2000) found that senior visitors from different generation cohorts differed in terms of travel propensity, destination activity participation and travel philosophy. In their comparison of the older travel market 10 years ago, the data showed that the older travel market was becoming more active as revealed by the higher percentage of people who travelled today and the wider variety of destination activities they

currently participated in. In the same study, the authors found that cultural factors and ethnicity also accounted for some of the variation within the mature traveller market when they compared travel push and pull factors between older visitors from the United Kingdom and their Japanese counterparts.

7.3.2.5 Hypothesis 4.5

As for the influence of education level on tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes, the results show several significant relationships between the variables. Specifically, a Chi-square analysis results indicate that the attributes influenced by tourists' education level are 'Cultural Features' ($\chi^2 = 37.229$, $df=14$, $p = .001$), 'Accessibility' ($\chi^2 = 23.947$, $df =14$, $p = .047$), 'Reception' ($\chi^2 = 24.841$, $df =14$, $p = .036$), 'Services' ($\chi^2 = 24.541$, $df =14$, $p = .039$), and 'Cost/Price' ($\chi^2 = 28.979$, $df=14$, $p = .011$).

However, since education level and each of the attributes affected are scored in a rank order, an examination of the relationship between education level and each of the attributes was carried out using Spearman's Coefficient of Rank Correlation. These results indicate a small but significant negative correlation between the level of education and each of the attributes. This is a rather surprising result in that the higher the level of education, the lower the rank of importance given to each of the attributes. However, the size of the correlation coefficients is very low ranging from $-.053$ to $-.139$, indicating that the amount of variance explained by education for each of the attributes is less than 2%, suggesting that many other factors are involved in rating the importance of each of the attributes besides the level of

education. As a result, Hypothesis 4.5 stating that education level of tourists would affect the perceived importance of destination attributes is partially accepted.

Although the Chi-square analysis results indicate significant differences between education level and tourists' perceptions of certain destination attributes (ie. 'Cultural Features,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' and 'Services'), the results from Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficients show only small negative correlations between the variables. The results, therefore, do not conform to some previous studies. For example, Hsu et al. (2002) found that 'Art and cultural attractions' were more important to the well educated, whereas the less educated took more pleasure in agricultural sites. According to Sung, Morrison, Hong and O'Leary (2001), the effect of education on trip types was not evident until the college graduation level was reached. People who had completed a college education were more likely to visit friends or relatives, but less likely to take day trips or to travel for recreational purposes than were high school graduates. Similarly, people who had more advanced college education were more likely to be 'Visiting Friends/Relatives' but less likely to be recreational travellers.

In addition, Rittichainuwat et al. (2002) in their investigating the influence of tourist demographics on travel satisfaction found that visitors who had a graduate and postgraduate degree appeared to be more satisfied with 'Shopping and Tourist Attraction,' than those with a college and university degree. Also, travellers with graduate or postgraduate degrees were found more satisfied with 'Foods' than those with secondary/high school degrees. From the present study, it may be

concluded that education level alone is not an effective factor in the perceived importance of destination attributes.

7.3.2.6 Hypothesis 4.6

Based on the results for the relationship between tourists' occupation and perceived importance of destination attribute, a significant difference was shown on the attribute 'Reception' ($\chi^2 = 18.679$, $df=6$, $p = .005$). A closer analysis shows similar ratings of the white-collar visitors and the unemployed with medium to high level of importance given to 'Reception' by white-collar visitors, whereas those who are unemployed and visitors who do not have regular income (ie. students) rated 'Reception' attribute in the low to medium category of importance. This means that hypothesised assumption (H 4.6) assuming that tourists' occupation has an influence on the perceptions of attribute importance is partially supported.

In relation to tourists' occupations, the dominant group of respondents, white-collar (58%), gave more importance to the attribute 'Reception' whereas the unemployed (22%) and those who were categorised into the 'Other' category of occupation (ie. student, housewife) considered this attribute less important. This may reflect the white-collar type of accommodation and this supports the finding of Baloglu (1997). The author found that among the four trip characteristics (ie: 'Adventure, nature and resort,' 'Urban entertainment,' 'Budget and value,' 'History and culture,' 'Friendly environment,' and 'Active outdoor sport'), the variable occupation had a significant influence on 'Budget and value'. Professional

groups, in particular, perceived the U.S.A. more negatively than the retired group but retired travellers perceived it slightly better than other overseas destinations.

However, Masterson and Verhoven (1995) also sought to investigate the influence of employment status on the visitors' preference of 'soft amenities' (ie. golf, fishing, reading, walking, and shopping). They found that those tourists' employment status, to which refers full-time, part-time, unemployed or retired status, had no significant impact on attribute preferences, except for retired visitors' who preferred sightseeing more than persons in other employment categories. In the investigation of Taiwanese tourist's cultural and vacation satisfaction toward South East Queensland, Master and Prideaux (2000) found that various occupation groups had significantly importance and satisfaction level. Tourists who were categorised in the 'home duties,' compared to other groups placed importance on availability of Taiwanese 'speaking staff,' whereas 'students,' 'professional/technical,' 'owner/manager,' and 'clerk/sales person' had the highest scores of satisfaction. With regard to 'shopping hours,' it appears that the 'retired/unemployed' category viewed shopping after 5 p.m. to be less important.

7.3.2.7 Hypothesis 4.7

In respect to the factor income, the result shows a significant relationship between tourists' income and the perceived importance of the destination attribute 'Natural Factors' ($\chi^2 = 22.027, df=12, p = .037$).

The results indicate that people with higher incomes assess the importance of 'Natural Factors' more highly than those who have lower incomes. This implies that Hypothesis 4.7 assuming that perceptions of the importance of destination attributes would be influenced by tourists' income is partially accepted.

With regard to the variable income, the present study found that people who have higher incomes rated 'Natural Factors' more important than those who have lower incomes. Gladwell (1990) classified the socioeconomics of visitors to the State Park Inn of Indiana (USA) into three categories: 'Knowledgeable Travelers,' 'Budget-Conscious Travelers,' and 'Travel Planner' and found that those who had lower incomes namely the 'Budget-Conscious Travelers' had less interest in the arts and in widening their horizons, whereas the other two groups with higher incomes preferred the arts and had greater concerns about natural environments. Level of income is usually positively associated with tourism participation. For example, lower income individuals or households tend to travel less for tourism purposes than the higher income individuals or households for they cannot afford travel products and services in more exotic destinations (Boo, 1990). This supports the present study in that not only do the higher income households have more potential to travel abroad but they tend to be more concerned about 'Natural Factors' and/or the sustainability of natural environment as well.

As Pearce's (1993) travel career ladders suggest that travel patterns can be changed when the individual moves through her/his life-span and/or family life cycle. When his/her family life cycle is at the well-off financial security (in this sense higher income), their travel career needs may also develop from the basic stage such as

safety and comforts to the higher level or high values for the fulfilment stages. In this case, 'Natural Factors,' which include 'Natural Beauty,' 'Water,' 'Climate,' 'Wildlife,' and 'Vegetation,' were such high values for their attainment. Also, in the travellers' senses, 'Natural Factors' may be related to the environment including nice parks, green avenues, mountains, etc. that have intrinsic excitement for all humans from which any cultures they have been constituted. Moreover, the global trends in recognition of the importance of environment preservation that they all share may also be responsible for their placing high values in destination attribute 'Natural Factors.'

7.3.2.8 Hypothesis 4.8

For tourist's marital status, the results of the test show significant relationships between that variable and perceived importance of some destination attributes namely 'Natural Features' ($x^2 = 13.631$, $df = 6$, $p = .034$), 'Accessibility' ($x^2 = 16.925$, $df = 6$, $p = .010$), and 'Reception' ($x^2 = 23.896$, $df = 6$, $p = .001$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4.8, assuming that tourists' marital status would affect the perceived importance of destination attributes is also partially accepted.

The results of this study indicate that tourists who are married are likely to place 'Natural Factors' on a higher level of importance than those who were single or never married. Also, married people also appear to consider attributes 'Accessibility,' and 'Reception,' more important than those who were single or never married. This finding is confirmed by Hsieh et al (1994), who found that married people tend to prefer escorted tour arrangements. They are more likely to favour comfort and well-developed resorts. In addition, Morrison et al. (1994)

investigated a profile of the travel arrangements of travellers from France, Germany, and UK. They found that married tourists tended to favour package travel arrangements. According to the authors, those who prefer non-escorted trips concentrated more on outdoor sports and entertainment.

In addition, Rittichainuwat et al. (2002) found the relationship between tourist's satisfaction with Thailand and marital status. They found married travellers appear to be more satisfied with 'lodging and restaurant,' 'shopping and tourist attractions,' 'transportation,' and 'environment and safety' than unmarried visitors. This may derive from many married travellers are probably on their honeymoon or wedding anniversary trips, correspondingly, they are likely to be more concerned with an impressive experience. The destination attributes such as 'Natural Factors,' 'Accessibility,' and 'Reception,' are therefore considered important parts of their expecting impressive experience. Thus, we may say that married people are generally expected to be more concerned about 'Natural Factors,' 'Accessibility,' and 'Reception' than those who were single. As a matter of fact, people who were unmarried tend to be engaged more in active and entertaining recreation activities.

7.3.2.9 Hypothesis 4.9

As with marital status, family size was also assumed to influence perceived importance of destination attributes. Based on Table 22, the chi-square result shows a significant relationship between tourists' family size and perceived importance of 'Accessibility' ($\chi^2 = 15.524$, $df = 6$, $p = .017$). More specifically, tourists who have children (under 18 years of age) in their household are likely to

perceive the importance of this attribute as of medium and higher level, whereas those without children gave it a rating from low to medium. As a result, Hypothesis 4.9 stating that the perceived importance of destination attributes will differ in relation to tourists' family size is partially supported.

Correspondingly, the findings of this present study in that people with dependent children place the importance of destination attribute 'Accessibility,' which includes 'Physical distance to vacation destination' and 'Time involved in reaching the vacation destination' is supported by the study of Hsu, Kang and Wolfe, (2002). The previous study found that respondents with children under 18 years of age were more exploratory and child centred and interested in 'Outdoor recreation and fairs and festivals.' If so, the parents should ideally consider the means and convenience to reach the tourist sites as the most important in their destination choice.

In investigating Hong Kong residents' perceived importance of destination attributes and sociodemographic variables, Mok et al. (1995) found significant relationships between family life cycle and previous experience and the perceived importance of destination attributes. According to Bojanic (1992), family life cycle refers to an individual's consumption patterns as they marry, have children, and as their discretionary income varies. More specifically, there are five stages that the average individuals pass as through as their ages. They include 'bachelor, newly married, full nest, empty nest, and solitary survivor still in the labor force.' These stages are presumed to offer the best potential for marketers of discretionary items, such as travel, because of discretionary income at its highest. This may explain the

present study finding of the relationship between the relationship between the perceived importance of destination attributes and family size. The results show that tourists who have dependent children (under the age of 18 years) seem to rate 'Accessibility' more importantly than those who do not have children. Based on Bajanic's (1992) family life cycle concept, people who have the care of children (full nest) are more likely to be concerned about the physical distance to the vacation sites and the time involved in reaching the destinations as travelling with small children can be difficult and expensive. Thus, the presence of children has an important role in leisure and tourism participation. As Thornton, Shaw, and Williams (1997) noted, the influence of children on making decisions in purchasing tourism products for family vacations could be recognised in terms of the children's ability to negotiate with parents and the concerns of safety and convenience at the destination.

7.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter has focused on the analysis results and discussion of the findings. The overall attractiveness of the destination and the relationship between tourists' perceived attractiveness and the intention to revisit the region has been presented. The data indicating the significant differences in tourists' perceived importance of the destination attributes as well as the relationship between their perceived importance attributes and their personal characteristics in terms of travel motivation, travel purpose, age, gender, education level, occupation, income, marital status, and family size are included.

In addition to all these, the implications, recommendations, summary and the conclusion of the study are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

8.0 INTRODUCTION

This thesis aimed to make an original contribution to the knowledge of destination attractiveness by examining in some identified gaps in the destination attractiveness literature. By applying a multi-attribute Fishbein model within a localised area, the overall goal of this study has been to examine international tourists' perceived attractiveness of a tourist destination from six countries of origin and to determine the relative importance of attributes which influence the overall attractiveness of the destination. Chiang Mai Province, Thailand was selected as the study location. The participants included 614 international tourists from the six countries of residence, that is, France, Taiwan, the United Kingdom, Germany, the United States, and Japan who visited the region during 1-30 April 2001. The relationship between the perceived attractiveness and the likelihood to revisit the region, and the relationship between perceived importance of destination attributes and the tourists' characteristics were investigated.

This chapter provides a summary of the key findings of the study. The implications and recommendations arising from the analysis and suggested future research associated with this work is also presented.

8.1 SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT FINDINGS

The summary of significant findings is divided into two sections, reflecting the major issues of the research study. The first section includes the investigation of tourists' perceived overall attractiveness of Chiang Mai and the relationship with the likelihood of repeat visitation (8.1.1). The second section presents an examination of the tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes for Chiang Mai and the relationship with their internal and external characteristics (8.1.2).

8.1.1 An Investigation of Tourists' Perceived *Overall Attractiveness* of Chiang Mai Province and Its Relationship with the Likelihood to Revisit the Region

The outcomes of the investigation of tourists' perception about the overall attractiveness of Chiang Mai Province are found as follows:

8.1.1.1 Japanese and Western tourists gave high ratings to all attractiveness features of Chiang Mai Province.

8.1.1.2 Only the visitors from Taiwan rated the attractiveness features as very low.

As discussed in Chapter 6, this difference may be due to the greater diversity of Taiwanese cultural backgrounds, which was significantly differentiated from those of the American, European, and Japanese cultures. This might result in certain taste and travel style differences. Additionally, tight schedules of packaged tours might also have had impacts on Taiwanese tourists' perceptions with the results that they could not fully appreciate the services provided, and the individual expectations could not be met.

In the case of Japan and the Western countries (that is, the United States, France, German, and United Kingdom), they appear to be very satisfied with the quality of services, infrastructure, accessibility of natural and cultural features as well as recreation and shopping facilities promised in the promotional materials. However, visitors from Taiwan may have had a higher expectation, but due to lower cost tour packages, their expectations appear not to have been fulfilled.

8.1.1.3 The most important features of Chiang Mai Province in terms of their attractiveness to overseas visitors are 'Cultural Features.' The features such as architectural and artistic features, historical and ancient ruins, carnivals and festivals, distinctive local features, religion and food seem to attract most tourists to the region. Also, 'Reception,' which includes information centres, interpretation and language services, pedestrian signposts, display maps, local tour guides and tour operators, and community attitudes towards tourists is likely to be a very attractive 'pull' to the Chiang Mai travellers. For the attribute 'Cost/Price,' visitors appear to have received value for the money they spent for accommodation, food and transports. Also, tourists from all study countries seem to view the 'Natural Factors' of Chiang Mai such as climate, water, wildlife, and vegetation, as being highly attractive.

It was of interest to note that 'Cultural Features,' 'Reception,' 'Cost/Price,' and 'Natural Factors' were rated as most attractive. The emergence of the attribute 'Cultural Features' as most attractive may derive from the city's 700-year-old heritage known as 'Lanna.' The influence of 'Lanna' culture can offer visitors the opportunity to experience outstanding religious architectural and artistic features, crafts, cuisine, dress, and traditional ceremonies as well as distinctive ethnic hill

tribes set around the ancient city of Chiang Mai. The tourists in their response to the open-ended question, particularly noted the 'Reception' attribute in regard to the friendliness of local people towards tourists. The highly ranked score in the attractiveness of 'Cost/Price' attribute implies that visitors are satisfied with the value for money they received on food, accommodation, and transportation. This may result from the strong currencies of tourists from the six countries, compared with the Thai baht. The weakened Thai baht is likely to support the travel and tourism promotion as exchange rates act as an incentive for inbound tourism and a disincentive for outbound tourism. In addition, as the region is located in a valley high above sea level and among a series of fold mountains, it has a rich 'pull' of natural factors such as natural beauty, climate, waterfalls, and a wide range of wildlife and vegetation to attract the international tourists to the region.

8.1.1.4 The least attractive attributes of Chiang Mai, as rated by the respondents from all six countries, are 'Infrastructure,' which included the quality and availability of different means of transportation and accommodation, closely followed by 'Accessibility.' This feature included the physical distance to, and the time involved in reaching the tourist attraction sites.

Of major concern is the generally very low ranking of 'Infrastructure' and 'Accessibility.' Specifically, the cause of low ranking in attractiveness of the two attributes was probably emerged from the poor quality of services and physical conditions of the accommodation and transportation, as reflected in tourists' complaints in the responses of the open-ended question in the questionnaire. The insufficiency of either accommodation or transport might have resulted from the

heavy demand on both accommodation and transportation during peak season in April, in Chiang Mai, when the Songkran Festival, the Thai New Year celebration, which is promoted as an annual regional mega-event is taking place.

8.1.1.5 With regard to the relationship between the overall attractiveness of the destination and the likelihood to revisit the region, the study found only a small negative correlation between the variable which suggests that the perceived overall attractiveness does not appear to predict the tourists' intention to repeat their visitation.

8.1.2 Examination of the Tourists' Perceived *Importance* of Destination Attributes and Its Relationship with Their Internal and External Characteristics

In terms of the importance of Chiang Mai Province's attributes, it is of interest that the following issues are identified:

8.1.2.1 Tourists from particular countries rated 'Cost/Price,' 'Cultural Features,' and 'Infrastructure,' as most important.

Of interest to note is that the mean ratings for two countries, that is, Japan and Taiwan were found to be significantly different from those of the other countries. The significant differences existed on three attributes: 'Cost/Price,' 'Cultural Features,' and 'Natural Factors.' Japanese tourists placed greater importance on such attributes than did the visitors from the other countries. However, for the two attributes 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility,' which were also found to be significantly different, tourists from Japan rated them as less important than did respondents from Taiwan. This implies that Japanese tourists did not seem to value 'Reception' and

'Accessibility' as being important to them, compared to their Taiwanese counterparts. This might derive from the stereotype and the cultural backgrounds of the two nations. Previous studies about tourists' behaviours notes that Taiwanese tourists tend to be more critical whereas the Japanese seem to be more polite and obedient to their leaders in the group tours.

According to the tourists, regardless of nationality, the 'Cost/Price' attribute is valued most important in their travel choice decision making. As discussed in Chapter 7 the tourists were currently more price sensitive. In the current global economic downturn, people tend to be aware of spending money particularly on luxurious things such as long-haul travel. More specifically, when they made a decision to travel to any region, they subsequently expect value for the money they spend on the services at the destination.

8.1.2.2 Among the eight importance attributes, 'Accessibility' which includes the distance to and time involved in reaching the tourist attraction sites was rated the least important, closely followed by 'Reception.' It is of value to note that 'Accessibility' and 'Reception' were rated least important when tourists from the six countries of origin made their destination choice. In the case of Japanese and Taiwanese tourists, the travel mode as tour groups or packaged tours, which are mainly organised, may result in the lower ratings for the two nations because there is no major concern in tourists' minds about the importance of these factors. However, despite 'Reception' being rated as low in importance, the actual ratings of how good the 'Reception' was (ie. attractive) is very high. This level of attractiveness could be

due to the fact that although not important to the respondents, they had received impressive services and well treated while on vacation by the host people.

Significant differences emerged between the importance mean scores for Taiwanese visitors and those from the other five countries. For the attributes 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility,' it was interesting to note that visitors from Taiwan rated such attributes higher than the other international tourists. In terms of specific attributes such as 'Cultural Features,' and 'Natural Factors,' it appears that people from Taiwan rated the two attributes lower than the tourists from Japan. Additionally, however, Taiwanese tourists, assigned greater importance to the attribute 'Services' than those from the United Kingdom.

In terms of the analysis of the difference of perceived importance of destination attributes among the two geographical regions – Western and Asian, on the eight destination attributes, significant differences existed on certain attributes such as 'Cost/Price,' 'Cultural Feature,' 'Services,' 'Natural Factors,' 'Reception,' and 'Accessibility.' When focusing on the difference in perception on the two primary tourism products, 'Natural Factors,' and 'Cultural Features,' it appears that tourists from Asian countries rated the two attributes higher than visitors from Western countries. Of the significant difference, such attributes received a much higher importance rating from Asian tourists than they did from Western tourists. Such differences were found to be statistically significant only on certain sub-attributes of each attribute such as the 'Value for Money Spent on Food,' 'Value for Money Spent on Transportation,' and 'Value for Money Spent on Lodging' in attribute 'Cost/Price.'

8.1.2.3 With respect to the relationship between tourists' perceived importance of destination attributes and their internal and external characteristics, it appears that tourists' travel motivation, travel purpose, and some socio-demographics factors such as gender, age, income, marital status, and family size have influences on the tourists' perceptions. The key findings are summarised as follows:

1) Travel Motivation

The tourists who were categorised in a higher level of the 'Travel Career Ladder' to be more interested in 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' and 'Cost/Price.' This implies that although tourists who were in 'a higher level of cultural experience seeking' category, they also want their basic needs such as 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Infrastructure,' and 'Cost/Price' to be met in order to contribute to their full enjoyment of their stay in the destination.

2) Travel Purpose

Tourists' travel purpose has an influence on the perceived importance of destination attributes 'Cultural Features,' and 'Cost/Price.' All people who travel to the region were interested in leisure activities (that is, recreation, holiday, sports). However, only those who travelled for educational experiences and business purpose placed moderate and high importance on the attribute 'Cultural Features.'

3) Tourist's Gender

The tourists' gender influenced both 'Infrastructure' and 'Reception.' Male tourists tended to give more importance to the 'Infrastructure' (that is, the quality and

availability of transportation' and accommodation) than female counterparts. However, for the attribute 'Reception' (that is, information centres, interpretation and language services, pedestrian signposts and displayed maps, tour local guides and tour operators, and community attitude towards tourists), female tourists were likely to consider the attribute at the medium to high level of importance whereas their male counterparts considered 'Reception' to be somewhat lower.

4) Tourist's Age

For the tourists' age characteristic, different age groups of tourists influenced the perceived importance of attribute 'Services,' such as bank/cash machine and currency exchange, police/security, medical/health services, communication, and energy/water supply and sewerage services. It seemed that younger people (under 25) and older visitors (35 and more) considered the attribute 'Services' important at the medium to high level. However, persons in the 25 to 34 age groups rated 'Services' at a lower level of importance.

5) Tourists' Income

In respect to the tourists' income, it appears that tourists with higher incomes regarded 'Natural Factors' having a higher in value than those with lower incomes.

6) Marital Status

For the tourists' marital status, there were influences on the destination attributes 'Natural Features,' 'Accessibility,' and 'Reception.' Married tourists were likely to give more importance to 'Natural Factors' than those who were single and never

married. In terms of 'Accessibility' and 'Reception' married people tended to perceive the importance of the attribute at the medium to higher level.

7) Family Size

The impact of tourists' family size was shown on the tourists' perceived importance of 'Accessibility.' Tourists who had children under the age of 18 years in their household were likely to perceive the importance of the attribute to be higher whereas those without children gave it a rating from low to medium.

8.2 IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations that have emerged from the results of this study have implications for marketing practice and tourism research perspectives.

8.2.1 Practical Implications

This section includes the practical implications for three main aspects, that is, marketing, general comments with specific focus on Japanese tourists, tourism research implication, and tourism theory.

8.2.1.1 Marketing

For the marketing perspective, it appears that this study has provided some empirical evidence of the perceptions of international tourists from the six selected countries to Chiang Mai on destination attributes in terms of its attractiveness and destination attribute importance. The findings are useful foundations upon which this destination region can develop segmentation strategies. They can also determine both the strengths and weaknesses of their respective destination attribute perceptions in attracting international inbound pleasure travellers, as well as presenting destination

marketing professionals with a framework for allocating marketing resources to segments of various levels of destination attribute attractiveness.

This research indicates that the attribute 'Cultural Features' is the most attractive of the region in attracting tourists to the destination, regardless of nationality. Chiang Mai evokes a positive set of awareness associated with its good reputation in reception and value for money. This was not surprising, as it is these very attributes that are emphasised by various media and that can be regarded as the province's competitive advantages.

Uysal and Hagan (1993) suggest that one particular reason for travelling to other countries is to seek different experiences or lifestyles that people cannot obtain from their usual environment. It is of great value to explore other cultures, learn about them, and to test cultural differences in tourism marketing contexts. This responds to a marketing approach where practitioners have to understand people's needs in order to better target and satisfy them. Promotional efforts can target specific demographic groups separately for the particular destination attributes and/or image to create a favourable impression of Chiang Mai Province.

Potential tourists to the area need to be made aware that it is an area worth spending time and money in. Subsequently, an interest in spending a holiday in Chiang Mai area needs to be generated through promotion. This interest must then be developed into a wish or desire, which must then lead to a decision to take a holiday in the area. In order to develop and implement a successful tourism strategy for the area, the targeted segments need to be reached with a promotional message and persuaded to

visit the Chiang Mai area. It is also clear that not only the tourist attractions have to be promoted but the area as a whole, since it is the surrounding countryside and villages which creates the most favourable impression in the minds of tourists who have visited the region. Promotion should therefore be particularly centred on the cultural aspects such as architectural and artistic features, historical and ancient ruins, carnivals and festivals, distinctive local features, religion, and food. If applicable, promotional materials should reinforce the positive by incorporating graphics that depict the peace and tranquillity of the area, photos of pristine natural areas undoubtedly would enhance this image. Furthermore, including testimonials from international tourists describing their positive experiences whilst visiting the area, would also be effective. Importantly, however, what is promised in promotion must be borne out by reality. If tourists have had their perception changed by effective promotion and their experience does not tally with this, then there will be no repeat visits and the individual will be critical of the area.

Of further significance is the fact that overall, the attribute 'Infrastructure' had the lowest mean scores, implying that infrastructure of the region is not perceived positively. Although Chiang Mai has experienced an increased demand for travel, the infrastructure in terms of the quality and availability of transportation and accommodation has not been developed or kept up effectively to meet demand. Perceptions of the poor quality of transportation and accommodation, must be addressed by tourism professionals responsible for marketing tourist destination areas to create a more positive attributes or image of tourist destinations (Echtner & Ritchie, 1993).

In relation to tourist's perceived importance of destination attributes, the result showed that tourists placed attribute 'Cost/Price' in highest rank of importance, and 'Accessibility' in the lowest category. As Peter and Mark (1997) note, in an industry where very little of the product is truly unique and its consumers have become experienced and demanding, there is a growing need to differentiate and stand out from the competition. As Stevens (1992, p. 44) notes 'competitiveness is an all encompassing concept whose bottom-line indicator is value for money.' Therefore, it is of significance that the sense of value in a point of differentiation in the tourism products and experience of Chiang Mai, and this image should be developed in the consumer's mind.

A recent study conducted by Kozak and Rimmington (2000) complements previous recent research with a survey of the extent to which particular destination attributes are significant to tourists' likelihood to revisit Mallorca in the future. They found that the greatest impacts on the intention to revisit the place were the overall value for money, quality standard of accommodation, level of service at accommodation, feelings of safety and security, hospitality, cleanliness, hygiene and sanitation, and quality and variety of food. From pragmatic travel management strategies, this study suggests that destinations emphasise different price-value features to their respective segments and do so in a positive manner. In the case of Chiang Mai, the promotion of a value message would appear to be particularly relevant to its Japan and Western markets during the high and shoulder seasons, since these had the highest ratings for the overall attractiveness ranks. Linked to this policy should be a strategy to improve the price and value perceptions for these market segments during low season months, for these visitors do not feel the price or value is attractive as in other seasons.

Ideally tourism products, such as a destination, do not necessarily remain constant throughout the year. As the weather and usage patterns change, the industry could make corresponding price adjustments in each season.

In terms of the overall attractiveness ratings for Chiang Mai, this study found that Japanese tourists gave the highest rank, followed by those from the four Western countries (that is, the United States, France, Germany, and United Kingdom). Of the six selected countries, those from Taiwan ranked the overall attractions of Chiang Mai lowest. This implies that the destination area is favourable to visitors from Japan and Western nations whereas it is less favourable for visitors from Taiwan. Destination marketers should focus on the particular strengths that appeal to not only the markets that favour the destination area (Japanese, Americans, French, German, and British) but also to those that do not favour it (Taiwanese). To ignore the latter segment due to its negative association, as discussed by this study, is not only a misinterpretation of the results, but could also be a costly business decision. Instead, destination market professionals might consider the feasibility of improving the packaging and promotion targeted at groups such as Taiwanese market. More precise information should be thoroughly investigated by these marketers in an attempt to perpetuate certain relative strengths in the destination to offer to such markets.

With regard to tourist profiles, current international tourists to Chiang Mai were from France, Taiwan, United Kingdom, Germany, United States, and Japan. Their trip purpose was primarily by a wish to have leisure activities (recreation, holiday, sports.) Many visited Chiang Mai because they aimed to have cultural experiences that differ from their own, as well as wanting to gain exciting new experiences. The

age groups were currently skewed towards those in the range of 25-34 with visitors having average levels of income and above-average educational attainment. More than a half were male considering themselves to be white-collar employees. Their marital status was mainly unmarried and they did not have dependent children under 18 years of age in their household.

Botha, Crompton, and Kim (1999) introduced tourism marketing professionals to the concept of positioning a destination. They contend that instead of developing a marketing plan based upon what tourism marketers believe the destination has to offer, the starting point is to identify what exists in the minds of the potential tourists. This means identifying the areas of existing strengths and weakness and act on them, and avoid the difficult and expensive task of changing visitor prospects' attitudes and behaviours. The positioning process also implies a segmentation process where a destination targets the right kind of visitor. Once defined, there follows a process of ascertaining each segment's attractiveness, selection of the target segment(s) and developing the appropriate position supported by appropriate marketing mix variables to reach and influence prospects (Kotler et al, 1999). The approach allows tourism marketers to efficiently allocate scarce resources towards attracting and retaining preferred tourist segments.

The use of customer profiles permits marketing professionals and service providers to assemble services in a manner best suited to a specific consumer group's characteristics (Mazanec, 1992) such as size and cost to segments (Kotler, 1991) and preferences and perceptions (Etzel & Woodside, 1982; Goodrich, 1978). It is hoped that using the results revealed in this study, tourism planners and marketing

professionals could plan more effective marketing strategies to target both Asian and Western visitors.

8.2.1.2 General Comments with Specific Focus on Japanese Tourists

From the result of the analysis of respondents' characteristics, it might be concluded that the major international potential market, Japanese tourists, in particular, are white collar males, aged between 25-34 with the annual income ranged between US\$ 20,001 – 60,000, single and having university degrees. These traits coupled with their rating of the importance of (any) tourist destination attributes on Cost/Price (4.03%), Cultural Features (4.01%), and Natural Factor (3.84%) as seen in Appendix D6 and their giving highest scores on Chiang Mai's attractiveness on Natural Factor (4.11%), Cultural Features (4.10%) and Cost/Price (3.75%) as shown in Appendix B6, should be closely taken into account in practical marketing. The following strategies will probably be accomplished to attract Japanese travellers:

1) Brand positioning of the 'Unseen Chaing Mai'

The logo may outstandingly use or focus on the picture of the beauty of scenery (mountains) or hilltribes or elephants. The brand 'Chiang Mai' should be regularly and frequently promoted with the 'Unseen' thematic advertising through major and non-mainstream media in Japan. Besides, the brand personality, that is, the friendliness and the approachability of people, the beauty of nature, and the uniqueness of culture should also be created and communicated.

2) Representation in Japan

Thai tourism offices in several major cities may help to create mutual relationship and cooperation among Thai and Japanese tourism-related stakeholders. Interesting activities such as the organisation of workshops and trade shows should be initiated to allow the target markets to meet with tourist agents/organisers and learn about tourism product in Chiang Mai (or in Thailand).

3) Familiarisation trips

Tourist's interests and travel needs can possibly be stimulated through various study tours for certain groups of people. Japanese journalist visiting Chiang Mai programme including other activities such as tactical campaigns with tourism industry partners, direct mail campaigns, training programmes, agent visits and trade events will probably be effective to lure and increase the markets' attentions.

4) Participation in Joint Marketing Schemes or Ventures

Trade and tourism consortia with Japanese tourist agents, airlines and hotels should also be encouraged.

Table 23: The Comparison of the average rating on the *Attractiveness* and *Importance* of the destination for Japanese visitors.

Attribute	Average rating of <i>Attractiveness</i>	Average rating of <i>Importance</i>	<i>Importance Over Attractiveness</i>
Cultural Features	3.80	3.62	A>I-
Reception	3.77	3.45	A>I
Cost/Price	3.75	3.78	A=I
Natural Factors	3.68	3.49	A>I
Services	3.67	3.52	A>I
Recreation/Shopping	3.47	3.49	A=I
Accessibility	3.32	3.31	A=I
Infrastructure	2.93	3.61	A<I

5) Product Development

According to Table 23 above, it shows Japanese tourists' rating on the attributes of Chiang Mai illustrating 'Cultural Features' the highest rank for the attractiveness and second highest on the importance of destination attributes. Therefore to meet the needs of the visitors from Japan, the development of tourism products, for example, a variety of cultural activities needs to be closely considered and taken place. Also construction of new products such as alternative tourism, that is, cultural tour and Eco-tour should be widely promoted and enhanced.

In addition, the new products which provide Japanese visitors with value-added or other aspects, apart from economics such as cultural and spatial values should be initiated more. 'Muay Thai' or Thai boxing, traditional massage, 'Lai Thai' drawing and fruit carving may be presented to attract the 'revisit' Japanese visitors who want to learn more about the different culture. Additionally, other cultural practices such as producing ceramics, cotton and silk weaving, cooking, dancing and other handicrafts can possibly be made as tourism product as well. Specifically, new products, resulted from the government's project -- OTOP (One Tambol, One Product) (Tambol means groups of villages), in establishment and development of the craft-producing locality should be domestically and internationally promoted and marketed to many souvenir shops, duty-free shops and tourist centres.

Moreover, homestay with local or the hill-tribe people will probably be challenging and promote mutual understanding and peace among Thai and Japanese people. In addition, hard and soft nature-based activities such as hiking, mountain hiking, rafting along the

Mae Kok River, riding elephants to enjoy the beautiful scenery and birding can also be more effectively developed. Alternatively, Japanese naturalists may enjoy a variety of species of tropical insects, orchids and other plants as well.

In relation to the improvement of the weakness, as seen in the comparison table (Table 23) above the average value of Chiang Mai's attractiveness of attribute 'Infrastructure' (2.93%) is well below the rating of its importance (3.61%). Thus, the TAT should pay greater attention to this attribute. On the one hand, infrastructure development is necessary to stimulate the development of tourism because it ensures accessibility and the accommodation of the destination to the visitors and serve their needs while away from home. On the other hand, an upgrading of the elements of infrastructure primarily for the purpose of attracting tourists will benefit the host population as well. Indeed, the quality and availability of different means of transportation, including public utility system in Chiang Mai need to be improved. In most cases, the development of infrastructure is almost always a public-sector responsibility. Thus, besides the TAT, the involved government organisations, local institutions such as Chiang Mai Chamber of Commerce should take part in the development of infrastructure.

Communication is also important for visitors receiving enough communication so that their questions about travel within the city are answered. For example, enough city handbooks in the main tourist markets' languages such as English, Japanese, Mandarin, German, and French, containing details on the facilities offered by hundreds of traveller-oriented businesses including official city maps, containing historic sites, street names should be obtained from the tourist centres, the TAT Northern Regional Office and the Office of Chamber of Commerce. Official business directional signs should

replace billboards for services available in the city and may indicate the number of kilometres to accommodation or other services. These signs should be located just before road junctions that require the travellers to change direction from one highway or street to another.

Another important part of a tourist infrastructure includes sufficient quantities of pure water, adequate supplies of power particularly in the peak-load requirement and the compatibility of the types of power supplies with the target markets of the destination. More specifically, as became evident during the research study, Chiang Mai has no public transportation and those run by private individuals are very poor both in the services and the automobiles' conditions. As such, there should be a good degree of coordination between the modes of air, rail and bus to facilitate passengers' transfer between modes. Directional and informational signs should be easy to see and of a uniform design throughout the mode. A security system should be in place to prevent theft of luggage and/or misclaiming of checked baggage at terminals. Personnel should be available to assist tourists, particularly the aged, the handicapped and non-Thai speaking visitors. Complete information should be given on the locations, fares, schedules, and routes of local transportation services.

With regard to accommodation, it is necessary to make the visitors feel warm and being of welcome while visiting Chiang Mai delivered by service providers and general resident population. This can be brought about from the combination of a certain amount of knowledge and a positive attitude that results in specific hospitable behaviours. The way in which services are delivered is particularly important because tourism is consumed on the spot. Poor services can spoil an excellent vacation

experience. Tourist will have a much more rewarding vacation experience if they feel welcomed by the host people and will certainly feel awkward and unhappy if they feel resented. Thus, personnel service staff of hotels, resorts, and guesthouses needs to be improved by training tourism personnel to be hospitable and encouraging positive feelings toward tourism and tourists on the part of general public.

Importantly, good service can be put into practice if the service staff's positive attitudes toward self and others are changed and encouraged. Traditionally the tourism industries lacked prestige. Consequently, those who work in the tourism industries have lacked prestige. If the service providers can be made to believe that their work and they themselves are important, their work and actions toward tourists will hopefully reflect positive feelings. In helping them to be positive toward tourists, the training programme containing the role-playing in putting themselves in visitors' place may be successful.

As for the residents of the destination area, they cannot be trained to act in a hospitable way toward tourists, but a community awareness programme can possibly help develop a more positive attitude toward tourists. In fact, the programme aims at building acceptance of tourism and an understanding of tourists. An acceptance of tourism can certainly be built if the benefits of tourism are made relevant to members of the community. To some tourism may seem a non-harvesting or summer season job, while to others it may ensure that a cultural-show house can survive year-round for the major income of the community. Yet, many people do not realise that they are positively affected by it. Thus, it is very necessary to communicate to each part of the community messages that are important and relevant to them. An understanding of who the tourist

is can help in greater acceptance of the visitors. Knowing why tourists visit Chiang Mai and their villages may result in a renewed civic pride.

8.2.2 Tourism Research Implications

From a review of the literature, much can be learned about international tourists and the differences they show in terms of behaviours, attitudes towards destinations, spending pattern motivations and satisfaction levels. For example, Mill and Morrison (1985) noted that tourists from different countries and cultures generally have different perceptions as to their favourite attractiveness. Cultural differences in attitudes, behaviour, and social class also can influence expectation and perceptions (Lewis, 1991; Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). For example, tourists with lower levels of income and education, from lower socioeconomic groups, and from higher age brackets all are likely to have lower expectations. They might consider a vacation abroad to be luxury consumption, resulting in higher levels of vacation satisfaction (Van, 1989).

Also, it is interesting to note that no significant relationships were found between destination attributes and certain socio-demographic, psychographic, and travel behaviour variables (eg. 'Natural Factors,' 'Cultural Features,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' and 'Services,' and travel motivation, etc). Why is this? Does this finding suggest that all international tourists have one common perception of Chiang Mai? Do the non-significant variables, for example, some socio-demographic variables (eg. gender, age group, education level, occupation, and family size) and attribute 'Cultural Features,' which composed of 'Architectural Artistic Features,' 'Historical and Ancient Ruins,' 'Carnivals and Festivals,' 'Distinctive Local features,' 'Religion,' and 'Food,' fit the stereotype that often is portrayed through the media and tourism promotion

agencies? It would be interesting to see whether this attribute is unique to Chiang Mai or whether it cuts across all tourist destinations, both domestic and international. If the attribute is found to be unique in future research efforts, then Chiang Mai has a comparative advantage over other areas in Thailand. Positioning the region in attributes of its exceptional characteristics might be effective in attracting a sizeable segment of the international tourist market.

Tourists from several countries have been found to place different values on destination attributes such as beautiful scenery, quality of accommodations, and cultures (Stevens, 1992). The country of origin has also been indicated to affect seasonal variations in visits, party composition, package tours participation, length of stay, motivation, visit spending, activity participation, attraction visited, and payment methods (Backman, Backman, Potts, & Usyal, 1992; Baum & Mudambi, 1996; Reid & Reid, 1997). Therefore, based on the results of previous studies, the country of origin variable appears to provide a conceptual and practical basis for establishing travellers profiles, which have implications for tourism promotion and distribution strategies (Reid & Reid, 1997).

The results of this study lend support to this notion by confirming that international tourists from various cultures have different perceptions of, and perhaps different preferences for, tourist destination areas. However, the reason for this significance is not readily apparent. Previous research (Chadee & Cutler, 1996) had found that ethnicity helped to explain planning decisions among international visitors. Perhaps if future studies were to replicate these findings related to ethnic or cultural differences, (including how they affect the planning effort), then tourism marketers would be able to

use this information to target international tourists more successfully. The implications of such research will call for greatly increased research on national or ethnic differences in leisure patterns, preferences, and motivations far beyond the present limited findings, and see new directions for leisure during the next decade. It is gratifying to note an increasing interest in the international inbound tourist behaviour research in which authors investigated various aspects of travel-related behaviours (for instances, Anderson & Littrel, 1995; Ap, 2000; Baloglu, 1997; Baum & Mauanbi, 1996; Chen & Hsu, 2000; Dann, 1993; Dawer, 1993; Goodrich, 1978; Harssel, 1997; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Javagi, Thomas & Rao, 1992).

Therefore, the investigator suggests that if future research supports the findings of this study with tourists of other nationalities, and in different touristic situations, it would be accurate to conclude that from a subjective point of view tourists are perceived to vary not only according to their motivation, sociodemographics, and life-style, but also to their nationality. Therefore, nationality counts.

Moreover, there are probably many avenues for future research, and the following is a selection of potential future research areas and topics. Based upon the findings of the present study, it is suggested future studies could include:

- 1) Identification of the specific motivations for international inbound travellers to Chiang Mai/ tourist destinations;
- 2) Comparison of the characteristics and behaviours of travellers pursuing recreational and educational experiences as main trip/travel purposes;
- 3) Measurement of the relative impacts of promotional programmes on the international tourists in their decision making, including destination selection;

- 4) Comparison of the attitudes of the international visitors toward the tourist destination among different geographical levels of destination marketing organisations within specific regions (and/or countries);
- 5) Evaluation of the effectiveness of various types of marketing programmes aimed at the international market;
- 6) Investigation of the effect of demographic and psychographic variables on (travel-related behaviour of, trip planning, sources of information, travel mode, activity participation in destinations) shopping venues, product preferences, and expenditure patterns, and compare these effects based on destinations;
- 7) Assessment of 'push' and 'pull' motivations of the international inbound tourists based on different market segments;
- 8) Examination of complaints and feedback behaviour of the international tourists; and
- 9) Identification of the international tourists' expectations and perception of destination specific tourism products and/or service quality.

8.2.3. Implications for Tourism Theory

The study provided an original contribution to tourism theory by implementing the multi-attribute Fishbein model to the study of "destination attractiveness". This model incorporated a combination of the perceived attractiveness (A_i) of an attribute and the corresponding importance of that attribute (I_i). The total attractiveness score for each region was based on summing the products of eight ($A_i I_i$) attractiveness factors. Thus instead of analysing individual factors contributing to destination attractiveness, the Fishbein model provided an overall score, incorporating all salient factors contributing to the attractiveness of a region.

In addition, the study captured the *importance* of destination attributes as an additional indicator to the frequently used *attractiveness* only indicator of a region. Thus the combination of both importance and attractiveness provided a more complete picture of the attractiveness of a region.

The third important contribution to tourism theory is the emphasis on the relationship between tourists' characteristics and their perception of the importance of destinations. This also allowed for segmentation between tourists from different regions, and provides issues to be canvassed by tourist administrators in Thailand to attract visitors from different countries, as discussed in Section 8.2.1.1 and 8.2.1.2 above.

8.3 LIMITATIONS

As with most empirical study, certain limitations should be noted with regard to these findings. There are four potential limitations of this study that need to be acknowledged. First, the survey instrument used in this study was originally designed in English and tested undertaking a pilot study in the actual situation among international tourists. Although the idea of translating the survey instrument into the targeted languages of the samples, that is, Japanese, German, French, and Chinese Mandarin was suggested, the implementation of such idea was not made possible due to the limited time frame and budget. As a result, the survey administered among the international tourists from six different countries was in the English language. Thus, it was hard and it took time for the investigator and the research assistants to find a tourist who could understand English from the targeted countries whose native language was not English. This was a problem particularly amongst Japanese and Taiwanese tourists.

The second of these relates to the grouping of destinations by regions (Asian and Western) segments, it was necessary for sample size reasons to have equal proportion of respondents representing each geographical region. For this study, only two nations represented Asian countries whereas respondents from four Western countries were selected. This may have hidden variations from country to country within each region, and a result might reduce the practical implication of the study's findings. If the sample sizes for individual countries in the dataset had been larger, it would have been of greater value to examine differences in the choice of specific countries rather than regions.

Third, the focus of this study was on the top six market arrivals to the destination of Chiang Mai. The results perhaps cannot be generalised to travel by tourists from other countries to destinations within Thailand. This may diminish the value of the study's results for some destination marketers. It would be wrong to assume that these findings in regard to the markets sampled apply to travellers from other countries of origin. Therefore, there is a need to replicate this type of analysis for other countries in order to determine if similar results could be achieved.

Fourth, as a tourist destination, Chiang Mai embraces tourism products or tourism supply which represent an amalgam of attractions and supporting facilities designed to meet the needs of tourists. A number of common features attract tourists such as 'Natural Factors,' 'Cultural Features,' 'Recreation and Shopping Facilities,' 'Accessibility,' 'Reception,' 'Services,' and 'Cost/Price.' As Leiper (1995, p. 87) notes 'most tourists visit a small number of places within each destination they visit.' In Chiang Mai, typical international visitors see only a small proportion out of the

hundreds of potential tourist attractions (TAT, Northern Office Region, 2000). As a consequence, the evaluation of the attractiveness of Chiang Mai made by tourists from six countries of origin may emerge from, and thus represent, their perceptions of only some of the potential tourist sites. As such, the findings of this study should be interpreted with full consideration of these limitations.

A fifth limitation applies to the sampling procedure. Sampling statistics were used to obtain minimum size samples whose response can be interpreted within the 95% confidence region. However, once the size was determined, the respondents were selected on a non-random, quota basis, using the methods as described in Section 4.7.1 and 4.7.2

However, in spite of these limitations the findings are felt to be able to conclusive and representative of the visitors to a significant tourist festival in Chiang Mai Province, held in April, 2001 for the top six international inbound markets to the destination area.

Further research is required to investigate how tourism products should be designed, in order to meet the needs and challenges of such different market segments and respond to the fast-changing environment. To understand more about the product's quality, delivery, service, and price, a detailed study of this kind would also be worthwhile.

8.4 CONCLUSIONS

A destination visit is an amalgam of experiences, and some components may have more impacts on tourists' assessments than others. The findings of this research identify tourists' perceptions of destination attractiveness and the importance of destination

attributes associated with its relationships with travel motivation, trip purpose, and socio-demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education level, occupation, household income, marital status, and family size.

The findings can assist Thailand tourism officials for a marketing campaign as follows: (1) those travellers (80%) appear to repeat their visitation, (2) destination attributes are important, and (3) several demographic characteristics are important for segmenting the market. Specific marketing strategies should reflect the remind and inform objectives of promotion. People who have visited the area before are assumed to have had a favourable vacation experience and therefore are likely to return (Chen & Kerstetter, 1999). Accordingly, Chiang Mai and/or Thailand can generate revenue from tourism by attracting repeat visitors. To capitalise on this primary tourism segment the marketers should develop communication tools that remind individuals of their Chiang Mai experiences. One simple way that might be achieved is through creating either ‘thank you,’ and/or ‘keep us in mind’ follow-up postcards. This proactive approach may help reduce any loss of repeat business to other destinations. The ‘Cultural Features,’ ‘Reception,’ ‘Cost/Price’ or value for money, and ‘Natural Factors’ seem to be some major attractive features for Chiang Mai visitors. Thus, from a marketing perspective, these attractions should be highlighted in promotional campaigns. In terms of socio-demographic characteristics, the campaigns should target travellers in higher household income categories and those with smaller household size. For the audience that favours the region less, such as the Taiwanese market, it is most important to emphasise the cultural amenities and recreational opportunities of the destination. In doing so, to attract this market, Chiang Mai marketers may be advised to provide tourist information that features these amenities.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aaker, D. A., Kumer, V., & Day, G. S. (1995). *Marketing Research* (5 ed.). Canada: John Wiley & Sons.
- Adams, K. (1984). Come to tana Toraja 'Land of the Kings': travel agents as brokers in ethnicity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11, 469-485.
- Ahmed, Z. F., & Krohn, F. B. (1992). Understanding the unique consumer behavior of Japanese tourists. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 1(3), 73-86.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behaviour*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Anderson, B. B., & Langmeyer, L. (1982). The under-50 and over-50 Travelers: A profile of similarities and differences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 20(4), 20-24.
- Anderson, L., & Littrell, M. (1995). Souvenir Purchase Behavior of Women Tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22, 328-348.
- Ap, J. (2000). Understanding the Asian respondent when conducting tourism research: Some challenges, pitfalls and tips. Proceedings of the Travel and Tourism Research Association: USA, 282-290. USA.
- Armstrong, R. W., Mok, C., Go, F., & Chan, G. (1997). The importance of cross-cultural expectations in the measurement of service quality perceptions in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 6(2), 181-190.
- Backman, S. J., Backman, K. F., Potts, T. D., & Uysal, M. (1992). International Tourism: An Unrecognized Potential in Rural Tourism Development. *Visions in Leisure and Business*, 7(1), 24-31.
- Baldwin, P., & Broddess, D. (1993). Asia's new age travellers (Part II). *Asia Travel Trade*(June), 38-42.
- Baloglu, S. (1997). The Relationship between Destination Images and Sociodemographic and Trip Characteristics of International Travelers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3, 221-233.
- Bauer, T. (2002). How Germans Will Travel 2005. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 571-572.
- Baum, T., & Muambi, R. (1996). A Country-of-Origin Analysis of Tourist Expenditure: Tha Case of Turkey. *Tourism Economics*, 2(2), 137-149.
- Bhattacharyya, D. (1997). Mediating India: an analysis of a guidebook. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24, 371-389.
- Bojanic, D. C. (1992). A Look at a Modernized Family Life Cycle and Overseas Travel. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 1(1), 61-77.

- Bojanic, D. C. (1996). Consumer perceptions of price, value and satisfaction in the hotel industry: An exploratory study. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 4(1), 5-21.
- Boo, E. (1990). *Ecotourism: The potential and pitfalls*. Baltimore: World Wildlife Fund.
- Bosselman, F. (1978). *In the Wake of the Tourist: Managing Special Places in Eight Countries*. Unpublished manuscript, Washington D.C.
- Botha, C., Crompton, J., & Kim, S. S. (1999). Developing a revised competitive position for Sun/Lost City, South Africa. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(2), 341-352.
- Britton, R. (1979). The image of the Third World in tourism marketing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6, 318-329.
- Burkart, A. J., & Medlik, S. (1981). *Tourism Past, Present and Future* (2 ed.). London: Heinemann.
- Burkart, A. J., & Medlik, S. (1990). *Tourism* (2 ed.). London: Heinemann.
- Burton, S. (1990). The framing of purchase for services. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 4(Fall), 55-67.
- Calantone, R. J., di Benedetto, C. A., Halam, A., & Bojanic, D. C. (1989). Multiple multidimensional tourism positioning using correspondence analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28.
- Carlile, L. E. (1996). Economic development and the evolution of Japanese overseas tourism, 1964-1994. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 21(1), 11-18.
- Chadee, D. D., & Cutler, J. (1996). Insights into International Travel by Students. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(Fall), 75-80.
- Chambers, R., Chacko, H., & Lewis, R. (1995). *Marketing Leadership in Hospitality*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Chen, J. S., & Hsu, A. H. C. (2000). Measurement of Korean Tourists' perception images of overseas destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, May, 38(4), 411-416.
- Chen, P. J., & Kerstetter, D. L. (1999). International students' image of rural Pennsylvania as a travel destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(3), 256-266.
- Choi, T. Y. (2000). Levels of satisfaction among Asian and Western travellers. *The International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 17(2), 116-131.

- Chon, K. S. (1991). Tourism Destination Image Modification Process. *Tourism Management*, 12(1), 68-72.
- Chon, K. S. (1999). An Assessment of Images of Korea as a Tourist Destination by American Tourists. *Hotel and Tourism Management Review*, 3, 155-170.
- Choy, D. J. L. (1992). Life cycle of models for Pacific island destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30, 26-31.
- Chung, W.-J. (1991). *Identification and Unique Characteristics of Michigan's Recreational Tourism Market*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, Michigan, the United States of America.
- Clow, K. E., Garretson, J. A., & Kurtz, D. L. (1994). An exploratory study into the purchase decision process used by leisure travellers in hotel selection. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 2(4), 53-72.
- Cohen, E. (1974). Who is tourist? *The Sociological Review*, 22.
- Cohen, E. (1989). Primitive and remote: hill tribe trekking in Thailand. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16, 30-61.
- Cohen, E. (1996). *Thai tourism: Hill Tribes, Islands and Open-ended Prostitution*. Bangkok: White Lotus.
- Cohen, J., & Richardson, J. (1995). Nature tourism vs. incompatible industries: Marketing the ecological environment to ensure economic future of nature tourism. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 4(2), 17-116.
- Collins, D., & Tisdell, C. (2000). Changing Travel Patterns with Age: Australian Evidence and the Need to Modify Current Theories. *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management*, 7(1), 15-25.
- Crompton, J. (1979). An assessment of the image of Mexico as a vacation destination and the influence of geographical location upon that image. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17, 18-23.
- Croese, R. (1997). *Why Women Live Longer Than Men*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Cullingford, C. (1995). Children's Attitudes to Holidays Overseas. *Tourism Management*, 16(2), 121-127.
- Dace, R. (1995). Japanese tourism: How a knowledge of Japanese buyer behavior and culture can be of assistance to British hoteliers in seeking to develop this valuable market. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 1(3), 281-288.
- Dann, G. M. S. (1977). Anomie, Ego-Enhancement and Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 4(4), 184-194.
- Dann, G. M. S. (1981). Tourism motivation: An appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(4), 187-219.

- Dann, G. M. S. (1993). 'Nationality' and 'Country of Residence' Variables. In D. Pearce & R. Butler (Eds.), *Tourism Research: Critiques and Challenges*. London: Routledge.
- Dann, G. M. S. (1996). Tourists' images of a destination - an alternative analysis. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 5(1/2), 41-55.
- Dann, G. M. S. (2001). Senior Tourism and Quality of Life. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 9(1/2), 5-19.
- Davidoff, P. G., & Davidoff, D. S. (1994). *Sales and Marketing for Travel and Tourism* (2 ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Dawar, N. (1993). *A Cross-cultural Study on International Information Seeking and Giving Behaviour*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Dickman, S. (1999). *Tourism, an Introduction Text*. East Victoria, Australia: Edward.
- Dieke, P. U. C. (1992). Policies for tourism development in Kenya. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(2), 269-294.
- Dodd, T., & Bigotte, V. (1997). Perceptual Differences among Visitors Groups to Wineries. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(3), 46-57.
- Eby, D. W. & Molnar, L. J. (2001). Age-related factors in destination choice for United States driving tourists. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 9(1/2), 97-111.
- Echtner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1991). The meaning and Measurement of Destination Image. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 2(2), 2-12.
- Echtchener, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). The Measurement of Destination Image: An Empirical Assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, Spring, 1-13.
- Elwin, J. (1989). Site Selection in Tourism. In S. F. Witt & L. Mountinho (Eds.), *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (pp. 403-406). London: Prentice-Hall.
- Engel, J. F., Blackwell, R. D., & Miniard, P. W. (1995). *Consumer Behaviour* (8 ed.). USA: The Dryden Press.
- Etzel, M. & Woodside, A. (1982). Segmenting Vacation Markets: The Case of the Distant and Near-Home Traveller. *Journal of Travel Research*. 20(Spring), 10-14.
- Fakeye, P. C., & Crompton, J. (1991). Image Differences between Prospective, First-Time, and Repeat Visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 10-16.
- Ferrario, F. F. (1979). The Evaluation of Tourist Resources: an Applied Methodology. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(3), 18-22.

- Formica, S. (2002). Measuring destination attractiveness: A proposed framework. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 1(2), 350-355.
- French, C. N., Craig-Smith, S. J., & Collier, A. (1995). *Principles of Tourism*. Australia: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Gartner, W. (1989). Tourism image: attribute measurement of state tourism products using multidimensional scaling techniques. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28, 16-20.
- Gartner, W. (1996). *Tourism Development Principles, Processes, and Policies*. Canada: John Wiley & Sons.
- Gartner, W., & Hunt, J. (1987). An analysis of state image change over a twelve-year period (1971-1983). *Journal of Travel Research*, 27, 15-19.
- Gearing, C. E., Swart, W. W., & Var, T. (1974). Establishing a Measure of Touristic Attractiveness. *Journal of Travel Research*, 12, 1-8.
- Gibson, H., & Yiannakis. (2002). Tourist Roles: Needs and the Lifecourse. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(2), 358-383.
- Gibson, H. J. (2002). How the British Will Travel 2005. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 279-281.
- Gladwell, N. J. (1990). A psychographic and sociodemographic analysis of state park inn users. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(4), 15-20.
- Go, F., Pine, R. & Yu, R. (1994). Hong Kong: Sustaining Competitive Advantage in Asia's Hotel Industry. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, October, 50-61.
- Godfrey, K., & Clark, J. (2000). *The tourism Development Handbook: A Practical Approach to Planning and Marketing*. London: Wellington House.
- Goeldner, C. R., Ritchie, J. R. B., & McIntosh, R. W. (2000). *Tourism Principles, Practices, Philosophies* (8 ed.). Canada: John Wiley & Sons.
- Goodall, B. (1988). How tourist choose their holidays: An analytical framework. In B. Goodall & G. Ashworth (Eds.), *Marketing in the Tourism Industry: The Promotion of Destination Regions* (pp. 1-7). London: Routledge.
- Goodrich, J. N. (1977). Benefit Bundle Analysis: An Empirical Study of International Travelers. *Journal of Travel Research*, 26(2), 6-9.
- Goodrich, J. N. (1978). The Relationship Between Preferences for and the Perceptions of Vacation Destinations: Application of a Choice Model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 17(2), 8-13.
- Gray, H. P. (1970). *International Travel - International Trade*. Lexington: Heath Lexington.

- Green, P. E., & Tull, D. S. (1978). *Research for Marketing Decisions* (4 ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Griffin, A., & Hauser, J. R. (1992). *The voice of the customer* (Report number 92-106). Cambridge, MA: Marketing Science Institute.
- Guide, A. (2000). *Thailand A Traveller's Companion*. Singapore: Editions Didier Millet.
- Gunn, C. A. (1988). *Vacationscape Designing Tourist Regions* (2 ed.). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Gunn, C. A. (1994). *Tourism Planning* (3 ed.). Washington: Taylor & Francis.
- Haahti, A. J. (1986). Finland's comparative position as a destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 13(1), 11-35.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5 ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hall, C. M. (1998). *Introduction to Tourism* (3 ed.). Australia: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Hall, C. M. (2000). Tourism: A Personal Speculation. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 25(1), 85-95.
- Hall, C. M., & Page, S. J. (1999). *The Geography of Tourism and Recreation Environment, Place and Space*. London: Routledge.
- Hanan, M., & Karp, P. (1989). *Customer Satisfaction*. New York: Amacon.
- Hargreave, O. (1998). *Exploring Chiang Mai* (2 ed.). Chiang Mai: Within Books.
- Harssel, J. V. (1997). The senior travel market: distinct, diverse, demanding. In W. F. Theobald (Eds.). *Global Tourism: the next decade*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann Ltd.
- Hashimoto, A. (2000). Young Japanese Female Tourists: An In-depth Understanding of a Market Segment. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 3(1), 35-49.
- Heung, V. C. S., & Qu, H. (2000). Hong Kong as a Travel Destination: An Analysis of Japanese Tourists' Satisfaction Levels, and the likelihood of Them Recommending Hong Kong to Others. *Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(1/2), 57-80.
- HKTA. (1998). *A Statistical Review of Tourism 1997*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong Tourist Association.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Organization and Culture: Software of the Mind*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Holloway, J. C., & Plant, R. V. (1988). *Marketing for Tourism*. London: Pitman.
- Hsieh, S., O'Leary, J. T., & Morrison, A. M. (1992). Segmenting the international travel market by activity. *Tourism Management, 13*, 203-223.
- Hsieh, S., O'Leary, J. T., & Morrison, A. M. (1994). A Comparison of Package and Non-Package Travellers from the United Kingdom. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 6*(3/4), 79-100.
- Hsieh, S., O'Leary, J. T., Morrison, A. M., & Chiang, D. (1997). Travel decision pattern segmentation of pleasure travel. *Journal of Vacation Marketing, 3*(4), 289-302.
- Hsu, C. H., Kang, S. K., & Wolfe, K. (2002). Psychographic and Demographic Profiles of Niche Market Leisure Travelers. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 26*(1), 3-22.
- Hu, Y., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). Measuring Destination Attractiveness: A Context Approach. *Journal of Travel Research, 32*(2), 25-36.
- Huang, J., Huang, C. T., & Wu, S. (1996). National character and response to unsatisfactory hotel service. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 15*(3), 229-243.
- Hughes, G. D. (1971). *Attitude Measurement for Marketing Strategies*. Illinois: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Hui, T.-K., & Yuen, C. C. (2002). A Study in the seasonal variation of Japanese tourist arrivals in Singapore (Electronic version). *Tourism Management, 22*, 127-131.
- Hunt, J. (1975). Image as a factor in tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research, 13*, 1-7.
- Hurst, F. (1994). En route surveys. In J. R. B. Ritchie & C. R. Goeldner (Eds.), *Travel and Tourism Hospitality Research* (2 ed., pp. 453-471). New York: Wiley.
- Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Irwin, P., Gartner, W., & Phelps, C. (1999). Mexican-American/Anglo Cultural Differences as Recreation Site Determinants. *Leisure Sciences, 12*, 335-348.
- Jafari, J. (1987). Tourism models: the socio-cultural aspects. *Tourism Management, 8*, 151-159.
- Jamrozy, U., & Uysal, M. (1994). Travel Motivation Variations of Overseas German Visitors. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 6*(3/4), 135-160.
- Jang, S. C., Morrison, A. M., & O'Leary, J. T. (2001). Benefit segmentation of Japanese pleasure travelers to the USA and Canada: selecting target markets based on the profitability and risk of individual market segments. *Tourism Management*(June), 1-12.

- Jansen-Verbeke, M. (1994). The synergy between shopping and tourism: The Japanese experience. In W. F. Theobald (Ed.), *Global Tourism- The Next Decade* (pp. 347-362). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Javalgi, R. G., Thomas, E. G. & Rao, S. R. (1992). Consumer behaviour in the U.S. travel marketplace: An analysis of senior and nonsenior travelers. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31, 14-19.
- Johns, N., & Lee-Ross. (1998). *Research Methods in Service Industry Management*. New York: Cassell.
- Johnson, B. R., & Edwards, T. (1994). The commodification of mountaineering. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21(3), 459-478.
- Kachigan, S. K. (1986). *Statistic Analysis*. New York: Radius Press.
- Kale, S. H., & Weir, K. M. (1986). Marketing Third World Countries to the Western Travelers: The Case of India. *Journal of Travel Research*, 25(Fall), 2-7.
- Keown, C. (1989). A Model of Tourists' Propensity to Buy: The Case of Japanese Visitors to Hawaii. *Journal of Travel Research*, Winter, 31-34.
- Kim, E., Pearce, A., Morrison, M., & O'Leary, J. (1996). Mature vs. Youth Travelers: The Korean Market. Asia-Pacific. *Journal of Tourism Research*, 1, 102-112.
- Kim, E. & Lee, D. (2000). Japanese Tourists' Expectation of Natural Environments in North QLD Region - Great Barrier Reef Experience. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(1/2), 93-113.
- Kim, H. (1998). Perceived Attractiveness of Korean Destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(3), 661-674.
- Kontogeorgopoulos, N. (1998). Tourism in Thailand: Patterns, Trends, and Limitations. *Pacific Tourism Review*, 2, 225-238.
- Kotler, P. (1991). *Marketing Management: Analysis, Planning, Implementation and Control* (7 ed). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
- Kotler, P., Haider, D. H., & Rein, I. (1993). *Marketing Places*. New York: Free Press.
- Kotler, P., Bowen, J., & Makens, J. (1999). *Marketing for Hospitality and Tourism* (2 ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Kozak, M. (2001a). A Critical Review of Approaches to Measure Satisfaction with Tourist Destinations. In J. A. Mazanec & G. I. Crouch & J. R. B. Ritchie & A. G. Woodside (Eds.), *Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure* (Vol. 2, pp. 303-347). New York: CAB International.
- Kozak, M. (2001b). Comparative assessment of tourist satisfaction with destinations across two nationalities. *Tourism Management*, 22, 391-401.

- Kozak, M. (2002). Comparative analysis of tourist motivations by nationality and destinations. *Tourism Management*, 23, 221-232.
- Kozak, M., & Rimmington, M. (2000). Tourist Satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(3), 260-269.
- Krause, N. (1988). Stress and sex differences in depressive symptoms among older adults. *Journal of Gerontology*, 41, 727-731.
- Kurokawa, M. (1990). Furu Mun Maketto (Japanese full-moon travel market). *Weekly Travel Journal* (30 July), 38.
- Labrecque, J., & Ricard, L. (2001). Children 's influence on family decision-making: a restaurant study. *Journal of Business Research*, 54(2001), 173-176.
- Lang, C., O'Leary, J., & Morrison, A. (1993). Activity segmentation of Japanese female overseas travelers. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(4), 1-22.
- Lang, C., O'Leary, J., & Morrison, A. (1997). International Travelers from Taiwan: Travel Arrangements, Philosophy, and Benefits. *Journal of International Hospitality, Leisure and Tourism Management*, 8(1), 3-18.
- Laws, E. (1995). *Tourist Destination Management Issues, Analysis and Policies*. London: Routledge.
- Lawson, R. (1995). Demographic segmentation. In S. F. Witt & L. Moutinho (Eds.), *Tourism, Marketing and Management Handbook* (2 ed., pp. 311-315). Hertfordshire, UK: Prentice-Hall.
- Lawson, R., Gnoth, J., & Paulin, K. (1995). Tourists' Awareness of Prices. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(1), 3-10.
- Lee, C.-K. (2000). A comparative study of Caucasian and Asian visitors to a Cultural Expo in an Asian setting (Electronic version). *Tourism Management*, 21, 169-176.
- Lehto, X. Y., O'Leary, J. T., & Lee, G. (2001) Mature International Travelers: An Examination of Gender and Benefits. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 9(1/2), 53-73.
- Leiper, N. (1995). *Tourism Management*. Australia: TAFE.
- Lett, J. (1983). Ludic and Liminoid: Aspects of Charter Yacht Tourism in the Caribbean. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 10, 35-56.
- Levinson, D. (1996). *The Season of a Woman's Life*. New York: Knopf.
- Lewis, B. R. (1991). Service Quality: An International Comparison of Bank Customer's Expectations and Perceptions. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 7(1), 47-62.
- Lewis, R. C. (1984). Theoretical and practical considerations in research design. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, February, 25-35.

- Lonely Planet World Guide (2002a). *Destination Thailand*. Retrieved January 18, 2002, from http://www.lonelyplanet.com/destinations/south_east_asia/thailand
- Lonely Planet World Guide (2002b). *Destination Chiang Mai*. Retrieved January 18, 2002, from http://www.lonelyplanet.com/destinations/south_east_asia/chiang_mai/attractions.htm
- Lue, C., Crompton, J. L., & Stewart, W. P. (1996). Evidence of Cumulative Attraction in Multidestination Recreational Trip Decision. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35(1), 41-50.
- Luk, S. T. K., deLeon, C. T., Leong, F. W., & Li, E. L. (1993). Value segmentation of tourist expectations of service quality. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 2(4), 23-38.
- MacKenzie, S. B. (1986). The role of attention in mediating the effect of advertising on attribute importance. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(September), 174-195.
- March, R. (1993). *Change and Opportunity in the Japanese Outbound Tourism Industry*. Perth, Western Australia: Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education (CAUTHE).
- Marshall, A. (1993). Safety top guests' priority lists; sell security as No.1 amenity. *Hotel and Motel Management*, 208(June), 21.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper.
- Master, H., & Prideaux, B. (2000). Culture and vacation satisfaction: a study of Taiwanese tourists in South East Queensland. *Tourism Management*, 21(5), 445-449.
- Masterson, L. A., & Verhoven, P. J. (1995). Soft amenity attribute preferences of resort vacationers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 2(May), 11-21.
- Mathieson, A., & Walls, G. (1982). *Tourism, Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. Harlow: Longman.
- Mayo, E. J. (1973). *Regional Images and Regional Travel Behaviour: Research for Changing Travel Patterns-Interpretation and Utilization*. Paper presented at the Travel Research Association Fourth Annual Conference, Salt Lake City: Travel and Tourism Research Association.
- Mayo, E. J., & Jarvis, L. (1981). *Psychology of Leisure Travel*. Boston: C.B.I Publishing.
- Mazanec, J. (1992). Classifying Tourists into Market Segments: A Neural Network Approach. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*. 1(1), 35-59.

- McCleary, K. W., Weaver, P. A., & Hutchinson, J. C. (1993). Hotel selection factors as they relate to business travel situations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 32(2), 42-48.
- McGehee, N., Locker-Murphy, L., & Uysal, M. (1996). The Australian International Pleasure Travel Market: Motivations from a Gendered Perspective. *Journal of Tourism Studies*, 7(1), 45-57.
- Medlik, S. (1993). *Dictionary of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality*. London: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Meidan, A. (1989). Pricing in Tourism. In S. F. Witt & L. Moutinho (Eds.), *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (pp. 303-309). London: Prentice-Hall.
- Meinung, A. (1989). Determinants of the Attractiveness of a Tourism Region. In S. F. Witt & L. Moutinho (Eds.), *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (pp. 99-101). London: Prentice-Hall.
- Mellinger, W. (1994). Towards a critical analysis of tourism representations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21, 756-779.
- Middleton, V. T. C. (1989). Tourist Product. In S. F. Witt & L. Moutinho (Eds.), *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (pp. 573-576). London: Prentice-Hall.
- Middleton, V. T. C. (1994). *Marketing in travel and tourism*. (2ed.). Oxford: Butterworth - Heinemann.
- Middleton, V. T. C. (2001). *Marketing in Travel and Tourism* (3 ed.). London: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mieczkowski, Z. (1990). World Trends in Tourism and Recreation, *American University Studies Series XXV Geography*. (Vol. 3, pp. 157). New York: Peter Lang.
- Mill, R. C., & Morrison, A. M. (1985). *The Tourism System: An Introduction Text*. USA: Prentice-Hall.
- Milman, A., & Pizam, A. (1995). The Role of Awareness and Familiarity with a Destination: The Central Florida Case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(3), 21-27.
- Moeran, B. (1983). The language of Japanese tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 10, 93-108.
- Mok, C., Armstrong, R. W., & Go, F. (1995). Taiwanese Travellers' Perception of Leisure Destination Attributes. *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management*, 2(1), 17-22.
- Mok, C., & Lam, T. (2000). Travel-Related Behavior of Japanese Leisure Tourists: A Review and Discussion. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(1/2), 171-184.

- Morgan, M. (1996). *Marketing for Leisure and Tourism*. UK: Prentice-Hall.
- Morley, C. L. (1990). What is Tourism? *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 1, 3-8.
- Morris, S. (1990). The Japanese Overseas Travel Market in the 1990s. *Economist Intelligence Unit Travel and Tourism Analyst*, 3, 145.
- Morrison, A. M. (1989). *Hospitality and tourism marketing*. Albany, New York: Delmar.
- Morrison, A. M. (1996). *Hospitality and travel marketing* (2 ed.). New York: Delmar Publishers.
- Morrison, A. M., Hsieh, S., & O'Leary, J. T. (1994). A Comparison of the Travel Arrangements of International Travelers from France, Germany, and the United Kingdom. *Tourism Management*, 15(6), 451-463.
- Moscardo, G. (1996). An activities-based segmentation of visitors to Far North Queensland. In G. Prosser (Ed.), *Tourism and Hospitality Research* (pp. 379-395). Canberra: Bureau of Tourism Research.
- Moscardo, G., Pearce, P. L., & Morrison, A. M. (2001). Evaluating different bases for market segmentation: A comparison of geographic origin versus activity participation for generating tourist market segments. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 10(1), 29-49.
- Moschi, G. P. (1997). *Gerontographics: Life-Stage Segmentation for Marketing Strategy Development*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Moutinho, L. (1987). Consumer behaviour in tourism. *European Journal of Marketing*, 21(10), 3-44.
- Moutinho, L. (2000). *Strategies Management in Tourism*. Wallingford, Oxon: CABI Pub.
- Murphy, P. E. (1985). *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York: Routledge.
- National Identity Office of the Prime Minister. (1991). *Thailand*. Bangkok: National Identity Office of the Prime Minister.
- Nimmonratana, T. (2000). Impact of Tourism on a Local Community: A Case Study of Chiang Mai. In K.S. Chon (Eds), *Tourism in Southern Asia: A New Direction*. New York: The Haworth Hospitality Press.
- Nishiyama, K. (1996). *Welcoming the Japanese Visitor: Insights, Tips, Tactics*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Noble, S. M., & Schewe, C. D. (2002). Cohort segmentation: An exploration of its validity. *Journal of Business Research*, 55, 1-9.

- Noe, F. P. (1999). *Tourist Service Satisfaction: Hotel, Transportation and Recreation*. USA: Sagamore.
- Nozawa, H. (1992). A marketing analysis of Japanese outbound travel. *Tourism Management*, 13(2), 226-233.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory*. (2 ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nyberg, L. (1994). Determinants of the attractiveness of a tourism region. In S. F. Witt & L. Mountinho (Eds.), *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (2 ed.). UK: Prentice-Hall.
- Ohja, J. M. (1982). Selling benign tourism: Case references from Indian scene. *Tourism Recreation Research*, June, 23-24.
- Ono, Y. (1993). Marketing: Focus on Japan. *The Wallstreet Journal* (July 21), B1.
- Page, S. J., & Dowling, R. K. (2002). *Ecotourism*. London: Pearson Education.
- Pathong, P. (1992). *Thailand: 76 Provinces*. Bangkok: Sam Prachachon.
- Pearce, D. (1987). *Tourism Today: A Geographical Analysis*. UK: Longman Group.
- Pearce, P. L. (1982). Perceived changes in holiday destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9, 145-164.
- Pearce, P. L. (1988). *The Ulysses Factor: Evaluating Visitors in Tourist Settings*. New York: Springer.
- Pearce, P. L. (1993). The fundamentals of tourist motivation. In D. Pearce & R. Butler (Eds.), *Tourism Research: Critique and Challenges*. London: Routledge.
- Peleggi, M. (1996). National heritage and global tourism in Thailand. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 432-448.
- Peter, M. E., Mark, P. (1997). Destination price-value perceptions: An examination of origin and seasonal influences. *Journal of Travel Research*. 35(3), 16-22.
- Pike, S. (2002). Destination image analysis - a review of 142 papers from 1973 to 2000. *Tourism Management*, 23, 541-549.
- Pizam, A., Jansen-Verbeke, M., & Steel, L. (1997). Are all tourists alike, regardless of nationality? The perceptions of Dutch tour-guides. *Journal of International Hospitality, Leisure & Tourism Management*, 1(1), 19-39.
- Pizam, A., & Jeong, G.-H. (1996). Cross-cultural tourist behavior, Perceptions of Korean tour-guides. *Tourism Management*, 17(4), 277-286.
- Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1993). Predicting satisfaction among first time visitors to a destination by using the expectancy disconfirmation theory. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 12, 197-209.

- Pizam, A., Neumann, Y., & Reichel, A. (1978). Dimensions of tourist satisfaction with a destination area. *Annals of Tourism Research*, July/September, 314-322.
- Pizam, A., Pine, R., & Mok, C. (1997). Nationality vs industry cultures: which has a greater effect on management behavior? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 16(2), 127-145.
- Poon, A., & Adams, E. (2000). *Tourism Intelligence International*. Bielefeld, Germany.
- Prideaux, B. (1995). *Taiwan's Outbound tourism Industry Opportunities for Australia* [CD-Rom]. Perth, Western Australia: Council for Australian University Tourism and Hospitality Education.
- Prideaux, B. (1998). Culture and vacation satisfaction: A study of Taiwanese tourists in South East Queensland. *Tourism Management*, 21(5), 445-449.
- Prideaux, B. (1999). The resort development spectrum - A new approach to modelling resort development. *Tourism Management*, 21, 225-240.
- Prideaux, B. (2000). The role of the transport system in destination development. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 53-64.
- Reid, L. J., & Reid, S. D. (1997). Traveler Geographic Origin and Market Segmentation for Small Island Nations: The Barbados Case. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 6(3/4), 5-22.
- Reilly, M. D. (1990). Free elicitation of descriptive adjective for tourism image assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(4), 21-26.
- Richardson, S. L., & Crompton, J. (1988). Vacation patterns of French and English Canadians. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 5(4), 430-448.
- Richardson, S. L., & Crompton, J. (1988). Vacation Patterns of French and English Canadians. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(430-448).
- Ritchie, J. R. B., Crouch, G. I., & Hudson, S. (2001). Developing Operational Measures for the Components of a Destination Competitiveness / Sustainability Model: Consumer versus Managerial Perspectives. In J. A. Mazanec & G. I. Crouch & J. R. B. Ritchie & A. G. Woodside (Eds.), *Consumer Psychology of Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure* (Vol. 2). New York: CABI.
- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Goeldner, C. R. (1987). *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers*. Canada: John Wiley & Sons.
- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Zins, M. (1978). Culture as Determinant of the Attractiveness of a Tourism Region. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 5(28-33).
- Ritter, W. (1987). Styles of Tourism in the Modern World. *Tourism Recreation Research* 12(1), 3-8.

- Rittichainuwat, B., Qu, H., & Brown, T. J. (2001). Thailand's international travel image: Mostly favorable. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42(2), 82-95.
- Robru, N. (2000). *Chiang Mai* (3 ed.). Bangkok: Sarakadee Press.
- Romsa, G. & Blenman, M. (1989). Vacation patterns of the elderly German. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(2), 178-188.
- Ross, G. F. (1998). *The Psychology of Tourism* (2 ed.). Melbourne: Hospitality Press.
- Rozenberg, M. J., & Hovland, C. I. (1960). Cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of attitudes. In C. I. Hovland & M. J. Rosenberg (Eds.), *Attitude Organization and Change* (pp. 1-14). New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press.
- Ryan, C. (1995). Learning about tourists from conversations: the over-55s in Mojaorca. *Tourism Management*, 16(3), 207-215.
- Ryan, C. (1998). The Travel Career Ladder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25, 936-957.
- Sabuy.com (2001). *Thailand: 76 Provinces -- Maps*. Retrieved September 12, 2002, from http://www.sabuy.com/76sabuy/newmap/map_chengmai.gif
- Schiffman, L. (2001). *Consumer Behaviour* (2 ed.). Australia: Prentice Hall.
- Schuster, C. P., & Copeland, M. J. (1986). *Global business: Planning for sales and negotiation*. Fort Worth, TX: Dryden Press.
- Selwyn, T. (1993). Peter Pan in South-East Asia: views from the brochures. In M. Hitchcock & V. King & M. Pamwell (Eds.), *Tourism in South-East Asia* (pp. 117-137). London: Routledge.
- Shoemaker, S. (1989). Segmentation of the senior pleasure travel market. *Journal of Travel Research*, 20, 14-21.
- Sirgy, M. J., & Su, C. (2000). Destination image, self-congruity, and travel behavior: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Travel Research*, May 38(4), 340-352.
- Smith, S. L. J. (1987). Regional Analysis of Tourism Resources. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(2), 254-273.
- Smith, S. L. J. (1989). *Tourism Analysis*. New York: Longman Scientific and Technical.
- Smith, V. (1998). War and Tourism: An American Ethnography. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 202-227.
- SPSS (1999). *SPSS Base 10.0 Application Guide*. SPSS, Chicago, IL.
- Stevens, B. F. (1992). Price Value Perceptions of Travellers. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(Fall), 44-48.

- Stringer, P. E. (1981). Hosts and guests: The bed and breakfast phenomenon. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8, 218-223.
- Sung, H. H., Morrison, A. M., Hong, G.-S., & O'Leary, J. T. (2001). The Effects of Household and Trip Characteristics on Trip Types: A Consumer Behavioral Approach for Segmenting the U.S. Domestic Leisure Travel Market. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Tourism Research*, 25(1), 46-68.
- Swarbrooke, J., & Horner, S. (1999). *Consumer Behaviour in Tourism*. London: Butterworth-Hienemann.
- Szinovacz, M. (1992). Leisure in retirement: Gender differences in limitations and opportunities. *World Leisure & Recreation*, 31(1): 14-17.
- Tang, J. C. S., & Rochananond, N. (1990). Attractiveness as a Tourist Destination: a Comparative Study of Thailand and Selected Countries. *Socio-Economic Planning Science*, 31(4), 3-13.
- Tepachai, N., & Waryszak, R. (2000). An examination of the role of beneficial image in tourist destination selection. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(1), 37-44.
- Thailand Board of Investment (BOI). (2002, May 15). *Thailand in Brief*. Retrieved May 15, 2002, from [wysiwyg://63http://www.boi.go.th/english/thailand/culture.html](http://www.boi.go.th/english/thailand/culture.html)
- Thailand Development Research Institute (TDRI) (2000). *Thailand Tourism Revenue*. Bangkok: TDRI.
- Thaiways. (1997). *Amazing Thailand 1998-1999*. 14(10), 41-48.
- Thornton, P. R., Shaw, G., & Williams, A. (2000). Tourist group holiday decision-making and behavior: the influence of children. In C. Ryan & S. J. Page (Eds.), *Tourism Management* (pp. 21-36). UK: Elsevier Science Ltd.
- Torgerson, W. S. (1958). *Theory and Methods of Scaling*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (1979) *Annual Report of Travel and Tourism in Thailand*. Bangkok: Statistics and Research Division, TAT.
- Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (1998) *Annual Report of Travel and Tourism in Thailand*. Bangkok: Statistics and Research Division, TAT.
- Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (1999) *Annual Report of Travel and Tourism in Thailand*. Bangkok: Statistics and Research Division, TAT.
- Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (2000). *Annual Report of TAT 2000*. Chiang Mai: TAT Northern Office Region.
- Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (2001). *Annual Report: Summary Statistical Report 2000*. Bangkok: Statistics and Research Division.

- Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) (2002). *Tourism Administration: TAT*. Retrieved May 15, 2002, from <http://www.tat.or.th/miscell/index.htm>
- Uysal, M. (2000, 2-5 February 2000). *Peak Performance in Tourism and Hospitality Research (presented on 2-5 February 2000)*, La Trobe University, Mt. Buller Campus.
- Uysal, M., & Hagan, L. (1993). Motivations of pleasure travel and tourism. In M. O. Khan & T. Var (Eds.), *Encyclopaedia of Hospitality and Tourism* (pp. 798-810). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Van, R. M. (1989). Researching the Taiwan market: A very different consumer. *Market and Research Today*, 17(1), 54-57.
- Var, T., Beck, R. A. D., & Loftus, P. (1977). Determination of Touristic Attractiveness of the Touristic Areas in British Columbia. *Journal of Travel Research*, 15(3), 23-29.
- Var, T., Toh, R., & Khan, H. (1998). Tourism and ASEAN Economic Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(1), 195-196.
- Vaughan, D. R., & Edwards, J. (1999). Experiential perceptions of two winter sun destinations: The Algarve and Cyprus. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 5(4), 356-368.
- Wagner, U. (1977). Out of Time and Place: Mass Tourism and Charter Trips. *Ethnos*, 42, 38-52.
- Wang, Z. (1996). *The Taiwanese Tourists' Perceptions of Hotel Services in New Zealand - a Research Project. Unpublished paper*. Canterbury, New Zealand: Lincoln University.
- Wang, Z., Kandampully, J., & Ryan, C. (1998). Taiwanese visitors to New Zealand: An Analysis of Attitudes. *Pacific Tourism Review*, 2, 29-41.
- Wang, Z., & Ryan, C. (1997, 6-9 July, 1997). *Negotiating tactics of Japanese, Taiwanese and New Zealand tourists*. Paper presented at the Tourism Research - Building a Better Industry, Manly Beach, Sydney.
- Weaver, D., & Oppermann, M. (2000). *Tourism Management*. Milton: Jacaranda Wiley.
- Weaver, P. A., & Heung, C. O. (1993). Do American business travellers have different hotel service requirements? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 5(3), 16-21.
- Weaver, P. A., McCleary, K. W., Lepisto, L. & Damonte, L. T. (1994). The Relationship of destination Selection Attributes to Psychological, Behavioral and Demographic Variables. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 2(2), 93-109.

- Weber, K. (1997). The assessment of Tourist Satisfaction Using the Expectation Disconfirmation Theory: A Study of the German Travel market in Australia. *Pacific Tourism Review*, 1, 35-35.
- Weightman, B. (1987). Third world tour landscapes. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14, 227-239.
- Weiermair, K., & Fuchs, M. (1999). Measuring tourist judgements on service quality. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 1004-1021.
- Wilkie, W. L. (1994). *Consumer Behaviour* (3 ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1981). *What is the World Tourism Organization?* Madrid: WTO.
- World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1998). *Yearbook of Tourism Statistics 50th Edition*. Madrid: WTO.
- World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1999a). *Compendium of Tourism Statistics 1993 - 1997, 19th Edition*. Madrid: WTO.
- World Tourism Organization (WTO) (1999b). *Tourism: 2020 Vision - Executive Summary*. Madrid: WTO.
- World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2000). *WTTC Key Statistics 1999*. Retrieved July 26, 2000, from http://www.wttc.org/economic_research/keystats.htm
- Wutdanairaj, W. (1992). *A Geographical Analysis of Travel Agencies in Chiang Mai Municipality*. Unpublished Master of Science in Geography, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai.
- Yamaguchi, M., Emenheiser, D. A., & Reynolds, J. S. (2000). Meeting the Needs of Japanese Consumers: Hotel in Japan and the United States. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(1/2), 201-210.
- You, X. & O'Leary, J. T. (2000). Age and cohort effects: an examination of older Japanese travelers. In K. S. Chon, T. Inagaki & T. Ohashi (Eds.). *Japanese Tourists: Socio-Economic Marketing and Psychological Analysis*. New York: The Haworth Press Inc.
- Yuksel, A., & Yuksel, F. (2001). Comparative performance analysis: Tourists' perceptions of Turkey relative to other tourist destinations. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 7(4), 333-355.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2000). *Exploring Marketing Research* (7 ed.). Orlando, Florida, USA.: Harcourt Brace & Company.

APPENDIX A

A SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Survey Questionnaire

Dear Visitor

My name is Chompunoot MORACHAT and I am a PhD student at Edith Cowan University, Western Australia. I am conducting a survey to determine the tourist destination attractiveness. This questionnaire is designed to discover **how you feel about the attractiveness of Chiang Mai Province**. Your input is very important to assist in both the study project and the development of travel and tourism in Thailand. You are invited to spend a few minutes of your time giving your opinions on the subject with us. The information you provide will remain strictly confidential.

All of the questions can be answered by placing a tick in the box and the table provided next to the category that is closest to your opinion. Following **Part I**, there is an **explanation of the attributes** you are asked to rate on **Appendix**.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

If you have any further questions/comments regarding this survey, do not hesitate to contact

Chompunoot MORACHAT

PhD Candidate:

School of Marketing, Tourism and Leisure

Faculty of Business & Public Management

Edith Cowan University

Perth, Western Australia, 6027

Ph: (+ 61 8 9400 5727)

Fax: (+ 61 8 9400 5840)

E-mail: 

Part I : Perceived Attractiveness of the Destination

'To what extent do you rate the attractiveness of Chiang Mai Province?'

Please rate the following attributes on the scale of 1 - 5, where 1 = **Not attractive**, 5 = **Outstandingly attractive** by placing a tick in the appropriate box. See **Appendix** for explanation of attributes listed in the table below.

Attributes	Not Attractive (1)	Fairly Attractive (2)	Attractive (3)	Very Attractive (4)	Outstandingly Attractive (5)
Natural factors					
Cultural features					
Recreational and shopping facilities					
Infrastructure					
Accessibility					
Reception					
Services					
Cost/Price					

NB Please see the explanation of the attributes on **Appendix**.

(over please)

Part II: Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes

Please **rate** the following attributes in terms of their importance level on the scale of 1-5, while **1= Not at all important, and 5 = Most important** by **placing a tick** on the appropriate box.

Attributes	Not at all Important (1)	Marginally Important (2)	Important (3)	Very Important (4)	Most Important (5)
Natural beauty					
Climate					
Water					
Wildlife					
Vegetation					
Architectural and Artistic features					
Historical and Ancient ruins					
Carnivals and Festivals					
Distinctive local Features					
Religion					
Food					

(over please)

Attributes	Not at all Important (1)	Marginally Important (2)	Important (3)	Very Important (4)	Most Important (5)
Outdoor activities					
Facilities pursuing health. Rest, and serenity					
Night time recreation and shopping facilities					
The quality and availability of different means of transportation					
Accommodation					
The physical distance to vacation destinations					
The time involved in reaching the vacation destination					
Information centres, interpretation and language services					
Pedestrian signposts and displayed maps					
Tour local guides and tour operators					
Community attitudes towards tourists					

(over please)

Attributes	Not at all Important (1)	Marginally Important (2)	Important (3)	Very Important (4)	Most Important (5)
Bank/cash machine and currency exchange					
Police/Security					
Medical/Health Services					
Communications					
Energy/water supply and sewerage services					
The value received for money spent on food within the Province					
The value received for money spent on lodging within the Province					
The value received for money spent on transportation within the Province					

(over please)

Part III : Background Information

The following are some personal questions about you that will be used for statistic purpose only. Your answers will be held with strictest confidence.

Please **make a tick** on the basis of your own facts, and **write** in your own answer besides or beneath.

1. *Which of these statements is the **most important motivation** to you for choosing **Chiang Mai Province** as your vacation destination area?*

Please **TICK ONE**

a.1) adventuresome experiences

a.2) fun

b.1) unique cultures different from my own

b.2) learning about new things

c.1) the chance to talk about the trip after I return home

c.2) the chance to go to places my friends/relatives haven't been

d.1) the opportunity to be together as a family

d.2) activities for the whole family

e.1) a simpler life

e.2) getting away from the demands of home

f) Other (Specify) _____

(over please)

2. What is the **main reason** for your visit to Chiang Mai?

Please **TICK ONE**.

- Leisure (e.g. recreation, holiday, sports, etc.) Other
- Education (Please Specify)
- Visiting Friends/Relatives
- Business

3. Are you Male or Female?

4. What is your present age?

- Under 15 45 -54
- 15 - 24 55 - 64
- 25 - 34 65 and above
- 35 - 44

5. What is **the highest** level of education you have attained?

- Less than High School Three- year college
- High School Four-year college
- Some college 1st University degree
- Two-year college Master/Higher degree

6. What is your usual occupation?

- White collar
- Blue collar
- Unemployed
- Other.....(Please Specify)

(over please)

7. What is your yearly household income?

Less than US\$ 20,000

US\$ 60,001 - 80,000

US\$ 20,001 - 40,000

US\$ 80,001 and more

US\$ 40,001 - 60,000

8. Which of the following best described your present marital status?

Never married

Married

Single

No answer/Refused

9. How many *dependent* children under the age of 18 do you have?

None

One

Two and more

No answer/Refused

10. What is your **nationality**? (Please specify) _____

11. Do you intend to go back to Chiang Mai for your next holiday?

Yes

No

12. Do you have any criticisms of the arrangements for your holiday, or suggestions for improvements?

Thank you very much for your participation. Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

APPENDIX

An Explanation of Attributes for Part I.

No	Attributes	Considerations
1	Natural factors	Natural beauty; climate; water; wildlife; vegetation
2	Cultural features	Architectural and artistic feature; historical and ancient ruins; carnivals and festivals; distinctive local features; religion; and food
3	Recreational and shopping facilities	Outdoor activities; facilities pursuing health, rest, and serenity; nighttime recreation; and shopping facilities
4	Infrastructure	The quality and availability of different means of transportation, accommodation
5	Accessibility	The physical distance to and the time involved in reaching the vacation destination
6	Reception	Information centers; interpretation and language services; pedestrian signposts; display maps; tour-local guides and tour operators; community attitudes towards tourists
7	Services	Banks/cash machines; currency exchange; police/security; medical/health services; communications; energy supply; water supply; and sewerage services
8	Cost/Price	The value received for money spent on major services, food, lodging, and transportation within the Province

APPENDIX B (B1 – B6)

**TOURISTS' PERCEIVED ATTRACTIVENESS OF CHIANG MAI
BY RESPONDENTS FROM SIX COUNTRY OF ORIGIN**

Appendix B1: Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Respondents from France

Attributes	Rating Scale						\bar{x} *	SD	Attractiveness Ranking
	Of Less Attractiveness			Of More Attractiveness					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Reception	-	12	18	50	28	108	3.87	.93	1
Cultural Features	-	1	38	49	20	108	3.81	.74	2
Services	-	8	27	52	21	108	3.80	.84	3
Natural Factors	2	4	35	45	22	108	3.75	.89	4
Cost/Price	1	8	34	41	24	108	3.73	.92	5
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	1	10	33	50	14	108	3.61	.86	6
Accessibility	2	12	43	43	8	108	3.40	.85	7
Infrastructure	2	12	43	43	8	108	3.05	.91	8

* The scores are obtained by utilising the simple average technique. Scale: 1 = Not attractive, 2 = Fairly attractive, 3 = Attractive, 4 = Very attractive, 5 = Outstandingly attractive

Appendix B2: Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Respondents from Taiwan

Attributes	Rating Scale						\bar{x} *	SD	Attractiveness Ranking
	Of Less Attractiveness			Of More Attractiveness					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Reception	4	10	36	27	30	107	3.64	1.10	1
Cost/Price	8	19	28	30	25	107	3.48	1.17	2
Cultural Features	4	18	36	32	17	107	3.37	1.06	3
Services	4	18	36	34	15	107	3.36	1.04	4
Natural Factors	4	26	37	29	11	107	3.16	1.03	5
Accessibility	9	20	48	24	6	107	2.98	.99	6
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	14	22	38	25	8	107	2.92	1.13	7
Infrastructure	21	31	41	11	3	107	2.48	1.01	8

* The scores are obtained by utilising the simple average technique. Scale: 1 = Not attractive, 2 = Fairly attractive, 3 = Attractive, 4 = Very attractive, 5 = Outstandingly attractive

Appendix B3: Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Respondents from United Kingdom

Attributes	Rating Scale						— \bar{x} *	SD	Attractiveness Ranking
	Of Less Attractiveness			Of More Attractiveness					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Cultural Feature	1	2	27	61	23	114	3.90	.76	1
Reception	-	8	32	39	35	114	3.89	.93	2
Cost/Price	-	6	31	52	25	114	3.84	.83	3
Natural Factors	-	10	38	43	23	114	3.69	.89	4
Accessibility	3	10	42	49	10	114	3.46	.87	5
Services	-	11	45	42	16	114	3.55	.85	6
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	2	15	33	46	18	114	3.55	.97	6
Infrastructure	5	38	44	24	3	114	2.84	.90	8

* The scores are obtained by utilising the simple average technique. Scale: 1 = Not attractive, 2 = Fairly attractive, 3 = Attractive, 4 = Very attractive, 5 = Outstandingly attractive

Appendix B4: Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Respondents from Germany

Attributes	Rating Scale						— X *	SD	Attractiveness Ranking
	Of Less Attractiveness			Of More Attractiveness					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Services	-	3	22	35	21	81	3.91	.82	1
Cultural Features	-	9	20	35	17	81	3.74	.92	2
Natural Factors	-	6	23	41	11	81	3.70	.80	3
Cost/Price	-	7	30	27	17	81	3.67	.91	4
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	1	4	33	31	12	81	3.60	.85	5
Reception	-	9	29	29	14	81	3.59	.91	6
Accessibility	-	6	41	28	6	81	3.42	.74	7
Infrastructure	1	10	40	23	7	81	3.31	.85	8

* The scores are obtained by utilising the simple average technique. Scale: 1 = Not attractive, 2 = Fairly attractive, 3 = Attractive, 4 = Very attractive, 5 = Outstandingly attractive

Appendix B5: Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Respondents from the United States

Attributes	Rating Scale						\bar{x} *	SD	Attractiveness Ranking
	Of Less Attractiveness			Of More Attractiveness					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Cost/Price	1	7	16	45	33	102	4.00	.92	1
Cultural Features	-	3	28	49	22	102	3.88	.77	2
Reception	1	9	22	40	30	102	3.87	.97	3
Services	1	7	23	48	23	102	3.83	.89	4
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	-	5	36	41	20	102	3.75	.83	5
Natural Factors	1	10	30	39	22	102	3.70	.95	6
Accessibility	-	14	32	41	15	102	3.56	.91	7
Infrastructure	6	22	37	30	7	102	3.10	1.01	8

* The scores are obtained by utilising the simple average technique. Scale: 1 = Not attractive, 2 = Fairly attractive, 3 = Attractive, 4 = Very attractive, 5 = Outstandingly attractive

Appendix B6: Tourists' Perceived Attractiveness of Chiang Mai by Respondents from Japan

Attributes	Rating Scale						— X *	SD	Attractiveness Ranking
	Of Less Attractiveness			Of More Attractiveness					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Natural Factors	-	5	19	38	40	102	4.11	.88	1
Cultural Features	-	2	21	44	35	102	4.10	.79	2
Cost/Price	-	6	33	43	20	102	3.75	.84	3
Reception	3	2	39	35	23	102	3.72	.94	4
Services	1	9	35	38	19	102	3.64	.92	5
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	2	11	44	29	16	102	3.45	.95	6
Accessibility	1	13	69	13	6	102	3.10	.72	7
Infrastructure	2	25	55	17	3	102	2.94	.78	8

* The scores are obtained by utilising the simple average technique. Scale: 1 = Not attractive, 2 = Fairly attractive, 3 = Attractive, 4 = Very attractive, 5 = Outstandingly attractive

APPENDIX C (C1 – C8)

ANOVA AND POST HOC TESTS FOR EIGHT ATTRIBUTES

Appendix C1: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for **Natural Factors**

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*		*	*	*	*
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

** Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix C2: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for **Cultural Features**

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*		*		*	*
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

** Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix C3: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for **Recreation and Shopping Facilities**

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*		*	*	*	*
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

** Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix C4: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for **Infrastructure**

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*			*	*	*
UK				*		
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

• *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix C5: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Accessibility

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*		*	*	*	
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan					*	

**Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix C6: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Reception

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan						
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

• *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix C7: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Services

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*			*	*	
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

- *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix C8: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Cost/Price

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan					*	
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

- * *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

APPENDIX D (D1 –D6)

**TOURISTS' PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES
OF
CHIANG MAI BY RESPONDENTS FROM THE SIX COUNTRY OF ORIGIN**

Appendix D1: Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Respondents from France

Attributes	Rating Scale						\bar{x}^*	SD	Importance Ranking
	Of Less Importance			Of More Importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Cost/Price	1	3	34	51	19	108	3.77	.76	1
Infrastructure	-	6	26	57	19	108	3.64	.76	2
Cultural Features	-	6	33	58	11	108	3.58	.66	3
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	-	5	52	45	6	108	3.51	.77	4
Services	-	7	42	52	7	108	3.50	.63	5
Natural Factors	-	7	59	35	7	108	3.43	.61	6
Reception	-	14	41	43	10	108	3.36	.77	7
Accessibility	1	15	43	45	4	108	3.11	.73	8

**Scale: 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Marginally important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, and 5 = Most important*

Appendix D2: Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Respondents from Taiwan

Attributes	Rating Scale						— x *	SD	Importance Ranking
	Of Less Importance			Of More Importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Cost/Price	2	5	26	39	35	107	3.92	.94	1
Reception	-	1	23	51	32	107	3.91	.72	2
Accessibility	1	4	30	37	35	107	3.78	.91	3
Infrastructure	-	2	34	46	25	107	3.76	.80	4
Services	-	3	38	42	24	107	3.74	.76	5
Cultural features	-	4	47	41	15	107	3.57	.67	6
Natural Factors	-	7	52	35	13	107	3.50	.72	7
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	-	15	57	26	9	107	3.31	.77	8

**Scale: 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Marginally important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, and 5 = Most important*

Appendix D3: Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Respondents from the United Kingdom

Attributes	Rating Scale						\bar{x} *	SD	Importance Ranking
	Of Less Importance			Of More Importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Cost/Price	1	4	44	50	15	114	3.61	.75	1
Infrastructure	1	6	31	56	20	114	3.57	.82	2
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	1	8	39	55	11	114	3.56	.73	3
Cultural features	-	7	46	53	8	114	3.46	.64	4
Services	2	17	41	45	9	114	3.41	.81	5
Natural Factors	-	10	56	43	5	114	3.38	.63	6
Reception	-	12	48	46	8	114	3.28	.74	7
Accessibility	4	22	37	40	11	114	3.10	.96	8

**Scale: 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Marginally important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, and 5 = Most important*

Appendix D4: Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Respondents from Germany

Attributes	Rating Scale						\bar{x} *	SD	Importance Ranking
	Of Less Importance			Of More Importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Infrastructure	-	-	25	44	12	81	3.65	.66	1
Cost/Price	-	3	33	37	8	81	3.61	.68	2
Cultural features	1	4	30	39	7	81	3.52	.66	3
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	-	6	31	40	4	81	3.51	.66	4
Services	-	1	45	30	5	81	3.47	.56	5
Natural Factors	-	6	40	28	7	81	3.43	.66	6
Accessibility	-	3	44	28	6	81	3.27	.69	7
Reception	-	12	32	33	4	81	3.20	.72	8

**Scale: 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Marginally important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, and 5 = Most important*

Appendix D5: Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Respondents from the United States

Attributes	Rating Scale						\bar{x} *	SD	Importance Ranking
	Of Less Importance			Of More Importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Cost/Price	-	9	26	45	22	102	3.75	.82	1
Infrastructure	-	5	30	52	15	102	3.61	.76	2
Cultural Features	-	3	41	48	10	102	3.58	.61	3
Services	-	10	41	38	13	102	3.50	.78	4
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	-	14	30	48	10	102	3.48	.74	5
Reception	2	15	31	40	14	102	3.37	.94	6
Natural Factors	-	8	58	28	8	102	3.35	.72	7
Accessibility	1	16	39	35	11	102	3.25	.89	8

**Scale: 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Marginally important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, and 5 = Most important*

Appendix D6: Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes by Respondents from Japan

Attributes	Rating Scale						— \bar{x} *	SD	Importance Ranking
	Of Less Importance			Of More Importance					
	1	2	3	4	5	Total			
Cost/Price	1	2	22	54	23	102	4.03	1.14	1
Cultural Features	-	-	16	61	25	102	4.01	.57	2
Natural Factors	-	4	28	44	26	102	3.84	.74	3
Recreation and Shopping Facilities	-	6	42	45	9	102	3.60	.67	4
Services	-	5	44	48	5	102	3.54	.67	5
Reception	-	3	38	52	9	102	3.53	.67	6
Infrastructure	-	3	40	47	12	102	3.44	.70	7
Accessibility	-	7	47	36	12	102	3.38	.76	8

**Scale: 1 = Not at all important, 2 = Marginally important, 3 = Important, 4 = Very important, and 5 = Most important.*

APPENDIX E (E1 – E8)
ANOVA AND POST HOC TESTS FOR EIGHT IMPORTANCE
ATTRIBUTES

Appendix E1: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Natural Factors

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						*
Taiwan						*
UK						*
Germany						*
USA						*
Japan						

- *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix E2: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Cultural Features

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						*
Taiwan						*
UK						*
Germany						*
USA						*
Japan						

- * *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix E3: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Recreation and Shopping Facilities

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan						
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

** Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix E4: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Infrastructure

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan						
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

** Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix E5: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Accessibility

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*		*	*	*	*
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

** Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix E6: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for Reception

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan	*		*	*	*	*
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

** Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix E7: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for **Services**

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan			*			
UK						
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

- *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

Appendix E8: ANOVA and Post Hoc Tests for **Cost/Price**

	France	Taiwan	UK	Germany	USA	Japan
France						
Taiwan						
UK						*
Germany						
USA						
Japan						

- * *Significant difference at $p < .05$*

APPENDIX F (F1 – F8)

**DIFFERENCES IN TOURISTS' PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF
DESTINATION SUB-ATTRIBUTES BY GEOGRAPHICAL REGION**

Appendix F1: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Natural Factor

Attributes	Western (N=405)		Asian (N=209)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. Natural beauty	3.89	.81	3.89	.88	-.048	.962	NS*
2. Climate	3.41	.94	3.58	1.06	-1.976	.049	< .05
3. Water	2.98	1.11	3.76	1.04	-8.383	.000	< .01
4. Wildlife	3.20	1.00	3.54	1.13	-3.658	.000	< .01
5. Vegetation	3.48	.94	3.56	1.07	-.865	.388	NS

- *NS = Non-significant*

Appendix F2: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Cultural Feature

Attributes	Western (N=405)		Asian (N=209)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. Architectural and artistic features	3.59	.96	3.78	.94	-2.308	.021	< .05
2. Historical and ancient ruins	3.72	1.01	4.07	.91	-4.425	.000	< .01
3. Carnivals and festivals	3.34	1.08	3.84	.98	-5.602	.000	< .01
4. Distinctive local features	3.53	.90	3.88	.99	-4.468	.000	< .01
5. Religion	3.26	1.17	3.37	1.21	-1.086	.278	NS*
6. Food	3.78	1.05	3.78	1.07	-.077	.939	NS

- * *NS = Non-significant*

Appendix F3: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Recreation and Shopping Facilities

Attributes	Western (n=405)		Asian (n=209)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. Outdoor activities	3.52	.94	3.36	.99	1.927	.054	NS*
2. Facilities pursuing for health, rest, and serenity	3.42	.95	3.64	1.01	-2.563	.011	< .05
3. Nighttime recreation and shopping centres	3.60	.97	3.36	1.10	2.742	.006	< .05

- *NS = Non-significant*

Appendix F4: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Infrastructure

Attributes	Western (n=405)		Asian (n=209)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. Quality and availability of transportation	3.54	.93	3.43	.95	1.476	.140	NS*
2. Accommodation	3.69	.83	3.78	.88	-1.363	.173	NS

- **NS = Non-significant*

Appendix F5: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Accessibility

Attributes	Western (N=405)		Asian (N=309)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. Physical distance to the vacation destination	3.21	.91	3.57	.95	-4.585	.000	< .01
2. Time involved in reaching the vacation destination	3.14	.98	3.60	.95	-5.563	.000	< .01

Appendix F6: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Reception

Attributes	Western (N=405)		Asian (N=209)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. Information centres, interpretation and language services	3.05	1.11	3.67	.98	-6.848	.000	< .01
2. Pedestrian signposts and displayed maps	3.08	1.10	3.67	1.06	-6.319	.000	< .01
3. Tour local guides and tour operators	3.30	1.14	3.75	1.07	-4.694	.000	< .01
4. Community attitude toward tourists	3.79	1.02	3.81	.92	-.190	.849	NS*

- *NS = Non-significant*

Appendix F7: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Services

Attributes	Western (n=405)		Asian (n=209)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. Bank/cash machines and currency exchange	3.61	1.00	3.53	1.07	.986	.325	NS*
2. Police/security	3.50	.96	4.00	.98	-6.031	.000	< .01
3. Medical/health services	3.41	.93	3.64	.98	-2.768	.006	< .05
4. Communication	3.45	.97	3.44	1.01	.167	.868	NS
5. Energy/water supply and sewerage services	3.36	.97	3.61	1.02	-2.968	.003	< .05

* NS = Non-significant

Appendix F8: Differences in Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Sub-attributes: Cost/Price

Attributes	Western (n=405)		Asian (n=209)		t	Probability	Significance
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD			
1. The value for money spent on food in the destination	3.74	.86	3.97	.94	-3.048	.002	< .05
2. The value for money spent on lodging in the destination	3.72	.84	4.00	.91	-3.741	.000	< .01
3. The value for money spent on transportation in the destination	3.60	.91	3.95	2.26	-2.684	.007	< .05

APPENDIX G

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE TOURIST' PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF DESTINATION ATTRIBUTES AND THEIR INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL CHARACTERISTICS

Relationship between Tourists' Perceived Importance of Destination Attributes and Tourists' Travel Motivation, Travel Purpose, and Socio-demographics

Variables	df	Natural Factors		Cultural Features		Recreation and Shopping Facilities		Infrastructure		Accessibility		Reception		Services		Cost/Price	
		χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p
Travel Motivation	8	7.056	NS*	9.708	NS	21.340	.006	16.776	.033	8.687	NS	6.598	NS	13.868	NS	18.665	.017
Travel Purpose	8	12.004	NS	16.592	.035	4.862	NS	12.207	NS	8.928	NS	5.244	NS	9.565	NS	19.395	.013
Gender	2	1.830	NS	1.062	NS	3.391	NS	10.992	.004	2.856	NS	20.554	.000	3.299	NS	5.377	NS
Age Group	12	14.299	NS	17.723	NS	13.171	NS	11.862	NS	20.252	NS	20.508	NS	30.676	.002	13.640	NS
Education Level	14	20.116	NS	37.229	.001	17.033	NS	18.922	NS	23.947	.047	24.841	.036	24.541	.039	28.979	.011
Occupation	6	4.693	NS	7.409	NS	9.480	NS	2.687	NS	3.055	NS	18.679	.005	7.539	NS	10.439	NS
Income	12	22.027	.037	17.081	NS	15.801	NS	10.562	NS	7.372	NS	10.670	NS	15.943	NS	8.720	NS
Marital Status	6	13.631	.034	3.691	NS	11.280	NS	5.730	NS	16.925	.010	23.896	.001	11.127	NS	5.404	NS
Family Size	6	9.869	NS	6.896	NS	6.614	NS	7.610	NS	15.524	.017	9.104	NS	8.157	NS	3.531	NS

*NS = Non-significant relationships between variables.