

DEVELOPMENT OF A STRUCTURAL MODEL FOR  
QUALITY CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM

KONG WENG HANG

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of  
Nottingham Trent University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

November 2010

## **Abstract**

The aim of this research is to develop and test a theoretical model of quality cultural heritage tourism. It offers an integrated approach to understanding cultural heritage development and management of tourist destinations, and attempts to extend the theoretical and empirical evidence regarding causal relationships including quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The previous literature has already presented the relationship among perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in cultural heritage tourism. However, there is a relative lack of academic interest, particularly in Macao. Thus, this research tries to investigate the quality and related constructs in cultural heritage tourism. It seeks to understand the major constructs considered by local stakeholders and visitors in evaluating the quality in cultural heritage tourism, the importance of the availability of quality in the overall experience, visitors' behaviour toward quality cultural heritage tourism and also the constructs related to quality.

The methodological approach of this research includes qualitative and quantitative methods in the field research in Macao, China. Semi-structured interviews with Macao stakeholders and a questionnaire survey with Macao visitors were used for data collection. A structural model of the relationships between perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions was tested SEM used in quantitative study tested the validity, reliability and potential of the quality models developed from literature reviews and grounded theory. The findings provide further evidence for the importance of perceived quality and quality of experience as the major constructs in the development of cultural heritage tourism and as a strategic objective which emphasises it as the core construct in cultural heritage tourism. The study also examines whether there is a relationship between quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in cultural heritage tourism. The findings show that perceived quality leads to quality of experience and satisfaction. In addition, it suggests that perceived quality and satisfaction are the important determinants of behavioural intentions. An unexpected finding concerned the antecedents of perceived quality and the empirical results from the structural modelling presented in the study shows that authenticity, interpretations and

behavioural intentions in cultural heritage tourism can affect the perceived quality which affects the quality of experience and their satisfaction indirectly. These results have generated a new concept in the literature. From the managerial standpoint, the findings offer suggestions for the future direction of cultural heritage tourism. It can enable researchers into cultural heritage tourism to gain a better understanding between these constructs and has shown an emerging consensus in their interrelationships. The tourism providers can improve quality of experience and perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism in order to develop effective strategies. Since cultural heritage tourism has been shown to be increasing and substantial, it should be beneficial for the destinations to examine the quality attributes and constructs that influence travelling and returning to cultural heritage destinations. By understanding the relationships between quality constructs, the tourism providers would better know how to develop cultural heritage tourism and improve the strategies to maximise its benefits. These findings are particularly useful to tourism providers because they provide directions for the implementation of sustainable cultural heritage tourism.

## **Acknowledgements**

Although I have declared this thesis which was my own work, its completion would not have been finished without the guidance, support and assistance of several individuals and organisations.

Specifically, I would like to thank my supervisors, Professors Myra Shackley and Dr. Vivienne Brunson in the supervision of the thesis and guidance. Their support, guidance and advice have enabled me to complete the journey of discovery.

I also would like to acknowledge the assistance of Institute for Tourism Studies. The support has been invaluable in the development of the thesis.

Finally, I would like to acknowledge the support of my husband, Kevin. The understanding during the writing of this thesis made the undertaking possible. This thesis is dedicated to him who instilled in me a love of learning.

Kong Weng Hang

November 2010

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract.....	1
Acknowledgments.....	2
Table of Contents.....	3
List of Tables.....	8
List of Figures.....	9
<b>Chapter 1 Introduction.....</b>	<b>10</b>
1.1 Introduction.....	10
1.2 Background.....	11
1.3 Research aims and objectives.....	12
1.4 Rationale of the research.....	13
1.5 Outline of chapters.....	15
<b>Chapter 2 Literature review.....</b>	<b>17</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	17
2.2 Definitions of cultural heritage tourism.....	18
2.2.1 Heritage tourism.....	18
2.2.2 Cultural tourism.....	19
2.2.3 Cultural heritage tourism.....	19
2.2.4 Cultural heritage attractions.....	22
2.2.5 Typologies of cultural heritage visitors.....	23
2.2.6 The importance of cultural heritage tourism.....	25
2.3 Conceptual background: Relationships between quality, satisfaction and expectation.....	27
2.3.1 Perceived quality.....	27
2.3.2 Satisfaction.....	28
2.3.3 Expectation.....	29
2.3.4 Expectation-based approach versus performance-only approach in evaluating visitor satisfaction.....	31
2.4 Conceptual background: Measuring quality in cultural heritage tourism.....	33
2.4.1 Service quality model.....	33
2.4.2 Visitor experience.....	37
2.4.3 Quality of experience.....	38
2.5 Conceptual background: Relationships between visitor experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions.....	40
2.5.1 Linkage between quality and visitor satisfaction.....	40
2.5.2 Linkage between quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions.....	42

2.5.3 Post-trip intentions.....	45
2.5.4 Linkage between visitor experience, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions.....	46
2.6 Proposed conceptual model in quality cultural heritage tourism.....	47
<b>Chapter 3 Cultural heritage tourism in Macao SAR, China.....</b>	<b>51</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	51
3.2 Background of Macao SAR.....	52
3.3 Overview of cultural heritage attractions in Macao SAR.....	53
3.4 World Heritage Sites in Macao SAR.....	59
3.5 SWOT analysis of cultural heritage tourism in Macao SAR.....	61
3.5.1 Strengths.....	62
3.5.2 Weaknesses.....	64
3.5.3 Opportunity.....	67
3.5.4 Threats.....	69
3.6 Implications.....	71
<b>Chapter 4 Methodology.....</b>	<b>74</b>
4.1 Introduction.....	74
4.2 Research methods.....	75
4.2.1 Research design.....	75
4.2.2 Rational of mixed research methods.....	78
4.2.3 Qualitative research methods.....	81
4.2.4 Quantitative research methods.....	84
4.3 Access and ethical considerations.....	85
4.4 Sampling Strategies.....	87
4.4.1 Interviews.....	87
4.4.2 Survey.....	89
4.4.3 Pilot study.....	90
4.4.4 Reflecting and refining research design.....	91
4.5 Data collection.....	91
4.5.1 Qualitative research methods.....	92
4.5.2 Quantitative research methods.....	93
4.6 Data analysis strategy.....	95
4.6.1 Qualitative research.....	96
4.6.2 Quantitative research.....	97
4.7 Limitations of research.....	98

<b>Chapter 5 Data Analysis (Study 1)</b> .....	100
5.1 Introduction.....	100
5.2 Literature review on grounded theory.....	101
5.2.1 Grounded theory in tourism and hospitality research.....	101
5.2.2 Concept of grounded theory.....	103
5.2.3 Methods of data collection.....	104
5.3 Preparation for data analysis.....	106
5.3.1 Theoretical sampling.....	106
5.3.2 Theoretical coding.....	108
5.3.3 Saturating theoretical categories.....	111
5.3.4 Theorising in grounded theory.....	111
5.4 Study 1 survey.....	113
5.5 Constructing grounded theory of quality of cultural heritage tourism.....	115
5.5.1 Findings.....	115
5.5.2 Model themes and model.....	129
<b>Chapter 6 Data Analysis (Study 2)</b> .....	140
6.1 Introduction.....	140
6.2 Literature review on structural equation modelling (SEM).....	141
6.2.1 Concepts of structural equation modelling (SEM).....	141
6.2.2 The applications of AMOS.....	143
6.2.3 Score reliability and validity for SEM analysis.....	144
6.3 Preparation of data analysis.....	145
6.4 Steps of structural equation modelling (SEM).....	147
6.4.1 Conceptualisation of structural model.....	147
6.4.2 Measurement model estimation.....	149
6.4.3 Measurement model evaluation.....	151
6.4.4 Model assessment and evaluation.....	151
6.4.5 Respecification.....	154
6.5 Hypotheses testing by structural equation modelling (SEM).....	155
6.5.1 Descriptive statistics.....	155
6.5.2 Respondents' profile.....	159
6.5.3 Reliability, normality and convergent validity analysis.....	161
6.5.4 Correlation coefficients among independent and dependent variables.....	163
6.5.5 Model conceptualisation.....	165
6.5.6 Testing the measurement model fit.....	166
6.5.7 Model identification.....	172

<b>Chapter 7 Implications and conclusion</b> .....	179
7.1 Introduction.....	179
7.2 Implications from qualitative data.....	180
7.2 Implications from quantitative data.....	184
7.3 Implications from quality model.....	187
7.5 Managerial Implications.....	192
7.6 Research Contributions.....	194
7.7 Conclusions.....	196
7.8 Recommendations for future work.....	198
<b>References</b> .....	200
<b>Appendices</b> .....	232
Appendix A: Interview questions in Study 1.....	232
Appendix B: The profile of respondents in Study 1.....	233
Appendix C: Questionnaire of Study 2 (English Version).....	234
Appendix D: Questionnaire of Study 2 (Chinese Version).....	238



## LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1 Categories of cultural heritage in Macao.....	55
Table 3.2 Visitor attractions in cultural heritage tourism organized in categories, sub-categories and establishments.....	57
Table 5.1 Grounded theory in tourism and hospitality research.....	102
Table 5.2 Two phases in data collection.....	108
Table 6.1 Demographic data of pilot and empirical studies.....	146
Table 6.2 Summary of reliability, weights and fit indices.....	154
Table 6.3 Descriptive statistics of variables in perceived quality and quality of experience.....	155
Table 6.4 Descriptive statistics of variables in satisfaction.....	156
Table 6.5 Descriptive statistics of variables in behavioural intentions.....	157
Table 6.6 Descriptive statistics of variables in authenticity.....	157
Table 6.7 Descriptive statistics of variables in interpretations.....	158
Table 6.8 Descriptive statistics of variables in educational benefits.....	159
Table 6.9 Descriptive statistics of independent and dependent variables.....	159
Table 6.10 Respondents' profile.....	161
Table 6.11 Reliability coefficients of scales used in the study.....	162
Table 6.12 Skewness and Kurtosis analysis.....	163
Table 6.13 Correlations of proposed variables.....	164
Table 6.14 Legend for labelling constructs/variables.....	165
Table 6.15 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of perceived quality.....	167
Table 6.16 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of satisfaction.....	168
Table 6.17 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of behavioural intentions.....	169
Table 6.18 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of authenticity.....	170
Table 6.19 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of interpretations.....	171
Table 6.20 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of educational benefits.....	172
Table 6.21 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of hypothesised model and competing model (Model 2).....	176
Table 6.22 Standardised estimates of the final model.....	177

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Outline of Chapter 1.....	11
Figure 2.1 Outline of Chapter 2.....	17
Figure 2.2 An overlapping concept between heritage and cultural tourism.....	20
Figure 2.3 Conceptual model of research.....	48
Figure 3.1 Outline of Chapter 3.....	51
Figure 4.1 Outline of Chapter 4.....	74
Figure 4.2 Research design.....	76
Figure 5.1 Outline of Chapter 5.....	100
Figure 5.2 The Relationship between quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavior intentions.....	136
Figure 5.3 Paradigm model.....	137
Figure 5.4 Quality of cultural heritage tourism: Model 2.....	138
Figure 6.1 Outline of Chapter 6.....	140
Figure 6.2 Procedures of SEM using AMOS.....	144
Figure 6.3 Hypothesised model.....	148
Figure 6.4 Model 2.....	149
Figure 6.5 Measurement model of perceived quality (CFA).....	167
Figure 6.6 Measurement model of satisfaction (CFA).....	168
Figure 6.7 Measurement model of behavioural intentions (CFA).....	169
Figure 6.8 Measurement model of authenticity (CFA).....	170
Figure 6.9 Measurement model of interpretations (CFA).....	171
Figure 6.10 Measurement model of educational benefits (CFA).....	172
Figure 6.11 Measurement model of the hypothesised model.....	173
Figure 6.12 Measurement model of the competing model (Model 2).....	175
Figure 6.13 Final model.....	177
Figure 7.1 Outline of Chapter 7.....	180

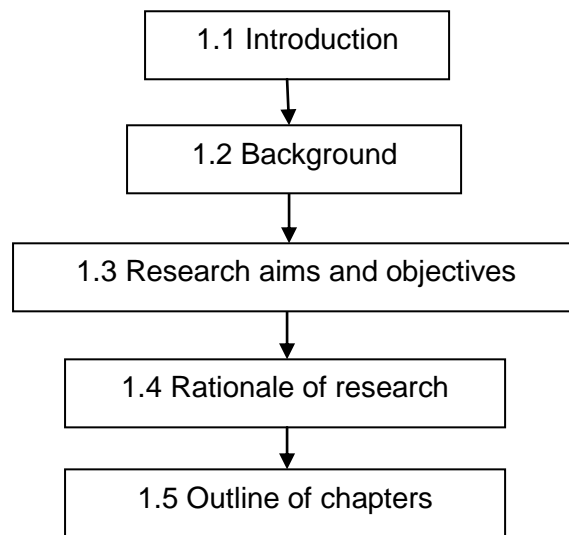
# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

The holidays and travel section of any weekend newspaper or magazine shows that cultural heritage tourism is an essential part of the tourism industry and planning cultural heritage tourism for destinations in which the importance of quality is highlighted is now increasingly common. It is necessary to create knowledge of quality cultural heritage tourism because it can be considered as the foundation of tourism planning, the author believes that developing a model of quality cultural heritage tourism can build up such knowledge. Although many models related to cultural heritage tourism have been developed in the past decades, the author considers that those models may not be applicable in Macao. More specifically, there are no previous studies investigating the quality of cultural heritage tourism in Macao. Based on this concept, instead of applying quality cultural heritage tourism models conceptualised in the previous literature, it is necessary to develop a model which is feasible for Macao. Therefore, the key contribution is the development of a model, based on an empirical site in Macao. Over to this chapter serves as an introduction to this research which is shown in Figure 1.1, presenting the research background in Section 1.2, aims and objectives of this study in Section 1.3, rationale of the research in Section 1.4 and a brief overview of the structure of this thesis in Section 1.5.

**Figure 1.1: Outline of Chapter 1**



## **1.2 Background**

The tourism industry is prominent in Macao's economy, particularly in the gaming sector. With a population of 549,200 inhabitants (DSEC, 2009b), visitor arrivals for the whole year of 2009 were 21,752,800 (DSEC, 2009a); in 2009 visitors were mainly from Mainland China (50.5%), followed by Hong Kong (20.9%) and Taiwan (5.9%). Mainland China remains Macao's largest source market. Each visitor stays for an average of 1.21 nights (DSEC, 2009a). Since the liberalisation of the gaming industry in 2003, the development of Macao's economy has been propelled by gaming together with tourism. Macao is renowned for its casinos and is often called the 'Las Vegas of the Orient'. Its gaming revenues alone contributed more than US\$7.2 billion in 2006, exceeding the US\$6.6 billion made on the Las Vegas strip during the same year (CIA, 2008), and have thus become an important feature of Macao's economy which depends almost entirely upon the gaming industry. Also, the development of tourism in Macao is mainly attributed to the expansion of its gaming sector. Therefore, the impact of the global economic recession is more obvious on tourism and the gaming industry. The gross gaming revenue went down by 12.7% (equivalent to <sup>1</sup>MOP26.25 billion in the first quarter of 2009). Visitor arrivals totalled 5,454,170 in the first quarter of 2009, down by 9.6% year-on-year (DSEC, 2009b). Per capita spending of visitors (excluding gaming expenses) for the

---

<sup>1</sup> MOP = Macao Patacas, US\$1 = MOP8

first quarter of 2009 contracted by 5.3% to MOP1,638, much lower than the MOP1,788 in the previous quarter, while the per capita shopping spending decreased by 10.8% to MOP657 (DSEC, 2009b). All these result from an over-concentrated tourism development in Macao, relying too heavily on the gaming industry. Diversification becomes a timely issue for policy makers to address in order to have more stabilised tourism development.

Although Macao is renowned for its gaming industry, the importance of cultural heritage tourism should not be disregarded. Due to its geographical background and the early settlement of the Portuguese, Macao became the perfect crossroads for the meeting of Eastern and Western cultures. With its rich culture and long history, 'The Historic Centre of Macao' was successfully inscribed on the World Heritage Site (WHS) List in 2005, making it the 31<sup>st</sup> designated World Heritage site in China. The importance of cultural heritage development in Macao is thus gaining greater importance. However, little research attention has been given to this aspect, especially the role of quality in Macao's cultural heritage tourism planning. To achieve Macao's strategic goal of 'Destination of Cultural Heritage in Asia', it is critical to develop a theoretical model for quality in cultural heritage tourism in order to sustain the future development of such tourism in Macao and to ensure effective performance in the future. Through investigation of the current situations in the perspective of the stakeholders and visitors, it is believed that both exercise some influence and may lead to the continuous improvement on the development of cultural heritage tourism in Macao. It can therefore boost Macao's multi-dimensional image and positive effects on the community by incorporating its cultural heritage attractions and other sectors in tourism.

### **1.3 Research aims and objectives**

This research aims to develop a theoretical model for quality in cultural heritage tourism in order to sustain the future development of Macao's cultural heritage tourism and ensure an effective performance. The intention is to develop an understanding of the constructs in quality and also how they relate to quality of experience, satisfaction and subsequently drive behavioural intentions. By

understanding the relationships between quality constructs and their determinants, destination tourism providers would know better how to build up the quality in cultural heritage tourism and improve their planning to maximise use of resources. The objectives of the research are therefore twofold. The first is to construct a more integrated model of quality in cultural heritage tourism by including the 'quality-satisfaction-behavioural intention' paradigm. The second is to determine the relationships between the quality constructs and affected attributes in their prediction of future behavioural intentions. In order to achieve the objectives, the research identifies constructs regarding quality in heritage tourism for Macao. The constructs include perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Specifically, it seeks to find out the major attributes considered by local stakeholders and visitors in evaluating those constructs in cultural heritage tourism for the Macao context. The proposed model also identifies the relationships among the quality constructs that are likely to influence the perceived quality, level of satisfaction and future behavioural intentions within cultural heritage tourism.

#### **1.4 Rationale of research**

Having introduced the aims and objective of the research, this section presents a justification of the chosen research topic, context and methodological approach. As mentioned above, this research originated from the author's own previous research experience through which the author believed that the topic is feasible. The research sets up a theoretical model through qualitative and quantitative methods. It first reviews literature on quality cultural heritage tourism as the foundation to understand the issues. Then, adopting the grounded theory approach, it proposes a model of quality cultural heritage tourism for Macao. Further, the research puts forward the constructs, each of which is discussed in reference to extant literature in tourism and is also used in the survey. These approaches attempt to understand the factors influencing quality with the objective to improve the quality of cultural heritage tourism.

Within the theoretical framework, this research is concerned with an analysis of quality constructs in cultural heritage tourism and integration of different theoretical

approaches. Even if the relationship between quality and visitor satisfaction is essential in cultural heritage tourism, behavioural intentions are also fundamental to tourism. On the other hand, successful tourism can increase destination's tourist receipts, income, employment and government revenues. It is crucial for the success of destination tourism development to understand how to attract tourists to revisit and recommend the destination to others (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Indeed, cultural heritage tourism has grown rapidly in recent years as a result of higher levels of education, more income, growing awareness of the world, globalisation processes that make the world a smaller place, technology, the effects of media and telecommunications and new types of cultural heritage attractions. There is a wide range of literature related to quality and satisfaction in the tourism field. Studying satisfaction or dissatisfaction is crucial because it may affect expectations for the next purchase and future behaviour (Westbrook & Newman, 1978; Woodruff, Cadotte & Jenkins, 1983). Baker and Crompton (2000) indicate that improvement in quality and satisfaction will result in retention or expansion of tourist numbers, more vociferous and active tourism support and ultimately enhanced profitability and political support. A substantial tourism literature has already evolved in the conceptualisation of the relationship between the constructs of quality and satisfaction. This research with its proposed structural model develops this in identifying the quality constructs referred to above in the context of cultural heritage tourism.

## **1.5 Outline of chapters**

This research is presented in seven chapters, covering literature review, research design and methodology, research findings, discussion and conclusion. The research addresses these topics, using the following format:

### **Introduction**

#### **Chapter 1 Introduction**

This chapter introduces the research background, research aims and objectives.

### **Literature Review and Background**

#### **Chapter 2 Literature Review**

The research develops and tests a theoretical model of quality cultural heritage tourism; therefore, this chapter examines and offers an integrated approach to understand cultural heritage development and management of tourist destinations. Several theories and models related to quality constructs are identified based on a review of the literature. Also, the relationships among perceptions of quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions are also discussed. In the conceptual background, the proposed model is built on this literature review.

#### **Chapter 3 Cultural Heritage Tourism in Macao SAR, China**

This chapter provides background and insights of cultural heritage tourism in the Macao SAR, China. It specifies the geographical location of this research and provides detailed information for the research context.

#### **Chapter 4 Methodology**

This chapter provides insights of the methodology chosen in this research and theoretical evidence regarding the methods. Two methods are assessed as a critical source for testing the proposed model in this research.



## **Studies**

### **Chapter 5 Data analysis (Study 1)**

This chapter is an examination of cultural heritage tourism in Macao. A qualitative methodology is adopted in this study. By using semi-structured interviews and a grounded theory approach, the study yields insights into the quality of cultural heritage tourism in Macao.

### **Chapter 6 Data analysis (Study 2)**

A quantitative method is adopted in this study. This chapter is to test the proposed hypotheses and the empirical study is based on information collected by a questionnaire completed by visitors to Macao.

## **Conclusions**

### **Chapter 7 Implications and Conclusions**

This chapter is devoted to discussion of the results from the two studies in relation to the relevant literature. Also, it synthesises the information into the model for understanding the quality of cultural heritage tourism. The end of this chapter concludes the thesis by presenting the theoretical, methodological and practical implications of this research, a reflection on the research limitations and recommendations for future work.

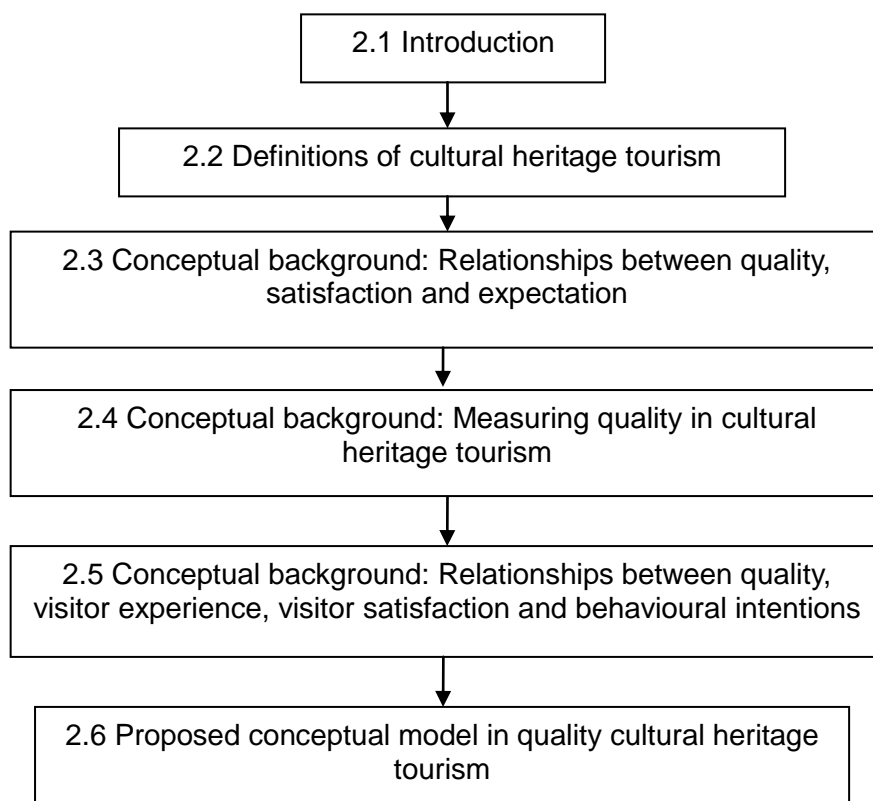
# CHAPTER 2

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

Quality is of vital importance for the prosperity of cultural heritage tourism and it is necessary to increase research interest and studies focusing on different aspects of quality and various research approaches. As quality is a key construct of this research, it is important to review previous work on quality and related constructs. This chapter serves to meet this end, as shown in Figure 2.1, starting with the definition of cultural heritage tourism in Section 2.2, followed by a review of some quality issues related to perceived quality, quality of experience and measuring quality in cultural heritage tourism in Section 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5. The relationships between quality, satisfaction, satisfaction theories and factors are also identified in previous research as influencing behavioural intentions in these sections. Finally, the proposed conceptual model in quality cultural heritage tourism is developed in Section 2.6.

**Figure 2.1: Outline of Chapter 2**



## **2.2 Definitions of cultural heritage tourism**

This section presents the definitions of heritage tourism, cultural tourism and cultural heritage tourism. In addition, cultural heritage attractions, typologies of cultural heritage visitors and importance of cultural heritage tourism are presented.

### *2.2.1 Heritage Tourism*

The word 'heritage' in its broader meaning is generally associated with the word 'inheritance', something transferred from one generation to another (Nuryanti, 1996, p.250). Based on this concept, 'heritage' is literally defined as what we inherit from the past through historic buildings, art works and beautiful scenery and then pass on from one generation to the next (Yale, 1991; Prentice, 1993a; Richards, 1996) and is part of the cultural tradition of a society (Sharpley, 1994). The word 'heritage' is used to denote a great number of phenomena of different kinds such as cultural, artistic, archaeological, historical, religious, military, natural and scenic (Prentice, 1993b). Over the last decade, however, it has become more broadly applied to describe virtually everything associated with the nation's history, culture, wildlife and landscape (Sharpley, 1994). The areas related to heritage are the natural, cultural and built environment (Millar, 1989). Heritage is integrally tied to nostalgia and private emotional experience. Poria, Butler and Airey (2004) offered the definition of heritage tourism that is a tourism subgroup in which the main motivation for visiting a site is based on the place's heritage characteristics according to the tourists' perception of their own heritage. Heritage tourism includes visiting sites or areas that make the visitor think of an earlier time and the history of places (Peterson, 1994), as well as being a broad field for specialist travel, based on nostalgia for the past and the desire to experience diverse cultural landscapes and forms (Zeppel & Hall, 1992). It is a form of special tourism that offers opportunities to portray the past in the present (Christou, 2005). Heritage tourism is based on the historic attributes of a tourism site (Poria, Butler & Airey, 2001a). Visitors are mainly motivated by heritage places, landscape and built heritage (Prentice, 1993b). Attractions include festivals, cultural events, historic sites and monuments, nature, folklore, art, pilgrimages (Zeppel & Hall, 1992) and also wildlife (Drummond & Yeoman, 2001).

### 2.2.2 *Cultural tourism*

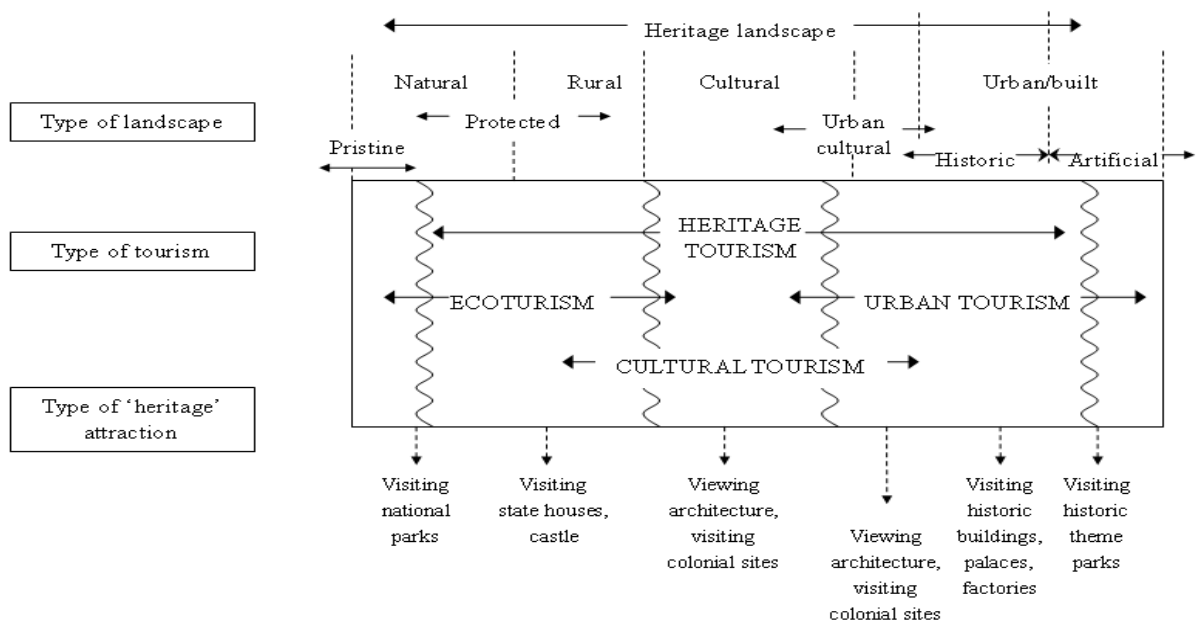
Cultural tourism is when tourists visit from outside the host community are motivated wholly or in part by an interest in or experiencing the historical sites, monuments, buildings, artistic, scientific or heritage offerings of a community, region, group or institution (Silberberg, 1995). Richards (1996) provides a technical definition of cultural tourism. It includes all movements of persons to specific cultural attractions such as heritage sites, cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside visitors' normal place of residence. It also refers to the historical and heritage sites, arts and crafts fairs and festivals, museums, the performing and visual arts. Tourists are interested in experiencing historic sites, monuments and buildings; visiting museums and galleries; attending concerts and the performing arts and in experiencing the culture of the destination (Tighe, 1985). Furthermore, tourists interested in culture may seek exposure to local behaviours and traditions, to different ways of life or to vestiges of a vanishing lifestyle (Tighe, 1985; Hall & Zeppel, 1990). Attractions in cultural tourism mainly include local culture (performing arts, galleries, museums and historic sites) and folk and popular culture (festivals, gastronomy, shopping and entertainment) or the multicultural environment (language, ethnicity) (Ritchie & Zins, 1978; Tahana & Oppermann, 1998). In general, cultural tourism is travel undertaken with historic sites, museums, the visual arts and/or the performing arts as significant elements (Tighe, 1985).

### 2.2.3 *Cultural heritage tourism*

Researchers often approach 'heritage tourism' as part of 'cultural tourism' and rely on the leisure and recreation literature (Poria et al., 2004) since experiencing heritage is one of several priorities in the cultural motivation to travel (Waitt, 2000). Heritage tourism is based on the presence of tourists in historic places or places where cultural artefacts are presented (Poria et al., 2004). It implies the relationships between cultural tourism and heritage tourism. Furthermore, Zeppel and Hall (1992) state that associations are made between culture and heritage; cultural tourism is experiential tourism which embraces being involved in and stimulated by the performing arts, visual arts and festivals. Heritage tourism is a form of visiting

preferred landscapes, historic sites, buildings or monuments to feel part of the history of a place. It is also experiential tourism in the sense of seeking an encounter with nature or feeling part of the history of a place. The significant common element between cultural tourism and heritage tourism is the experiential element (Hall & Zeppel, 1990). The heritage tourism focuses on the past, while the cultural tourism focuses on the present. However, Molloy (1993) mentions that the links between heritage and cultural tourism place heritage tourism within a broad field of special interest travel, as aspects of tourism range from the examination of physical remains of the past and natural landscapes to the experience of local cultural traditions. They stress that natural heritage shares many of the same attributes overall with cultural heritage. Prentice (1993b) mentions that heritage tourism has been hailed as one of the fastest growing forms of cultural tourism and that if one can assign meaning to the term 'heritage' it is generally related to culture in the form of buildings, art, well-known places, material artefacts, and modern-day people. According to Timothy and Boyd (2003), the term cultural tourism seems to be overlapping and interchangeable with heritage tourism. Figure 2.2 shows the associations between heritage tourism and cultural tourism.

**Figure 2.2: Overlapping concept between heritage and cultural tourism**



Source: Timothy and Boyd (2003)

Furthermore, consistent with more general global trends in cultural tourism, heritage tourism has emerged as one popular form of tourism (Chen & Chen, 2010). Cultural heritage is also defined by the 1972 UNESCO convention on the Protection of the World's Cultural Natural Heritage, is the complex of monuments, buildings and archaeological sites 'of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science' (Hewison, 1978, p.15). Cultural heritage tourism is a broad concept that includes tangible assets, such as collections, past and continuing cultural practices, knowledge and living experiences. Examples of tangible heritage include museums, historical buildings, religious sites and arguably theme parks if they have a heritage focus, whereas intangible heritage includes collections, performance and festivals (McKercher & du Cros, 2003). No matter that cultural tourism is part of heritage tourism or heritage tourism is part of cultural heritage tourism, there is an obvious link in that cultural tourism and heritage tourism are interrelated. Thus, the term 'cultural heritage tourism' has become widely used in the academic and other literature on the tourism field. In fact, there has been little agreement among researchers on the precise definitions and context. Also, there are no agreed-upon definitions when referring to heritage and cultural tourism or even cultural heritage tourism. Richards (2001) mentions that the terms 'cultural tourism' and 'heritage tourism' are interchangeable in their usage, with limited consensus regarding whether or not people are talking about the same thing. In this case, the term 'cultural heritage tourism' is defined by the author as follows:

***Cultural heritage tourism is experiential tourism involving interest in or experience of destinations representing people of the past and present, together with the sense of seeking or feeling part of destination's culture and history.***

Cultural heritage tourism is one of the fastest growing sub-groups of the tourism industry. In cultural heritage tourism management, a transiting trend from the product-led development of cultural heritage attractions, which emphasises exhibits and education, to visitor-oriented development, which emphasises visitor preferences and the quality of personal experience, has been addressed recently (Apostolakis & Jaffry, 2005). It is viewed as an experiential product distinct from the general product. Hence, what product visitors consume is more associated with the experience during

the process of cultural heritage visitation than services provided by cultural heritage tourism (Chen & Tsai, 2007).

#### *2.2.4 Cultural heritage attractions*

Visitor attraction is the core part of a tourism system (World Tourism Organisation, 1999). No visitor travels to a destination without experiencing attractions. The attractions are composed of diverse products, activities and services; therefore, there is no common definition of what constitutes a visitor attraction. Swarbrooke (1995) defines four categories of attractions, namely natural, man-made built for purposes other than attracting visitors, those built to attract visitors and special events. Stevens (1991) considers the central feature of an attraction is the permanent establishment of a point of interest open to the public for entertainment, interest or education, either man-made or natural. The entertainment is considered as tourism-connected attractions such as cinemas, theatres, bars, casinos and shopping (Stevens, 1991).

Cultural heritage tourism is a sub-group of tourism that places special emphasis on cultural and heritage tourism. These attractions are a number of cultural- or heritage-oriented facilities, including museums, aquariums, performing arts centres, archaeological digs, theatres, historical sites, monuments, castles, architectural relics, religious centres and even zoos. Some researchers have acknowledged the wide dichotomy of attractions considered to be cultural heritage tourism sites (Bonn, Joseph-Mathews, Dai, Hayes & Cave, 2007). Ashworth (2000) emphasises the material components of cultural heritage sites and the intangible forms of cultural heritage attributes in cultural heritage tourism (Prentice, 1993b). Festivals, cuisine and customs can be considered as intangible forms of cultural heritage tourism. Festivals are related to past historical events and offer tourists an authentic cultural experience (Prideaux, 2002) because they have a cultural appeal for tourists. They are organised to show something unique or special that represents the culture such as the art, dance, music and history of a destination (Getz, 1991). Cuisine is part of cultural heritage tourism because gastronomy is fundamental to the cultural development of mankind (Yan, So, Morrison & Sun, 2008). Experiencing customs is a type of cultural heritage tourism activity (Yan et al., 2008) because culture is

composed of processes (the ideas and way of life of people) and the products of those processes such as buildings, artefacts and customs (Richards, 1996).

The diversity of attractions and activities highlights the need for a systematic categorisation in this research. Based on the literature review, the types of cultural heritage attractions include a mix of tangible and intangible elements, linking the past and present. Cultural heritage attractions include the following:

- Museums
- Historic sites
- Religious sites (temples and churches)
- Living culture (gastronomy, handcrafts, language, art and music)
- Festivals and special events

This research mainly focuses on museums, historic sites and religious sites which are considered as constructed attractions. According to Stevens (1991), constructed attractions are often visited and viewed by visitors. They are important in destinations that focus on cultural heritage tourism.

#### 2.2.5 *Typologies of cultural heritage visitors*

Although there may be differences based upon the type of cultural heritage attractions in the destinations, Silberberg (1995) notes these commonalties among cultural heritage tourists as follows: (1) earns more money and spends more money while on vacation, (2) spends more time in an area while on vacation, (3) is more likely to stay at hotels or motels, (4) is far more highly educated than the general public, (4) includes more women than men (women represent a disproportionate share of shoppers and bus tour passengers) and tends to be in older age categories (This is particularly important with the aging of the large baby-boom generation)" (p. 362). It shows that that cultural heritage visitors are older, more educated, more likely to be female, spend more and stay longer. In fact, the previous research also shows that most of the cultural heritage visitors are aged between 50 and 79, with an average age of 56 (Martin, Bridge & Vallière, 2004). Although Balcar and Pearce (1996) find



that most of the cultural heritage visitors in their study are in the age range of 25-54, in comparison to other visitors, Martin, Bridge and Vallière (2004) conclude that cultural heritage visitors are about 5 years older on average than other visitors. In the case of Asia, Yan et al. (2008), investigating the cultural heritage tourism market in Taiwan, find that cultural heritage visitors who participate in related tourism activities and choose 'visiting historical' as the major purpose appear to be older. Most of them belong to the 40-60 or over age group with a higher proportion of retired visitors. They are basically from Japan, followed by Hong Kong, Mainland China and the USA. Cultural heritage visitors are more likely to visit as part of a tour group and have more members of their household visiting with them. Previous study also finds that visitors who spend time at cultural and historic sites and events tend to participate more in other activities as well while on their trips than do non-cultural heritage visitors (Martin et al., 2004). It seems that many researchers try to identify differences between cultural heritage tourists and other tourists using demographic variables (Richards, 1996).

However, the study by McKercher and du Cros (2003) suggests that demographic variables are not accurate indicators of benefit-based segments such as cultural heritage tourism. In fact, some previous studies use either visitor attitude or behaviours to identify cultural heritage tourists (Yan et al., 2008). Prentice (1993b) divides the cultural heritage consumers as based on motivations including pleasure of viewing, education, information, relaxation, entertainment and exercise. Prentice (1993b) states that visitors could be divided into five predominant groups: educated visitors, professionals, families or groups, school children and nostalgia seekers. Moscardo (1996) emphasises two main motivations, education and entertainment/social. A study by Szucs, Daniels and McGuire (2002) of educational travel programmes in the United States and some European countries finds that the older participants are motivated to visit their ancestral home. It implied the motivation in cultural heritage tourism is educational benefits. Hsu, Cai and Wong (2007) also state that seniors visit different historical places or events for nostalgic reminiscence. One unique aspect of the seniors' desire to learn and discover is the type of knowledge they seek. Furthermore, Chen and Chen's (2010) research finds that there was a highly insignificant relationship between educational attainment and

reason for visiting a cultural heritage attraction.

And some researchers consider that tourism is experiential and the experience is sought by groups of tourists across socio-demographic strata. According to the study by Mckercher & du Cros (2003), five types of cultural heritage tourists are identified ranging from those people for whom culture played no role in their decision to travel and who have a shallow experience to those people who are highly motivated to travel for cultural reasons and who subsequently had deep experiences. These five types are purposeful cultural tourist (high centrality/deep experience), sightseeing cultural tourist (high centrality/shallow experience), casual cultural tourist (modest centrality/shallow experience), incidental cultural tourist (low centrality/shallow experience) and serendipitous cultural tourist (low centrality/deep experience). McKercher and du Cros (2002) also highlights that not all the cultural heritage tourists are highly motivated to travel for cultural heritage tourism reasons but at least they participate in some cultural heritage tourism activities and have either shallow or deep experience. Based on these concepts, examining the cultural heritage tourism not only focus on the demographic data of the visitors, and also their experience in cultural heritage tourism. It implies the importance of experience in cultural heritage tourism and it influences the visitors to engage cultural tourism attractions at different levels.

#### *2.2.6 Importance of cultural heritage tourism*

Although cultural heritage tourism is a subgroup of tourism and the main motivations for visiting a site are based on cultural and heritage characteristics in the place, there is the potential for its development. The literature shows that cultural heritage tourism is one of the fastest growing forms of tourism (Poria et al., 2001b). In the case of the U.K., visitors to cultural heritage attractions rose from 52 million to 68 million between 1977 and 1991 (Laws, 1998). According to the World Tourism Organisation (World Tourism Organisation, 1999), cultural tourism accounts for 37% of world travel and this is growing at the rate of 15% a year. An increasing number of European cities have selected tourism as a strategic sector for local development (Russo & van der Borg, 2002). Therefore, the global tourism trend indicates the

increase of cultural heritage tourism in the destinations. Cultural heritage attractions have become the major resources of international significance in terms of economic generation capabilities and popularity among visitors (Silberberg, 1995). The tourism industry is one of the fastest growing at the global scale, generates jobs and income. Edwards and Lurdes (1996) indicate that job creation and economic generation are also the significance of cultural heritage tourism. Thus, the development of cultural heritage tourism is considered as a generator of income (Silberberg, 1995). It is a form of economic development. Furthermore, Light, Prentice, Ashworth and Larkham (1994) state that the characteristics of cultural heritage tourists include middle class, well-educated, middle-aged, no children, on holiday away from home and prior knowledge of history. In terms of educational level, 54% of visitors have completed college and 21% a postgraduate degree (Kerstetter, Confer & Graefe, 2001). The visitors interested in cultural heritage sites tend to stay longer (4.7 vs 3.3 nights), spend more per trip (\$615 vs. \$425) and have higher average annual incomes (\$42,133 vs. \$41,455) (Kerstetter et al., 2001). Martin, Bridge and Vallière (2004) also indicate in their study that cultural heritage visitors stay longer and spend more than twice as much as other visitors. Therefore, cultural heritage tourism represents a highly significant component in economic development. Also, cultural heritage tourism represents a financial resource for the conservation and preservation of cultural heritage resources. Cultural heritage tourism is experiential tourism which is tourism that has history, customs, and traditions at its core. It begins by preserving, interpreting and telling the story of a place to visitors. Cultural heritage tourists have the opportunity to learn the culture or history. Cultural heritage tourism can be a quality-of-life development that is as beneficial for local residents and also tourists. It can help preserve a community's identity and bring residents together to appreciate their own resources. Waitt (2000) mentions that the demand for cultural heritage tourism is also attributed to the awareness of cultural heritage resources. Cultural heritage resources can be conceived as a precious resource for the destinations (Russo & van der Borg, 2002). It becomes not only part of the economic development, and also social development. The importance of cultural heritage tourism is enhanced.

## **2.3 Conceptual background: Relationships between quality, satisfaction and expectation**

### *2.3.1 Perceived quality*

Definitions of perceived quality and empirical evidence indicate that perceived quality is an appraisal construct (Zeithaml, 1988; Bolton & Drew, 1991). Perceived quality is the consumer's evaluation of a product's overall excellence or superiority (Olshavsky 1985; Parasuraman, Zeithaml & Berry, 1985; Zeithaml, 1988). In the service literature, service quality often refers to quality as perceived by customers (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Yuan & Jang, 2008). It is one of the most important constructs in marketing. Recently, perceived quality is considered as the subject of considerable interest by both practitioners and researchers (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman, Berry & Zeithaml, 1994). According to Parasuraman et al. (1988), the concept of perceived quality is the comparison between expectations and the performance perceived by the consumer. It is the comparison between expectation and actual performance (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Perceived quality is generally treated as a post-purchase construct (Roest & Pieters, 1997). Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1990) mention that people's perceptions of services or products are made at the end of their encounter. On the contrary, they believe that there is an endless potential for judgements to be made during the service delivery process and then once more at the post-consumption stage. Ahmed (1991) also indicates that the perceptions from travellers are important to successful destination development because they influence the choice of a destination. Thus, applying this concept to cultural heritage tourism, the keys to sustaining the development of cultural heritage tourism and management are to identify the perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism. It is believed that people's perceptions of quality cultural heritage tourism are perceived differently by different of groups or destinations of people. It is necessary to investigate the perceived quality from difference people. Furthermore, perceptions are influenced by facilities, attractions and service standards (Laws, 1995). Brady and Cronin (2001) mention that the perception of quality is determined by three dimensions: outcome quality, interaction quality and physical environment quality. Outcome quality is what the customer obtains when the productive process

ends, interaction quality refers to the interaction that takes place while the service is being delivered and environment quality refers to the ambient conditions where the service is delivered or the product is sold. Hence, these three dimensions should be considered for the evaluation of perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism.

### 2.3.2 *Satisfaction*

Recent reviews of satisfaction literature document the dramatic increase in satisfaction/dissatisfaction research over the past decade, particularly in the marketing and management fields. The previous literature reviews also shows an increase in the number of articles dealing with different aspects of consumer satisfaction in tourism, travel, hospitality and recreation (Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). The topic of satisfaction in cultural heritage tourism is becoming more and more crucial, such as the studies of museum visitors' satisfaction, satisfaction with cultural heritage tours (Hughes, 1991) and satisfaction with tours guides (Reisinger & Waryszak, 1995). Previous works have also emphasised the effect of quality on satisfaction (de Ruyter, Wetzels, Lemmink & Mattsson, 1997; Caldwell, 2002; Harrison & Shaw, 2004). Therefore, there is a rich mixture of conceptual and theoretical discussions and empirical studies investigating antecedents and consequences in satisfaction (Woodruff, Cadotte & Jenkins, 1983). Satisfaction is simply a post-experience attitude and attitudes are not fixed or tangible parameters. An attitude is defined as customers' overall affective reaction to a product or a service (Oliver, 1981; Cadotte, Woodruff & Jenkins, 1987). As the lack of agreement among the definitions hinders research into consumer satisfaction, Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez (2001) conclude three general components in satisfaction, as follows: (1) consumer satisfaction is a response and an emotional or cognitive judgement (the emotional response predominating), (2) the response refers to a specific focus (the object of the consumer satisfaction), (3) the response is linked to a particular moment (prior to purchase, after purchase, after consumption and so forth). Satisfaction is the result of a comparison between expectations and the perception of the performance. The consumer will feel satisfied whenever the performance exceeds the expectations (Oliver, 1980). Typically, satisfaction is viewed through well-defined questions, with respondents providing an assessment of their attitude on a Likert

scale or a related rating scale format (Veal, 1997). Satisfaction is considered a judgement, attitude or psychological state arising from consumers' disconfirmation of expectations (Woodruff et al., 1983; Rust & Oliver, 1994; Oliver, 1996). Therefore, evaluation of satisfaction is a negative or positive outcome resulting from a comparison process between initial expectations and perceived performance of products and services (Parasuraman et al., 1985). Oliver (1981) introduces the expectancy-disconfirmation model for studies of customer satisfaction in the retail and service industry. Expectancy-disconfirmation theory assumes that customers form their satisfaction with a target product or service as a result of subjective comparisons between their expectations and perceptions. Customers are directly asked to provide their perceptions or evaluations of the comparisons, using a 'worse than/better than expected' scale. It aims to explain and theorise a consumption process. Customer satisfaction is the ultimate criterion variable in this model (Oh, 1999). Oliver (1993) argued that ensuring consumer satisfaction should be of great interest in service marketing because it links purchase to post-purchase phenomena such as attitude change, repeat purchase, positive word-of-mouth and brand loyalty. On the other hand, consumer satisfaction is to distinguish overall satisfaction from satisfaction with individual attributes. Overall satisfaction is a much broader concept implying holistic evaluation after purchase and not the sum of the individual assessments of each attribute (Fornell, 1992; Gnoth, 1994). Satisfaction is a multifaceted concept, it is important to undertake an evaluation that takes account of the multiple variables (Truong & King, 2009). The examination of overall satisfaction and satisfaction with specific attributes should be considered (Truong, 2002) in this research.

### 2.3.3 *Expectation*

Expectation is defined as previous predictions or beliefs that the consumer makes about the results or the performance of the product (Woodruff et al., 1983). It is formed using several sources of information including advertising and commercial communication, word of mouth referrals or prior experiences (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Parasuraman et al. (1988) state that expectations in the quality literature refer to what customers feel the service provider should offer. Expectations are

important concepts because they form the frame of reference for satisfaction judgements (Higgs, Polonsky & Hollick, 2005). The literature uses four categories to describe the expectations: forecast, normative, ideal and a minimum tolerable (Woodruff et al., 1983). However, the service quality literature typically uses ideal expectations. Ideal expectations are likely to be based on past product/service experiences, advertising and word of mouth (Tse & Wilton, 1988). Travellers thus visit cultural heritage attractions with the hope that what they choose will offer a range of benefits. Ideal expectations refer to a standard that represents the highest level of performance attainable by a premier service provider in the category (Woodruff et al., 1983; Tse & Wilton, 1988; Parasuraman et al., 1991; Teas, 1994). Minimum tolerable expectations are the adequate ones and refer to minimum acceptable baseline of performance (Woodruff et al., 1983). These two types of expectations are category-cued because they force customers to consider broader evaluation comparisons across a range of service providers within a category (Higgs et al., 2005). Although visitors cannot realistically form expectations about a service of which they have little knowledge, lacking past experience is not an issue because empirical research suggests that customers without past experience or with limited past experience do form expectations (McGill & Iacobucci, 1992; Shirai & Meyer, 1997). Oliver (1996) also points out that the absence of past experience is not an issue and is surveyed in the literature. Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins (1987) investigate the formation of pre-purchase expectations by using a category-cued definition and suggested in their research findings that category-cued comparisons may have greater salience for satisfaction. In the tourism and hospitality areas, Kozak and Rimmington (2000) cite different empirical or conceptual articles about customer satisfaction including specific tours, tour guides, travel agencies, hotel, restaurants, recreation facilities and destinations. They suggest that specific tourist destinations use different approaches to measure tourists' satisfaction such as Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry's (1985) expectation-perception gap model (Duke & Persia, 1996), Oliver's expectancy disconfirmation theory (King, Pizam & Milman, 1993). They are used to measure tourist satisfaction with specific tourism destinations.

#### *2.3.4 Expectation-based approach versus performance-only approach in evaluating visitor satisfaction*

Satisfaction has been widely debated in marketing literature (Yüksel & Yüksel, 2001). In tourism studies, satisfaction is sometimes referred to as visitor satisfaction, which is widely discussed in the literature, on a theoretical level (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Visitor satisfaction has been defined in many different ways. Traditionally, it was considered to be (1) a cognitive state, (2) influenced by previous cognition, and (3) relative in character. It is the comparison between a subjective experience and a previous base of reference (Oliver, 1980; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Bearden & Teel, 1983; Oliver & Desarbo, 1988; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). It means that visitor satisfaction is primarily determined by visitors whose expectations are fulfilled by their experiences, while those whose expectations are not fulfilled report dissatisfaction (Hughes, 1991). This is the result of the comparison between expectations about the destination and a visitor's experience at the destination visited (Pizam, 1994). Therefore, visitor satisfaction is a subjective process and the satisfaction judgements made are based on comparison standards (Higgs et al., 2005). Pearce (1991) mentions that satisfaction is often referred to as the 'fit' between expectations and the perceived evaluative outcome of the experience, which is related to meeting visitors' needs, wants and expectations throughout the product or service life and results in subsequent repurchase and loyalty. In this traditional cognitive approach in the literature of satisfaction formation, the disconfirmation model of expectations is widely recognised (Oliver, 1980; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). This confirmation/disconfirmation theory predicts that satisfaction is reached when expectations are met and the negative disconfirmation of expectations then causes dissatisfaction, while positive disconfirmation increases satisfaction (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008).

Although there is no clear consensus as to what the determinant variables are, past literature is concentrated on describing satisfaction by the evaluation consumers make of perceived quality (confirmation/disconfirmation theories) from their expectations, while more recent trends perceive the emotions consumers experienced as the determinant factors in creating satisfaction (de Rojas & Camarero,



2008). The empirical researches in the satisfaction literature show that expectations could be captured in pre-trial and post-consumption phases. In the service quality literature, expectations prior to consumption are assumed to be equal to those after consumption (Parasuraman et al., 1985). However, expectations-based disconfirmation measures yield only modest correlations with satisfaction measures (Woodruff et al., 1983). Meanwhile, the service quality literature typically uses ideal expectation (Tse & Wilton, 1988). Investigating ideal expectations is to survey respondents only once, in the post-experience phase and ask them to recall pre-experience expectations (Higgs et al., 2005). Therefore, it is feasible for the researchers to investigate the expectations in that and ask the targeted respondents to recall pre-consumption expectations during the survey in order to understand expectation and satisfaction.

However, Pearce (2005) mentions that the expectation-based approach is problematic. Expectations for tourism products and services can vary in clarity and relevance. For a hotel room, there may be clear unambiguous expectations deriving from previous experiences. In other words, guests have a normative standard and, (as with breakfast cereal, soap and other tangible products) a good basis for evaluation. The other shortcoming of the expectation-perception model is that customers might update their expectations once they receive further information about the destinations (Boulding et al., 1993). Expectations also can be influenced by advertising and other sales promotion methods (Cardozo, 1965). In addition, several researchers in tourism point out that the expectations are not so applicable or relevant when the goods or services vary substantially and when they are purchased only occasionally (Hughes, 1991; Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha & Bryant, 1996). Additionally, for certain kinds of tourism settings, the operating business or destination is at the whim of a range of external, unexpected and uncontrollable forces likely to dominate satisfaction appraisals. Satisfaction may exist when tourists simply report that the location and facilities are simply not quite what is expected but still very suitable and enjoyable (Hughes, 1991). In addition, Churchill and Suprenant (1982) argue that customer assessment of certain services might not rely only on disconfirmation but on experience. Meanwhile, a positive disconfirmation (PD) occurs if the actual experience is better than their expectations (Hui, Wan & Ho, 2007)

As a result, the performance-only approach is more appropriate since it avoids the use of expectations within the measurement of satisfaction (Churchill & Suprenant, 1982). It is proposed that regardless of the existence of any prior expectations, the customer is likely to be satisfied when a product or service performs at a desired level (Czepiel, Rosenberg & Akerele, 1974). There is empirical support for the idea that the performance-only approach had higher reliability and validity values than other approaches (Crompton & Love, 1995). The performance-only appraisals of satisfaction offer the view that visitors' perception of the quality of the performance, the product or the experience is what really matters in satisfaction research. Crompton and Love (1995) establish that a performance-only approach is superior to expectations-based analysis in assessing visitor satisfaction at festivals. In addition, Prakash (1984) notes that a performance-only approach can predict future behaviours, therefore, the expectation is not investigated in the research.

## **2.4 Conceptual background: Measuring quality in cultural heritage tourism**

### *2.4.1 Service quality model*

The Service Quality Model (SERVQUAL) has been widely adopted across industries in the recent decades. It is considered a powerful tool in explaining service quality and predicting consumer behaviour in the industries. It comes from the pioneering work in the area of service quality by Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1985, 1988). They were the first to conceptualise and operationalise the concept of service quality and have remained prominent contributors to the service quality literature (Tian-Cole, Crompton & Wilson, 2002). They first introduced a 22-item scale, called SERVQUAL, in their study for assessing customer perceptions of service in service and retailing organisations, and it is mainly used for measuring service quality. SERVQUAL has five dimensions in 22 items of service quality with comparisons to be made between pre-purchase expectations and post-purchase perceptions of company performance. The service quality is indicated by the arithmetic differences between customer expectations and perceptions across the 22 measurement items. Although it is widely used in the marketing field, its literature has the emerged in

leisure field in the recent years (Crompton & Love, 1995; Crompton, MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1995, MacKay & Crompton, 1998; Tian-Cole et al., 2002). The theory used in service quality and satisfaction has been the expectancy-disconfirmation paradigm. When performance exceeds or falls short of expectations, positive or negative disconfirmation results. Positive disconfirmation leads to satisfaction or perceptions of high service quality, while negative disconfirmation leads to dissatisfaction or perceptions of low service quality (Tian-Cole et al., 2002). The gaps model is also popularly known, where the discrepancy between perceptions (P) and expectations (E) is used to measure service quality. The size of this gap indicates the degree to which a consumer perceives quality service (Higgs et al., 2005). SERVQUAL is a form of disconfirmation model based on the information-processing concept and is a measurement instrument for obtaining customers' perceptions of quality (Ryan, 1997). It identifies differences between the tourists' expectations and their perceived service performance within a range of potential communication gaps for quality improvement of the service (Parasuraman et al., 1985). Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) deliver SERVQUAL which provides the basis for the measurement of customer satisfaction with a service by using the gap between the customer's expectation of performance and their perceived experience of performance. This provides the researcher with a satisfaction 'gap' which is semi-quantitative in nature. Service quality is the core variable (Oh, 1999) in this model. Researches show that the benefits of service quality lead to customer return and attraction of new customers, positive word-of-mouth, employee satisfaction and commitment, enhanced corporate image, reduced costs and increased business performance (Berry, Bennett & Brown, 1989). Also, it can often provide a competitive edge that ensures that growth continues and that it can be sustained.

Recently, service quality and customer satisfaction issues are highlighted in tourism and hospitality researches and a number of researchers have attempted to apply related theories and methods in these fields. However, problems occur if the researchers apply or replicate SERVQUAL directly in tourism and hospitality contexts. Therefore, some researchers modify the scale and Bojanic and Rosen (1994) tested the SERVQUAL framework in the restaurant industry whereas Wright, Duray and

Goodale (1992) identified six different dimensions in a study on recreation centres. Saleh and Ryan (1991) used the same model for the lodging industry. Getty and Thompson (1994) also proposed a scale to measure lodging service quality, namely LODGSERV. Frochot and Hughes (2000) identified the SERVQUAL scale adapted to suit better historic houses and evaluate their service quality, namely HISTORQUAL. No matter which type of service quality models, they are not without their critics. This is because of the need to measure not only perceptions but also expectations and the use of a difference score has been questioned (Cronin & Taylor, 1992). Although Cronin and Taylor (1992) extend the disconfirmation theory by combining the "gap" described by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry as two different measures (perception and expectation) into a single measurement of performance relative to expectation. According to the comments of Obenour, Patterson, Pedersen and Pearson (2006), there are some limitations of SERVQUAL. First, it depends on travellers with clear expectations and goals for their behaviour. Instead, the expectations and goals are often nonexistent, especially in familiar, unexpected and unpredictable travel encounters. Second, SERVQUAL as a disconfirmation model concentrates on functional attributes of service and does not reveal to the researchers certain perceptions by the tourist of the service experience. Third, SERVQUAL uses surveys for data collection that ultimately create a fragmented rather than a holistic characterisation of the service experience. Fourth, the SERVQUAL approach is limited in providing insights into improving service quality design which is significant in overall quality of the tourism service experience. SERVQUAL addresses the quality of service delivery on 22 items and even HISTORQUAL narrowly focuses the attributes in the model. Importantly, those attributes may not be applicable in cultural heritage tourism. It has limited applicability, inferior predictive validity and the psychometric problems stemming from the use of the difference scores measure. Moreover, the SERVQUAL is only effective in incremental changes to improve quality instead of radical changes (Carman, 1990; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Teas, 1993; Baker & Crompton, 2000).

Cultural heritage tourism, like other types of tourism, is facing an explosion in the quantity and quality of the products and services being offered. Laws (2001) mentions the 'customer-oriented quality' which affects all aspects of the operational and

decision making procedures in cultural heritage tourism. People experience varying degrees of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with a given service because they have their own set of expectations, based on prior experience, when they are exposed to cultural heritage attractions. Besides, the varying expectations and differing experiences can result in unequal gaps between expectations and experience for cultural heritage sites and products. Thus, the issue centres on whether service quality should be measured simply as the perception level (Yuan & Jang, 2008). Cronin and Taylor (1992) conclude that measuring quality based on perceptions/experiences alone is superior to the disconfirmation-based approach. Lloa, Chandon and Orsingher (1998) suggest that the indication of perceptions/experiences may already lead respondents to mentally compare perceptions against expectations. They claim that the estimation of perceptions/experiences might already include a perception minus expectation mental process. Some researchers have suggested that a superior alternative measure might be a direct measurement of perceived quality (Woodruff et al., 1983; Bolton & Drew, 1991; Baker & Crompton, 2000). Furthermore, most researchers agreed that the measurement of choice should depend on the study purpose (Yuan & Jang, 2008). The perceptions-minus-expectations approach is proper if the primary purpose is to diagnose service shortfalls. The perceptions-only approach is appropriate if the purpose is to explain variance in dependent constructs (Parasuraman et al, 1994). Hence, it is appropriate to analyse the quality in cultural heritage tourism by using the perceptions-only approach. On the other hand, it is difficult to give a comprehensive and precise definition of tourism quality due to the large variety of product, service categories and complex nature of visitor experience (Hjalager & Richards, 2002). Applying to the cultural heritage context, the perceived quality is investigated in this research through three dimensions including outcome quality, interaction quality and physical environment quality. Compared to SERVQUAL, the perceived quality with three dimensions is more appropriate than SERVQUAL in the context of cultural heritage tourism. The quality of experience is also evaluated in this research.

#### 2.4.2 *Visitor experience*

The core product of the tourism industry is experience and the quality of experience is of vital importance to its prosperity (Prentice, Guerin & McGugan, 1998). Cultural heritage tourism is a subgroup in the tourism industry. Hence, what product travellers consume is more associated with the experience during the process of cultural heritage visitation than services provided by cultural heritage tourism (Chen & Tsai, 2007). According to Otto and Ritchie (2000), experience is the subjective personal reactions and feelings experienced by visitors when they consume a service. It is an important influence on consumer evaluation of and satisfaction with the service. It is presented and evaluated by a complete encounter or image that the destination holds in a visitor's mind (Gunn, 1988). Furthermore, experience in cultural heritage tourism is purchased or obtained from the interaction between travellers and destinations. Visitor experience becomes a key concept in cultural heritage marketing since satisfaction is often determined by the global experience obtained (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). The total experience includes leisure, culture, education and social interaction (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). It can also provide an opportunity for further elaboration of visitors' understanding (Colbert, 2003).

In order to increase visitors' positive behavioural intentions, cultural heritage managers should set their priorities to provide a high quality, satisfying experience that visitors perceive to be of good value (Lee, Petrick & Crompton, 2007). Although a better understanding of perceived quality is crucial in cultural heritage tourism and the importance of quality of experience has been highlighted in the tourism literature, the visitor experience should be considered to explore how visitors evaluate their experience at cultural heritage destinations. In fact, cultural heritage tourism is viewed to a great extent as an experiential consumption. However, there is still little research shedding light on the quality of experience of cultural heritage tourism. It is necessary to understand the quality of experience during the process of visitation rather than products or services provided by the cultural heritage tourism.

### 2.4.3 *Quality of experience*

Quality of experience refers to the psychological outcome resulting from visitor participation in tourism activity (Chen & Chen, 2010). However, Fick and Ritchie (1991) argue that the SERVQUAL scale cannot identify both affective and holistic factors which contribute to the overall quality of experience. Indeed, there are differences between service quality and quality of experience. The former is objective in terms of measurement, while quality of experience is subjective (Ritchie, 1988). Thus, quality of experience is conceptualised as visitors' affective responses to their desired social-psychological benefits (Chan & Baum, 2007). Indeed, the core product of the tourism industry is experience and the quality of experience is of vital importance to its prosperity (Prentice, Guerin & McGugan, 1998). Hence, what product travellers consume is more associated with the experience during the process of visitation than services provided by tourism industry (Chen & Tsai, 2007). According to Otto and Ritchie (2000), experience is the subjective personal reactions and feelings experienced by travellers when they consume a service. Furthermore, experience in tourism industry is purchased or obtained from the interaction between travellers and destinations. Quality of experience refers to the psychological outcome resulting from visitor participation in tourism activity (Chen & Chen, 2010). According to Xu and Chan (2010), creation of experiences for tourists is crucial for the marketing and promotion plans in the destinations. The tourism practitioners should place more emphasis on the customer side during the experiential process in tourism industry. In this case, quality of visitor experience can be determined by the travelling experience obtained. While the subjective nature of visitor experience is established, the problem remains as to how to measure the quality of visitor experience. Since quality of experience is subjective (Ritchie, 1993) and the scope of experience is more general (Chen & Chen, 2010), the evaluation of experience quality should tend to be holistic rather than attribute-based. The quality of overall experience determines whether tourists feel satisfied or dissatisfied at the end of their visits (Xu & Chan, 2010). Furthermore, Jansen-Verbeke (1991) mentions that overall experience is the slogan for the future development and a major challenge for the tourism industry. Overall experience is considered as one part of modern tourism. As a result, the overall quality of travel experience is investigated in this study.

Poria et al. (2001a) mentions that cultural heritage travellers seek for a quality experience. Quality of experience can replace service quality in the relationships between perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Chen & Chen, 2010). The previous studies showed that experiential quality relates to satisfaction and influences visitors' behavioural intentions positively through satisfaction (Otto & Ritchie, 1995; Chen & Chen, 2010). As a result, quality of experience is considered as having direct influence on perceived quality and satisfaction and indirect influence on behavioural intentions.

Quality is a determinant impact on the success of the tourism industry. Zeithaml (1988) asserts that the perceived quality is in nature a consumer's appraisal of a product's overall excellence or superiority, therefore, Johns, Lee-Ross and Ingram (1997) stipulate that the quality of experience is subjective and exists only in the visitor's perception. Based on Crompton and Love (1995)'s study, they distinguish the concepts of quality of a festival from quality of visitors experience. It is argued that the quality of a festival refers to the quality of opportunity provided by the elements of a festival that are under the control of the promoting organisation while the quality of a visitor's experience is his/her satisfaction. It is defined as the visitor's desired intrinsic outcomes derived largely from interaction with the event's attributes. Applying these concepts in cultural heritage tourism, the former concept refers to the perceived quality of the cultural heritage tourism and takes the perspective from the supply side. The latter concept refers to quality of visitor experience and takes the perspective from the demand side. Then, the distinction between perceived quality and quality of experience is clear. In order to investigate the quality in cultural heritage tourism thoroughly, both perceived quality and quality of experience should be investigated in this research.



## **2.5 Conceptual background: Relationships between quality, visitor experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions**

### *2.5.1 Linkage between quality and visitor satisfaction*

Several studies of the relationship between quality and satisfaction are presented in the literature on marketing and tourism, therefore, a review of the marketing and tourism literature is suitable to begin the study of service quality, and then carried through to satisfaction researches. The author considers this context since it is a relevant contribution to cultural heritage tourism studies. The previous works provide evidence about the relationships between quality and satisfaction. Hurley and Estelami (1998) point out that quality and customer satisfaction have not been successfully defined or distinguished in the marketing literature. Thus, there is still some confusion about the similarities and differences between the two constructs. Several researchers have made an effort to suggest a set of differences between quality and satisfaction. According to Parasuraman et al. (1988), in the literature on satisfaction is interpreted as prediction, and in the literature on quality, they are interpreted as wishes or an ideal result. Oliver (1996) points out that the quality is based on perceptions of excellence, while satisfaction refers to need or equity. Quality is the cornerstone of success in the tourism industry and is perceived to be a key factor in acquiring and sustaining competitive advantage (Wan, 2010). Satisfaction means that what people tourism industry delivered to a visitor met the visitor's approval. Oliver (1996) also suggests that quality judgements are based on particular attributes or key aspects, while those of customer satisfaction judgements are more holistic. The researcher has linked cognitive judgements with service quality and affective ones with customer satisfaction. Satisfaction research has developed useful measures of the construct (Yi, 1990), with satisfaction as the emotional reaction to a product or service. Otto and Ritchie (1995) develop definitions which are synonymous with the notion of quality and satisfaction. It seems that higher quality performance in facility provision, programming and service is likely to result in a higher level of visitor satisfaction (Yi, 1990; Baker & Crompton, 2000). Quality is considered as the overall judgement made by the consumer regarding the excellence of a service. It is a type of attitude related to satisfaction but not

equivalent to satisfaction. More specifically, quality is the degree and direction of the discrepancies between perceptions of the performance and the consumer's expectations of the service (Parasuraman et al., 1988). The author believes that perceived quality may be conceptualised as a measure of a provider's output, whereas the level of satisfaction is concerned with measuring a tourist's behaviour.

With the rapid development in tourism and hospitality tourism, the travelling experience of travellers leads to converging quality demands. The significance of quality of tourism has been widely recognised. Quality has a determinant impact on the success of tourism development (Atilgan, Akinci & Aksoy, 2003) and it is predicted as the main driving force for competition in the tourism in the future (Kandampully, 2000). Quality is considered to be the global judgement and attitude of the consumer, by estimating the excellence of a service. It is related to the superiority of the service (Parasuraman et al., 1988). It is one of the constructs of concern to the researchers in marketing theory. In fact, the conceptual model by Parasuraman et al. (1985) has highlighted a 'quality leads to satisfaction' school of thought. Quality is related to customer satisfaction and is a way of thinking about how to satisfy customers so that they hold positive perceptions of the service provided and return again in the future (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). It highlights the importance of satisfaction of customers and the need to ensure that the provided products and services conform to their requirements (Shostack, 1977; Berry, 1980). Deming (1982) stresses that quality should always be aimed at the requirements of the customer. It is believed that higher quality performance in facility provision, programming and service is likely to result in a higher level of visitor satisfaction (Yi, 1990; Baker & Crompton, 2000). The researches in the marketing field widely accept a theoretical framework in which quality leads to satisfaction (Oliver, 1996; Dabholkar, Shepherd & Thorpe, 2000; Olsen, 2002; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008), which in turn influences post-purchase behaviour (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Recent research by Ryan (1995) states that satisfaction depends on the quality of attributes; usually, a high quality results in high satisfaction. It implies the linkage between quality and satisfaction.

### 2.5.2 *Linkage between perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions*

Perceived quality is formulated as a specific evaluative belief while satisfaction is a more general evaluation (Olsen, 2002; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Rust and Oliver (1994) express that perceptions of quality lead to improved satisfaction and have direct influence on satisfaction. Quality is therefore essential in determining customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. It shows that the relationship between quality and satisfaction is the focus of a quality analysis. Satisfaction can therefore be considered as an indication, because asking about current satisfaction can be an effective way to find out if there are problems in the current visits (Kozak & Beaman, 2006). Researchers agree that quality perception is the cognitive response to a service experience (Petrick, 2004). The previous studies suggest that perceived quality is an appraisal construct (Zeithaml, 1988; Bolton & Drew, 1991). Also, the consumers are likely to judge perceived quality, which will be followed by satisfaction (Yuan & Jang, 2009). It has been empirically confirmed that satisfaction is preceded by perceived quality, which implies that perceived quality occurs prior to satisfaction. It has also been empirically confirmed that perceived quality positively influences visitor satisfaction (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Thus, the previous studies confirmed the causal relationships among three constructs (perceived quality → satisfaction → behavioural intentions) and documented the direct association between service quality and behavioural outcomes (e.g. intentions to return, intention to recommend) (Yuan & Jang, 2008).

It is crucial in tourism studies, particularly in the context of cultural heritage tourism, because research on quality aims to identify the needs of present and future visitors. It is in essence a way of managing cultural heritage tourism. Also, satisfaction has a direct effect on behavioural intentions (Yuan & Jang, 2008) and is an intermediate variable that might link perceived quality and behavioural intentions. Baker and Crompton (2000) indicate that improvement in quality and satisfaction result in retention or expansion of tourist numbers, more vociferousness and active tourism support and, ultimately, enhanced profitability and political support. Several studies have explored that perceived quality is not only mediated by satisfaction in predicting behavioural intentions (Oh, 1999; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cronin, Brady & Hult,

2000; Thrane, 2002; Yuan & Jang, 2008). In various empirical reviews of studies, they found positive and significant relationships between perceived quality and repurchase intentions or word of mouth (Parasuraman et al., 1991; Boulding et al., 1993; Rust, Zahorik & Keiningham, 1995). Thus, quality has both an indirect (through satisfaction) and a direct effect on behavioural intentions (Yuan & Jang, 2008). Applying this is in the context of cultural heritage tourism, it can be assumed that the perceived quality is received from the visitors' evaluation by a set of standards that determines satisfaction judgement. Perceived quality can be conceptualised as significant variables influencing the level of satisfaction, whereas it is hypothesised as having a direct effect on satisfaction. Quality is formulated as a specific evaluative belief and satisfaction as a more general evaluation (Olsen, 2002). Quality management in tourism and hospitality industries strives for improvement of service to deliver a distinctive service and stay competitive (Williams & Buswell, 2003). Within the holistic service experience, tourism managers aim to deliver a quality service and develop strategies to improve the service performance from the tourists' point of view (Gustafsson & Johnson, 2003). Thus, perceived quality and satisfaction can be considered as the visitors' evaluation of their holiday experience.

A number of studies have established relationships between tourist motivation and various aspects of behavioural relevant to tourism management and also its theoretical understanding, including choice of destination and mode of travel, expectations and information sources used (Poria et al., 2004). Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000) conclude that numerous studies have specified relationships among quality, satisfaction and such consequences as positive word of mouth, price premiums and repurchase intentions. They also identify several competing models of direct effects among service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. One of the models is derived from the satisfaction literature that defines customer satisfaction as the primary and direct link to outcome measures (Anderson & Fornell, 1994; Clow & Beisel, 1995; Mohr & Bitner, 1995; Andreassen, 1996; Fornell et al., 1996; Hallowell, 1996; Spreng, Mackenzie & Olshavsky, 1996; Athanassopoulos, 1999; Bolton & Lemon, 1999; Ennew & Binks, 1999). Thus, studying satisfaction or dissatisfaction is crucial because it may affect expectations for the next purchase and future behaviour (Westbrook & Newman, 1978; Woodruff et al., 1983). Previous

researches have confirmed that there is a direct and positive relationship between tourists' satisfaction and behavioural intentions such as revisiting and recommending (Oh, 1999; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Kozadk & Rimmington, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). However, this relationship may be more complicated because a destination can be considered as a product. Different visitors can have various consumption objectives and behaviours after the visits. 'Intention to return' and 'willingness to recommend the destination' can be conceived as behaviour variables. The researchers also suggest that 'perceived quality' and 'satisfaction' are the evaluative variables related to the evaluation of the stay (Bigné, Sánchez & Sánchez, 2001). It is important to highlight that researchers should be interested in the tourists' view rather than the providers' (Bigné et al., 2001). On the other hand, there is also a model in previous studies which emanates from the literature and it investigates the relationships between service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Cronin et al., 2000). Those studies indicate that the majority of studies agree that service quality influences behavioural intentions only through perceived value and satisfaction (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Gotlieb, Grewal & Brown, 1994; Patterson & Spreng, 1997; Cronin et al., 2000). There has been a great body of studies focusing on the interrelationship between quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Backman & Veldkamp, 1995; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cronin et al., 2000). They suggest that there are relationships among the choice of a destination to visit, subsequent evaluations and future behavioural intentions. The subsequent evaluations include the travel experience or perceived trip quality during the stay, perceived value and overall satisfaction, while the future behavioural intentions include the intention to revisit and the willingness to recommend (Chen & Tsai, 2007). Although the researchers highlight the importance of perceived value, Hallowell (1996) indicates that perceived value equals perceived service quality. Some researchers argue for a direct effect between perceived quality and behavioural intentions (Parasuraman et al., 1991; Boulding et al., 1993; Taylor & Baker, 1994; Zeithaml et al., 1996). In fact, empirical research revealed the positive impact of perceived value on future behavioural intentions (Bojanic, 1996; Baker & Crompton, 2000; Cronin et al., 2000; Tam, 2000; Petrick, 2004;). Thus, perceived quality, experience and satisfaction have been shown to be good predictors of future behavioural intentions.

### 2.5.3 *Post-trip intentions*

The tourism field seeks to understand how behaviour influences the travellers' satisfaction with the destination and their intentions to return. There is the relationship between experience and intention to revisit a site which also has implications for the marketing process (Poria, Butler & Airey, 2001c). Indeed, limited researches in this area have focused on understanding how the satisfaction with a destination influences the propensity to return to the same destination or to visit the same area or country again in the future. Mazursky (1989) states that future travel is influenced not only by the extent but also by the nature of past travel experience and suggests that personal experience may exert more influence on travel decisions than any information acquired from external sources. Therefore, it can be inferred that personal travelling experience in general can influence the likelihood of future travel to the destinations. Furthermore, Mill and Morrison (1992) mention that if two places, either next to each other or destinations in the same country, are perceived to be similar as holiday destinations, a tourist's experience in only one of them can be expected to encourage or discourage intention to visit the other. In addition, Kozak (2001) proves that the relationships between previous visits and intention of repeat visitation and between overall satisfactions with a destination considerably influenced their intention of repeat visitation both to the same and other destinations in the same geographical area. There are three future intentions affected by satisfaction, as follows: (1) revisiting a destination, (2) recommending it, (3) visiting another destination in its area/local (Kozak & Beaman, 2006). The study also shows that people who are more satisfied with a product tended to have higher probabilities of continuing to purchase it or telling friends and relatives of their experience. Satisfaction leads to repeat action which is considered as having a direct effect on explaining behavioural intentions, which are indicators of whether a tourist will revisit the same, similar or neighbouring destinations. Although the volume of empirical investigations into tourist satisfaction has increased in the past decade, this research is seeking to assess tourist satisfaction in cultural heritage tourism because it is critical to attract new travellers through positive word-of-mouth and media coverage (Baker & Crompton, 2000). Besides, previous research has demonstrated that there is a significant relationship between tourist satisfaction, the intention to return and

positive word-of-mouth communication (Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991; Pizam, 1994; Hallowell, 1996; Beeho & Prentice, 1997), suggesting that a relationship exists between tourist satisfaction, the willingness to look for other destinations for future trips and negative word of mouth communication (Pizam, 1994). Kozak and Rimmington (2000) found a relationship between tourists' perceptions of overall satisfaction with a destination and their intentions to revisit it in the future and a greater relationship between tourists' satisfaction with a destination and their intentions to recommend it to others. It also implies that there might be a relationship between quality and future behavioural intentions. It therefore seems logical that there should be a causal link between the perceived quality, visitor experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

#### *2.5.4 Linkage between visitor experience, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions*

The visitor satisfaction/dissatisfaction is determined by the overall feelings or attitude a person has about a product after it has been purchased (Solomon, 2002). Visitors have to be kept satisfied and happy during their experience before they would even consider revisiting a destination or recommending the country to others (Hui, Wan & Ho, 2007). Visitor experience is dynamic and emerges through interactions with others and the environment (Prentice, Witt & Hamer, 1998). Change can occur during the visit. It is acknowledged in the importance of opening and closing times, parking provision, direction signs, helpfulness of the staff, catering and retailing facilities, special care towards disabled, and so forth (Yale, 1991). Much literature investigates and understands the tourist experience by using self-initiated tape-recording, follow-up depth interviews or open-ended questionnaires (Pritchard & Havitz, 2006). Service quality attributes were identified as satisfiers or dissatisfiers and as relating to tangible or intangible aspects of the customers' experience (Johns, Lee-Ross & Ingram, 1997), Fallon and Schofield (2004) state in their study that as customers become more familiar with a product/service, their propensity to continue to use it increases. It implies that the relationship between satisfaction and behavioural intentions can change with experience. The likelihood of returning and recommending can be affected by experience as well. Therefore, experience

becomes a key component in cultural heritage tourism because satisfaction and behavioural intentions are determined by the experience. Visitors often seek a total experience, including leisure, culture, education and social interaction (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). In order to create positive experiences for visitors, cultural heritage attractions provide a variety of learning experiences. At the same time, it increases the number of visitors to the attractions. The visiting experience becomes more than an inspection of exhibits but also the further elaboration of visitors' understanding (Colbert, 2003). Masberg and Silverman (1996) say that it is necessary to explore the visitors' perspective and what they expect from their experiences. Thus, it is crucial to understand that cultural heritage attractions are not just presenting history and culture. It is necessary to understand the satisfaction of visitors because it can indicate their experience and problems in the destinations. The likelihood of returning and recommending can be affected by experience as well. Pearce (1982a) confirms that the experience with a destination slightly changes one's attitude towards other similar destinations in the same areas. In fact, some visitors look for similar but new experiences with different destinations (McDougall & Munro, 1994). Tourist experiences may be expected to influence holiday satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Truong & King, 2009). Satisfaction is a multifaceted concept, it is important to undertake an evaluation that takes account of the multiple variables (Truong & King, 2009).

## **2.6 Proposed conceptual model in quality cultural heritage tourism**

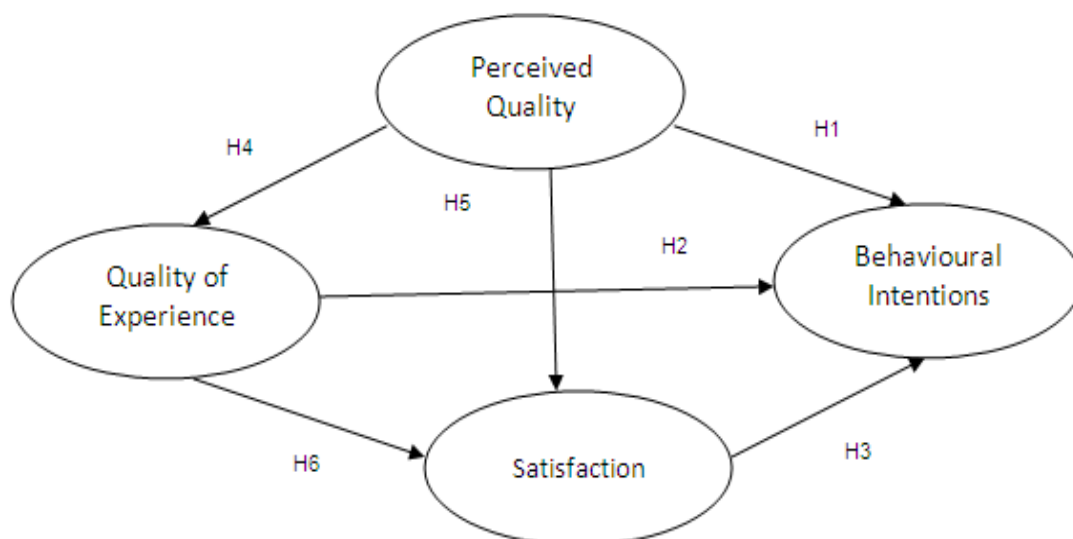
In an attempt to combine the above-mentioned theories, the author proposes a model to explain quality in cultural heritage tourism. There are four complementary constructs, including perceived quality, satisfaction, quality of experience and behavioural intentions to develop quality cultural heritage tourism. Perceived quality is hypothesised as having a direct effect on behavioural intentions and an indirect effect on behavioural intentions through satisfaction. satisfaction is hypothesised as having a direct effect on explaining behavioural intentions, which are indicators of whether a tourist will revisit the same destination, similar destinations and neighbouring destinations. The limited research in cultural heritage tourism has focused on understanding the satisfaction with a destination as influencing the



propensity to return to the same destination or visit the same area or country. Typically, perceived quality is measured through a set of attributes designed to test individuals' expected quality and then subsequently to respond to the same battery of items with a score reflecting their perceptions of an organisation's performance on each attribute. However, this approach has been widely criticised (Babakus & Boller, 1992; Brown, Churchill & Peter, 1993). Therefore, Crompton and Love (1995) pointed out that a superior alternative measure is to directly measure a respondent's perception of the quality of performance against an expectation standard. Based on the literature identified and investigated above, a model of quality in cultural heritage tourism is proposed in this research.

This model incorporates perceived quality, satisfaction, quality of experience and behavioural intentions. The literature reviews provide the evidence to show the significant relationships among these constructs. Six hypotheses are proposed based on the relationships between four constructs.

**Figure 2.3: Conceptual model of research**



**Hypotheses**

Hypothesis 1: Perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism is strongly and positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism has a strong effect on satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Satisfaction with cultural heritage tourism is positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations.

Hypothesis 4: Perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism is strongly and positively associated with quality of visitor experience.

Hypothesis 5: Quality of visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism is positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations.

Hypothesis 6: Quality of visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism has a strong effect on satisfaction.

### ***Constructs***

The present research therefore sets out to investigate the quality of the visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism. Perceived quality is crucial to evaluate visitor satisfaction and also behavioural intentions, while quality of experience is fundamental to cultural heritage tourism. This conceptual model is tested on the sample of visitors to Macao. It is expected that the testing and refinement of the conceptual model developed in this research may be applied to other cultural heritage destinations. In addition, the research looks at the value of quality to tourism providers and the possibility of using visitor perceptions of quality as a basis of development and marketing cultural heritage tourism. Based on the Chen and Tsai (2007) study, each of the model constructs is defined as follows:

Perceived quality: Visitors' appraisal of the quality of the cultural heritage tourism based upon the comparison between expectation and actual performance.

Quality of experience: Visitors' overall assessment of the standard of the trip experience.

Satisfaction: Extent of visitors' pleasure resulting from the ability of the trip experience to fulfil the visitors' desires, expectations and needs in relation to the trip.

Behavioural intentions: Visitors' judgement about their likeliness to revisit the same destination or their willingness to recommend the destination to others.

Literature reviews in this chapter form a central component of this research. This research tries to provide detailed inquiry into quality constructs in cultural heritage tourism. It is important to recognize that the quality of cultural heritage tourism in order to increase the competitiveness of cultural heritage tourism destination depend on much more than qualities of the cultural heritage itself. The research aims to enrich the knowledge in quality and cultural heritage tourism in the research area. It helps the author reconceptualise and evaluate the relationships between quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the destinations. Also, conceptual model is developed based on the literature for the further analysis. It is believed to be able to provide another perspective and understanding of the quality issues in cultural heritage tourism. It is hoped that the findings can further the knowledge obtained in existing knowledge, and will also be of use to Macao's policymakers in formulating strategies to the development of cultural heritage tourism. The results also serve as a reference for cities that are planning to cultural heritage tourism. Thus, the analysis and implications regarding the quality of cultural heritage tourism are presented in the following chapters.

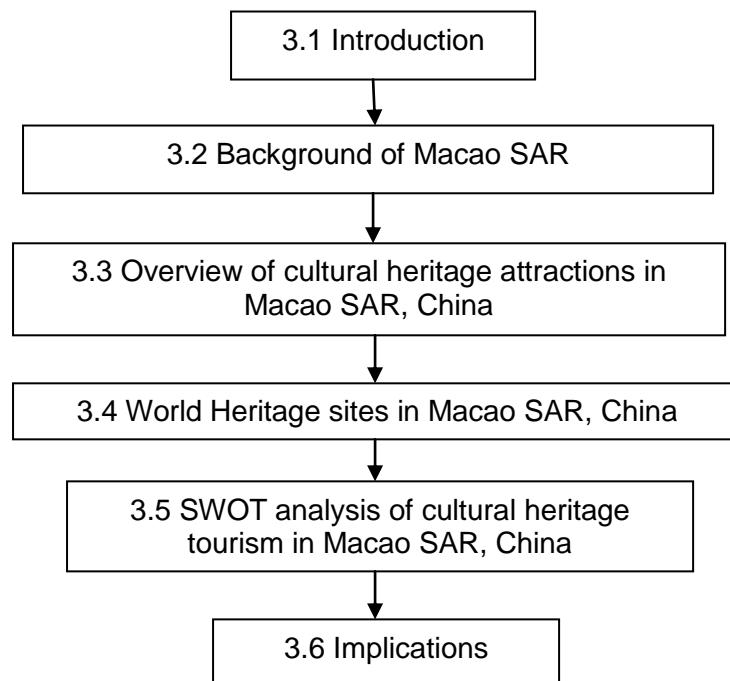
# CHAPTER 3

## CULTURAL HERITAGE TOURISM IN MACAO SAR, CHINA

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides background and insights of cultural heritage tourism in the Macao SAR, China. It specifies the geographical location of this research and provides detailed information for the research context as shown in Figure 3.1. First, Macao tourism environment analysis is presented in Section 3.2. Second, an overview of cultural heritage attractions and World Heritage sites in Macao is presented in Sections 3.3 and Section 3.4, respectively. Finally, SWOT analysis of cultural heritage tourism in Macao is presented in Section 3.5 followed by the implications in Section 3.6.

**Figure 3.1: Outline of Chapter 3**



### **3.2 Background of Macao SAR**

Macao SAR (Special Administrative Region) is on the southeast coast of China on the western bank of the Pearl River Delta in Guangdong Province and is one of the fastest growing cities in China. It has an area of 29.2 square km comprised of the Macau Peninsula, the island of Taipa, the island of Coloane and the reclaimed area Cotai (MGTO, 2009). About 95% of the population are ethnic Chinese from different provinces such as Guangdong and Fujian. The remaining 5% are Portuguese, European and from other regions. Chinese and Portuguese are the official languages used in government departments in all official documents and communications and Cantonese is most widely used in the city. English is generally used in commerce and tourism. The tourism industry is prominent in Macao's economy, particularly in the gaming sector. It is the only legal place in China that allows the gaming industry to be developed. With a population of 549,200 inhabitants (DSEC, 2009b), visitor arrivals for the whole year of 2009 were 21,752,800 (DSEC, 2010), mainly from mainland China (50.5%), followed by Hong Kong (20.9%) and Taiwan (5.9%). Mainland China still remains Macao's largest source market. Note that, the number of Japanese tourists, though ranked the fourth highest number, is actually very small at less than or around 2% of the total tourist arrivals. The tourism industry can be regarded as a highly seasonal and demand-driven industry. It is also so vulnerable that it is often the first to be hard-hit in times of crisis. This is compounded by the fact that the tourist-generating countries coming to the destination are themselves very sensitive to (possible) bad news, thereby making the demand very unstable. Same-day visitors account for more than 50% of the total visitor arrivals. Each visitor stays for an average of 1.21 nights (DSEC, 2009a). Since the liberalisation of the gaming industry in 2003, the development of Macao's economy has been propelled by gaming together with tourism. Macao is renowned for its casinos and is often called the 'Las Vegas of the Orient'. Macao's gaming industry emerged after 1975 and differed from the traditional Chinese gaming activities by including canine and horse racing and Western table games along with traditional Chinese ones (du Cros, 2009). Tourism development in Macao is mainly attributed to the expansion of its gaming sector which has also become an important feature of Macao's economy. The blossoming of the gaming business contributes not only to the visitor flow but also visitor

expenditure. The rapid development of the gaming industry impacts on Macao both positively and negatively. The positive impact is undeniable. Gaming revenues alone contributed more than US\$7.2 billion in 2006, exceeding the US\$6.6 billion made on the Las Vegas strip during the same year (CIA, 2008). In 2007, Macao's gaming revenue climbed to US\$10.38 billion, a 47% jump over its 2006 achievement (Hsu & Zheng, 2010). Analysts predicted that Macau's gaming revenue will reach US\$16 billion by 2012 (Mellen & Okada, 2006). Thus, it becomes an important feature of Macao's economy which depends almost entirely upon the gaming industry. Also, the development of tourism in Macao is mainly attributed to the expansion of its gaming sector. Therefore, the impact of the global economic recession is more obvious on tourism and the gaming industry. The gross gaming revenue decreased by 12.7% (equivalent to<sup>2</sup>MOP26.25 billion in the first quarter of 2009). Visitor arrivals totalled 5,454,170 in the first quarter of 2009, down by 9.6% year-on-year (DSEC, 2009b). Per capita spending of visitors (excluding gaming expenses) for the first quarter of 2009 contracted by 5.3% to MOP1,638, much lower than the MOP1,788 in the previous quarter, while the per capita shopping spend decreased by 10.8% to MOP657 (DSEC, 2009b). The data implies that Macao cannot rely on gaming in the tourism industry alone if it is to continue its economic growth. While the very nature of the tourism industry cannot be changed, a well-diversified tourism development can help minimise the down-side effect in bad times. Before achieving this end, it is crucial to investigate deeply the tourism industry in Macao and the diversity in its tourism activities.

### **3.3 Overview of cultural heritage attractions in Macao SAR**

Macao the 'Las Vegas of the Orient' is renowned for its gaming industry, but the tourism industry also comprises cultural heritage tourism which cannot be disregarded. Due to its geographical position, Portuguese traders reached Macao, which was a small collection of fishing villages, in the early 1550s, and established a city as a major port for trade between China, Japan, India and Europe. At that time, it was the only Western settlement within Chinese territory (du Cros, 2009). It also became the perfect crossroads for the meeting of Eastern and Western cultures

---

<sup>2</sup> MOP = Macao Patacas, US\$1 = MOP8

because the Roman Catholic Church sent some of its missionaries to Macao, from where the Jesuits launched their missionary activities in Asia. At that time, the Christian college of St. Paul's was built where students were prepared for their work as Christian scholars. This church gave the city a historical European appearance that distinguishes it to this day and the Ruins of St. Paul's are also a Macao landmark nowadays. On the other hand, Western technology and cultural pursuits, such as mechanical clock-making, painting and classical music seeped into China for the first time. Likewise, Chinese knowledge and goods made their way to the West (Peterson, 1994). Therefore, Macao has a rich and varied culture composed of elements taken from mainland China and Portugal. Furthermore, by 1863, Macao had a mixed population of Portuguese, Japanese, Malays, Indians, Africans, Chinese and Eurasians or 'Macanese' which is evident in its cuisine, architecture and customs (Miu & Miu, 2004; de Sales Marques, 2008). Macao has been associated with the exchange of a variety of cultural, spiritual, scientific and technical influences between Western and Chinese civilisations.

It is this rich history that creates the specific cultural heritage of Macao, which visitors can observe in the various attractions of the city. For example, Macau Museum is a place where the cultural traditions, usages and habits which belong to Macao are preserved. The historical sites such as Lilau Square, Mandarin's House and Senado Square are the places where East and West meet and have lived side by side over the centuries. Religion is an important part of Macao and its practices combine Buddhism, Taoism, Christianity and folk religions. There are many temples and churches related to Buddhism, Taoism and Christianity such as A-Ma Temple and St. Paul's Ruins. The festivals and special events such as the Dragon Boat Festival, Mid-Autumn Festival, Procession of the Passion of Our Lord, the God Jesus and Procession of Our Lady of Fátima are inherited from mainland China and Portugal. In order to attract more visitors, some festivals and events have been created, including the Macau Arts Festival, the Macau International Fireworks Display Contest and the Macau Food Festival. Above all, Macao is also famous for its cuisine and the quality of its food. Over the centuries, Macao has developed a unique cuisine that combines elements of Portuguese, Chinese, Indian and even Malay cooking, which is known as Macanese cuisine. It is a good reflection of the community's long multicultural

experience and present cosmopolitan way of life.

As for cultural heritage legislation, Decree Law No. 83/92/M was gazetted in 1992, and Macao's cultural heritage attractions came to be categorised into four types, providing successive levels of protection to the designated properties themselves (Chung, 2009), as shown in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Categories of cultural heritage in Macao**

Type	Description	Examples
A) Monuments	Buildings, sculptures and structures of outstanding historic value	Churches, temples and fortresses including the face and Ruins' St. Paul's, the A-Ma temple, the Guia Fortress
B) Buildings of Architectonic Interest	Edifices whose significance and quality reflect important periods in Macao's history	Morrish Barracks, the Post Office Building, the Military Club
C) Classified Complexes	Groups of buildings in urban settings	Buildings lining the Avenida Almeida Ribeiro, architectural cluster around Senado Square and those at the Rua and Beco da Felicidade
D) Classified Sites	Original natural or artificial landscapes with special aesthetic, anthropological and historic	Camões Garden, Guia Hill and Barra Hill

Source: Adapted from Macao Decree Law No. 56/84/M 1984

Pinheiro (2006) states that the effective linking of scattered monuments and clusters can demonstrate the appearance of Macao's historical backgrounds. It was instrumental in formulating the notion of a cultural heritage corridor and also the reason to apply for the World Heritage List. The proposal is also recognised by UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organisation) when World Heritage status was granted to the final list of 32 urban elements (including 23 monuments, one street, one garden and seven squares) in July 2005, compared to the first submission, entitled 'Historic Monuments of Macao' which included just 12 sites and was deemed too fragmented. The official title 'Historic Centre of Macao' therefore acknowledges the fundamental importance of open spaces in reciprocity with architecture as the constituting ingredient of Macao's exceptional urban heritage. The World Heritage Committee (2005) considered that the 'Historic Centre of Macao' was selected as bearing witness to the important exchange between the Portuguese



and Chinese peoples in the various fields of culture, sciences, technology, art and architecture over several centuries and therefore carried a wider cultural legacy of outstanding universal value. Cultural heritage tourism in Macao can therefore give visitors the opportunity to understand and appreciate the essential characteristics of a place and its culture, and to local residents increased cultural awareness and self-identity. It is not simply visiting the museums or historical sites; it is the important feature that combines the concepts of sustainability, authenticity, integrity and education. Based on the literature review in Chapter 2, these attractions are a number of cultural- or heritage-oriented facilities, including museums, aquariums, performing arts centres, archaeological digs, theatres, historical sites, monuments, castles, architectural relics, religious centres and even zoos. According to Stevens (1991), constructed attractions are often visited and viewed by visitors. However, types of cultural heritage attractions include a mix of tangible and intangible elements, linking the past and present. As a result, four categories in cultural heritage tourism developed by Decree Law No. 83/92/M cannot fully explain the types of attractions but information from the Macau Government Tourist Office (MGTO) provides a comprehensive list of attractions in Macao. This diversity of attractions highlights the need for a systematic categorisation in this research. Thus, based on information from MGTO and the categories developed in Chapter 2, the cultural heritage attractions in Macao are listed in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Visitor attractions in cultural heritage tourism by categories, sub-categories and establishments.**

Category	Sub-categories	Establishments
Tangible Attraction (Constructed Attraction)	Museums	Macau Museum, Maritime Museum, Wine Museum, Macau Museum of Art, Handover Gifts Museum of Macau, Treasure of Sacred Art in the St. Dominic’s Church, Museum of Sacred Art and Crypt, Dr. Sun Iat Sen’s Memorial House in Macau, Lin Zexu Memorial Museum of Macau, Museum of the Holy Museum of Mercy, Taipa Houses Museum, Sound of the Century—Museum of Antique Electronics & Phonographs, Heritage Exhibition of a Traditional Pawnshop Business, Macau Security Forces Museum, Macau Tea Culture House.
	Historic sites	Moorish Barracks, Lilau Square, Mandarin’s House, St. Augustine’s Square, Dom Pedro V Theatre, “Leal Senado” Building, Senado Square, Holy House of Mercy, Lou Kau Mansion, Section of the Old City Walls, Protestant Cemetery, Casa Garden, Guia Fortress, Mount Fortress, Mong-Ha Fort, St. Francisco Barracks, Barra Fort, Barrier Gate, Vasco da Gama Monument.
	Religious sites (Temples and Churches)	Ruins of St. Paul’s, Guia Chapel, Chapel of Our Lady of Penha, Chapel of St. FrancisXavier, Chapel of St. James, Chapel of St. Michael, Our Lady of Carmel Church, Our Lady of Fatima Church, Our Lady of Sorrows Church, Protestant Chapel, St. Anthony’s Church, St. Augustine’s Church, St. Dominic’s Church, St. Francis Xavier Church, St. Joseph’s Seminary and Church, St. Lawrence’s Church, St. Lazarus Church, Cathedral, A-Ma Temple, Kun lam Temple, Lin Kai Temple, Hong Kung Temple, Pou Tai Un, Temples to the Local Gods, Tam Kun Temple, Sam Kai Vui Kun (Kuan Tai Temple), Tai Soi Temple, Na Tcha Temple
Intangible Attractions	Festivals and special events	Chinese New Year, Procession of the Passion of Our Lord, the God Jesus, Feast of the God Tou Tei, Easter, Ching Ming, Feast of Pak Tai, A-Ma Festival, Macau Arts Festival, Feast of Buddha, Feast of the Drunken Dragon , Tam Kong Festival, Procession of Our Lady of Fátima, International Museum Day, Dragon Boat Festival, Feast of Na Cha, Feast of Kuan Tai, Feast of Maidens, Feast of Hungry Ghosts, Macau Music Festival, Mid-Autumn Festival, Macau A-Ma Cultural & Tourism Festival, Festival of Ancestors (Chung Yeung Festival), Lusofonia Festival, Macau Food Festival, Feast of Immaculate Conception, Christmas
	Living culture	Cuisine, Handcrafts, Language, Art, Music and Customs

Source: Compiled by research

Although Macao is famous for its gaming industry, Macao statistics indicate that the main purposes of visiting Macao are vacation (69%), business and attending conventions/exhibitions (12%), visiting relatives/friends (10%) and gaming (5%) (DSEC, 2009b). The previous study discriminates the gaming motives of Macao tourists into casino gambling and casino visits. The latter is more likely to go sightseeing instead of gambling (Lam & Vong, 2009). Based on this concept, the data in this study shows that the major tourist motives of visiting Macao are sightseeing, cuisine, culture and heritage, shopping and casino gambling (Lam & Vong, 2009). Thus, visitors in Macao are more 'tourists' who would go sightseeing and are expected to have more interest in cultural heritage attractions. Culture heritage tourism can be developed in Macao besides the gaming industry. This represents a potentially lucrative market. Even if only part of this market is interested in cultural heritage and might prioritise cultural heritage attractions in Macao, the reliance of Macao tourism on the gaming industry could be reduced. Cultural heritage tourism gives visitors the opportunity to understand and appreciate the essential characters of a place and its culture, and gives residents increased cultural awareness and self-identity. Creating a relationship between the visitors and the host community is an important feature of cultural heritage tourism, as are the concepts of sustainability, authenticity, integrity and education. The author believes that for these reasons Macao is a good location for this research.

### **3.4 World Heritage Sites in Macao SAR**

Cultural heritage tourism is a growing industry which has been recognised as the oldest and most important generator in tourism. A convention concerning the Protection of the World's Cultural and Natural Heritage was adopted in 1972 and 851 sites throughout the world have been designated as World Heritage Sites (UNESCO, 2008). Those sites serve as icons in many countries (ICOMOS, 1993) and some outstanding monuments in the list have made a unique contribution to human history (Shackley, 1998). The purpose of the list is to seek to encourage the identification, protection, and preservation of cultural and natural heritage around the world, considered to be of outstanding value to humanity (UNESCO, 2008). World Heritage Sites are increasingly considered as components in cultural heritage tourism and are used as a tool for tourism marketing campaigns. These campaigns draw vast numbers of visitors and increase the international visibility of destinations (Li, Wu & Cai, 2008). Designation on the World Heritage List can be considered as a means of increasing tourism and its success increases the number of visitors to World Heritage Sites. Many sites represent the culture of the country where they are located, symbolise their country internationally (Shackley, 1998) and also strengthen international and national heritage identities in the public mind (Drost, 1996). The sites should be open to all people, rather than preventing public viewing for the purpose of protection, and for future generations.

Due to its historical background, Macao has a rich culture and a long history. It is a city with a mixture of Eastern and Western cultures and its unique culture and attractions attract visitors from all over the world. As shown, Macao's attractions are not limited to casinos and gaming facilities. Table 3.2 also shows the varieties of attractions apart from the gaming industry. Macao submitted an application to the UNESCO World Heritage Centre in 2002 and the 'Historic Centre of Macao' has been inscribed on the World Heritage List since 2005, making it the 31st designated World Heritage Site in China, a designation which can attract more visitors to Macao. As an integral part of the city's life, its conservation is crucial to the local community. Also, it represents the essence of both Chinese and Western cultures because of its historical and cultural significance. It shows Macao is centred on its abundant cultural heritage sites and is also the product of over 400 years of cultural exchange between

the Western world and China. Those attractions represent an outstanding example of an architectural ensemble that illustrates the development of the encounter between the Western and Chinese civilisations over some four and half centuries, represented in the historical route, with a series of urban spaces and architectural ensembles, that links the ancient Chinese port with the Portuguese city. It is remarkable in setting off a succession of connections, has enriched both civilisations across a huge range of human endeavour, and is a critical influence in both tangible and intangible cultures of Macao. The strategic location of Macao on the Chinese territory, and the special relationship established between the Chinese and Portuguese authorities favoured an important interchange of human values in the various fields of culture, sciences, technology, art and architecture over several centuries. Combined with World Heritage Sites in Macao, visitors are able to experience different cultural heritage attractions including museums, historic sites (archaeological and non-archaeological sites), religious sites (temples and churches), living culture (gastronomy, handcrafts, language, art and music) and festivals and special events. After the launch of Macao's bid in 2002, the SAR government expended much effort both locally and abroad to raise cultural heritage awareness in relation to Macao's inscription. An extensive range of related promotional and educational activities targeted at different local communities aimed to communicate the value of Macao's monuments and to enhance citizens' interest in cultural heritage conservation. On the other hand, formal contact with regional and international communities ranged from organising conferences and seminars and arranging tours and exhibitions to facilitating academic research and publications. The longer-term educational initiatives include campaigns and competitions as well as curriculum additions attempting to cultivate appreciation among younger generations (MWHE3, 2005).

World Heritage Sites are a powerful aid in conservation, preservation and also international exposure. However, visitors from all around the world eager to see these world class attractions induces over-visiting. Whether these attractions are enlisted or not, Macao must aggressively promote those attractions and expect the large number of visitors to arrive to see them. The reason is that the existence and values of these attractions have already been known by the public. Therefore, apart from just demonstrating those sites as 'outstanding' attractions and waiting for the result, Macao must also define the boundaries of the sites and enact conservation and

preservation policies. Besides, detailed sustainable planning is also needed. In fact, most people consider that enlisting as World Heritage Sites is a valuable aid in promoting conservation initiatives, development of tourism and even raising national pride. Although listing as World Heritage Sites requires detailed tourism and site management plans to organisation, it implies Macao is able to endure the challenges. However, in the case of Xian (China), there is a negative impact on the site of the famous Terracotta Army because of crowds. Another problem is that conservation and preservation are costly, and in a troubled world, sometimes perceived as luxury, and therefore they need to have a level of public support. In order to avoid the types of problems a massive influx of tourism and recognition has brought to other World Heritage Sites, conservation in heritage needs to be supported by the public and situation policies and management for Macao need to be constructed

### **3.5 SWOT analysis of cultural heritage tourism in Macao SAR**

Due to Macao's inscription on the World Heritage List and liberalisation of the gaming industry, the development of cultural heritage tourism is being overshadowed. Although Macao is expected to draw many travellers from Asia or other countries in the world, the potential risks are that an economic bubble might occur due to Macao's reliance on the gaming industry. At the same time, the government considers the promotion of World Heritage Sites as the same as the development of cultural heritage tourism and hence the latter might be overlooked. The secondary data regarding cultural heritage tourism in Macao is used in this section; it aims at framing the research background, substantiating the chosen destination in the research and supplementing the findings. Although it may seem unconventional, it is required to extend the knowledge of Macao's situation. Secondary data is originally recorded or collected at an earlier time by a person other than the current researchers, often for an entirely different purpose than the current research purpose (Johnson & Turner, 2007). As such, the author finds different official documents including census data, newspapers, annual reports and journal articles to use in her research. In order to investigate the situation of Macao regarding cultural heritage tourism, SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats) analysis is used based on the secondary data. Gu (2004) believes that SWOT analysis is an important tool for the tourism planning process in tourism development, the unique conditions of a

destination, including the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, associated with the development must be identified and fully analysed. Fleisher and Bensoussan (2003) consider that SWOT analysis offers an enhanced way of thinking through the range of viable tactics or strategies in response to the competitive environmental dynamics. It is also an effective means for assessing a destination's core capabilities, competences and resources. It reveals development opportunities and vulnerabilities to internal and external environment changes. Thus, this section is to offer a strategic SWOT analysis to cultural heritage tourism in Macao by analysing its strengths and weaknesses and identifying the opportunities and potential threats.

### *3.5.1 Strengths*

Hsu and Zheng (2010) mention the main strengths in Macao are its status as the only legalised gaming jurisdiction in China and its proximity to Asia's major player markets, such as mainland China, Hong Kong and Taiwan. The major market in Macao is from mainland China (50.5%), followed by Hong Kong (20.9%) and Taiwan (5.9%) (DSEC, 2009a). According to Lam and Vong (2009), the data shows that the tourists who come from mainland China and Hong Kong have strong motives to sightsee Macao, the former are more attracted by shopping opportunities and gaming entertainment while the latter are more attracted by cuisine and cultural heritage sites. Ryan and Mo (2001) characterise the Chinese as a well-travelled segment with above average incomes and educational attainments who are motivated by relaxation and sightseeing. They prefer safe destinations with clean and unpolluted environments. They are also interested in Western history and culture. Thus, it has been predicted that China will be the world's fourth largest outbound tourism market in 2020 (World Tourism Organisation, 1999). In the case of Macao, the cultural heritage resources with a Western style could be considered the attractions for the travellers from mainland China and Hong Kong. In fact, compared to other gaming destinations including Las Vegas (U.S.A.), Genting (Malaysia), Sun City (South Africa), the Gold Coast (Australia) and Monte Carlo (Monaco), Macao is less developed but it has more cultural heritage resources together with World Heritage Sites. Macao is the only destination with a rich mix of Chinese and Portuguese cultures and has been declared a World Heritage city by UNESCO. Indeed, Macao was colonised by Portugal for more than 400 years. Chinese and Western cultures are blended in this

small city and integration of Eastern and Western religions nurture the city's uniquely Macanese culture which can be seen in its architecture, food, languages, festivals, people, environment and even administration. Portuguese culture is deeply rooted in Macao; therefore, Macao shares similarities with other Portuguese-speaking countries. It can easily attract visitors from those countries and enhance the visitor arrivals in Macao. Furthermore, this historical background and colonial characteristics means Macao possesses unique heritage resources which gives it a distinct advantage in attracting other travellers from different countries. It is an interesting destination that has more to offer than just gaming. In addition, the 'Historic Centre in Macao' has been enlisted as a World Heritage Site which can attract different people to travel and stay longer in Macao. Importantly, Macao is a relatively small city compared to neighbouring destinations and the easy accessibility of different attractions means transportation and accommodation are less of a factor. Visitors can fully enjoy and experience the cultural heritage tourism in Macao.

Macao is the only legal place in China where the gaming industry has been allowed to be developed. The casinos in Macao have played a unique and influential role in China. After the liberalisation of the gaming industry, different investors from international companies started investing in Macao. Numerous gaming establishments and tourism facilities are available in Macao which transforms Macao as an international tourist destination. Gaming revenues alone contributed more than US\$7.2 billion in 2006, exceeding the US\$6.6 billion made on the Las Vegas strip during the same year (CIA, 2008). In 2007, Macao's gaming revenue climbed to US\$10.38 billion, a 47% jump over its 2006 achievement (Hsu & Zheng, 2010). Compared to other destinations, Macao is usually a quiet place. Before 1999, Macao once had a hard time. Gangs committed arsons and bomb attacks in order to scramble for power and challenge the police, discrediting Macao's image in Asia. Luckily, public security in Macao has improved since the handover to China in 1999 and it has become a stable destination for travelling. The official currency in Macao is the Pataca (MOP). However, Macau has a diverse currency situation because of its special political status and strong dependence on its foreign trade partners. By the decision of the government the Pataca is linked to the Hong Kong dollar (HKD) which is accepted as currency in Macao. People can use the Hong Kong dollar almost everywhere in Macau. The value of the Hong Kong dollar is pegged at HK\$7.8 to the



US dollar, so Pataca is indirectly linked with the US dollar and eight Patacas is roughly equivalent to one US dollar. The Hong Kong dollar is the most important of the international currencies. Chinese Renminbi (RMB) and US dollars are also accepted in some transactions. Furthermore, buying and selling foreign currencies is a popular activity of Macau people. Travellers are likely to find the destinations overseas cheaper than at home. Tourism revenue can be assimilated to an export; it therefore contributes to the economy from visitor expenditure. It can definitely affect tourists spending more in Macao. Besides, Macau is generally very open in its approach to admitting tourists. Passport holders of 65 countries are exempt from a visa to Macao for a certain period. Most nationalities are permitted to obtain a visa on arrival at the border control, usually permitting a stay of 30 days. A policy would certainly help Macao attract more tourists from different countries to stay longer in Macao.

### 3.5.2 *Weaknesses*

The human resources deficiency poses a bigger challenge in Macao, labour is very limited considering the population is only approximately 549,200 with a working population of about 313,000 (DSEC, 2009a). The gaming sector, in particular, created a lot of employment for the local people. The liberalisation of casino licenses in 2002 expanded the number of casino concessionaries from one to six, including three sub-concessionaries, resulting in an increase in the number of casinos from only 11 in 2002 to 22 in 2006 and jobs from 19,772 in 2004 to 45,033 in 2006 (DSEC, 2008b). According to the local tourism experts, the casino industry alone requires an extra 33,574 employees from 2007 to 2009 (IFT, 2007). However, labour force deficiency is recognised as the major weakness of Macao. The human resources deficiency poses an even bigger challenge. Due to the small population size and the huge demand for labour in the gaming industry, coupled with the increasing demand for more qualified employees, the casino concessionaries are willing to pay a higher salary to attract them. It accelerates the human resource shortage, as many employees are lured to casino work by the higher income. Due to the above reasons, the casino concessionaries are willing to pay a higher salary to attract qualified employees. The average monthly income of casino workers jumped from US\$1,360 in 2004 to US\$1,812 in 2007 (this calculation was based on the second quarter of each year).

This ranked the highest among all industries in 2007, even higher than many administrative positions found in both the public and private sectors (DSEC, 2008). Some dealers can even earn a monthly income of US\$2,500. In the situation in Macao, Au, Tsai and Leong (2010) assuming a 40% increase in gaming tables by 2008, Macao would increase around 1,100 jobs in total. On that assumption, around 6,100 employees would be needed to station the tables during various shifts. The human resource shortage has already been a problem in Macao and cultural heritage tourism may be about to encounter a severe shortage of labour in the future. This implies that labour shortage and labour quality are two major hurdles in tourism development.

Therefore, other tourism sectors including cultural heritage tourism in Macao are facing a shortage of human resources. This obstructs the development of the tourism industry and cultural heritage resources. Importantly, it also affects the quality of service in cultural heritage tourism which is important for experience and satisfaction. On the other hand, while land shortage limits the scope of Macao's tourism development, it causes traffic congestion, which worsens the air and noise pollution problems. It affects the cultural heritage protection and possibility of achieving quality cultural heritage tourism. Furthermore, as Macao concentrates on the gaming industry it might exaggerate its gains and overlook possible negative impacts. The policies in the destination may tend to focus on the gaming industry because of its importance. These findings echo many previous studies that the policies are affected by the larger casino businesses in those operating in casino gaming communities (Room et al., 1999; Wan & Kong, 2008). In order to facilitate the development of tourism, the gaming industry is often granted privileges and assistances, including allocating new land in the Cotai area for their development. Many public spaces such as parks and recreation areas have to give way for these purposes (Wan, Pinherio & Korenaga, 2007). In the situation of Macao, cultural heritage tourism may be too weak in capabilities, resources and power to compete with the casinos, especially the casino gaming industry which is the main economic pillar of Macao society. The aggressive economic growth from the gaming industry, also affects the cost of living and residual prices, which is indicated by the continuous increase in the inflation rate since 2004 which even reached 9.49% in 2008 (DSEC, 2008). It also enhances the tension between the development of casinos and those of cultural heritage resources'

development. In addition, Macao may not benefit from the World Heritage List. Although Macao is famed for its World Heritage Sites, it is also leading the way in escalating demand for visits. The interest in World Heritage Sites and also the cultural heritage sites is increasing, while at the same time the size of the sites remains unchanged. Those sites were not intended to accommodate thousands of visitors when built (ICOMOS, 1993) and this might cause a threat to them. As a result, World Heritage Sites and also the cultural heritage sites in Macao are facing increasing visitor pressure which challenges the sustainability of cultural heritage tourism in Macao. In fact, certain long-term local businesses and communities of Macao could disappear, which could lead to an erosion of Macao's cultural heritage resources. Thus, there is a concern about cultural diversity and the survival of local traditions (du Cros, 2009), due to the development of the gaming industry which is potentially harmful to the cultural heritage resources through the increasing visitor arrivals and tourism-related projects arising from the gaming industry.

While land shortage limits the scope of Macao's tourism development, it causes traffic congestion, which worsens the air pollution problem. Air pollution is the other threat towards Macao. According to the Macao Meteorological and Geophysical Bureau (SMG, 2008), there has been a slight increase in the air quality index since 2000 although it remains in the moderate range (below 100). An index below 100 means the air quality at the station comes up to the standard of the index. When the index is above 100, the symptoms of the people who suffer from poor health will deteriorate. Although air quality is still at an acceptable level, this tendency is going to further pollute air in Macao. It is believed that it is the side effects of the aggressive growing tourism industry. The air pollution can bring soiling to the exterior of the cultural heritage attractions and not only affects the appearance of the attractions, but also the materials of the attractions. Furthermore, the cost of cleaning may be increased due to the air pollution. Ultimately, it can damage the quality of the cultural heritage attractions.

### *3.5.3 Opportunity*

The Facilitated Individual Travel (FIT) policy/Individual Visit Scheme in mainland China has been in operation since 2003. The latest revision by the mainland

authorities, shows that the policy covers 49 cities in mainland China, which includes all 21 cities in the Guangdong Province; Macao is situated 145km southwest of Guangzhou, the capital of the Guangdong Province. According to the information from the Guangzhou Municipality (2008), the registered population hit 7,734,800 at the end of 2007. Wu, Tang, Zhao, Qiu and Fang (1997) show in their study that 80% of urban residents in China prefer to visit destinations within 500km (310.5 miles) of where they live. Therefore, there are at least 6,187,840 active visitors from the 21 cities of the Guangdong Province. It implies huge visitor arrivals from China. As Macao is the only area in China where casino gaming is legal, it will expect to be developed as the top gaming destination not just for China's 13 billion people but at least for Guangdong Province's 6 million. Thus, Macao is considered a potential destination in the world that may pose some threat to other similar destinations. In addition, the average length of stay of visitors in Macao is relatively low, around 1.21 days, compared with other destinations such as Hong Kong (around 3.2 days) (Hong Kong Tourism Board, 2009). According to Hsu and Zheng (2010), Hong Kong is considered as Macao's main competitor. Both destinations compete for mainland China travellers in terms of the number of arrivals because 57% of tourist arrivals in Hong Kong also come from mainland China (Hong Kong Census and Statistics Department, 2009). At the beginning of the FIT policy, mainland China travellers usually visited Hong Kong and Macau on one trip. The visitors' longer stay in one destination implied a shorter stay in another (Hsu & Zheng, 2010). After the policy change, mainland China travellers can only visit either Hong Kong or Macau on one trip. If the travellers choose to visit Macao, it implies they may stay longer. This can help the development of cultural heritage tourism.

Furthermore, the inscription of the 'Historic Centre of Macao' on the World Heritage List and this international recognition raises local community awareness and fosters an appreciation of cultural heritage values. Shackely also (1998) indicates that World Heritage Sites are usually the primary attractions in destinations. In fact, in the global financial crisis, Macao is actively looking for new types of tourism apart from gaming. It can ensure the development of cultural heritage tourism. Hence, the global economic environment provides a positive influence on cultural heritage tourism and future development. In fact, the Macau Government Tourist Office (MGTO) launched the '2006 Macau World Heritage Year' in February 2006. A year-long operation to

strengthen Macau as a cultural heritage tourism destination comprised global image projection, overseas promotion, advertising campaigns and soliciting local retailer support. From 'heritage passports' to publicity stunts and copious media coverage, it indeed appeared that attention became focused on exploiting the 'Macau World Heritage' brand. Importantly, it can diversify its visitor base currently heavily skewed towards mainland China and Hong Kong. On the other hand, the value of cultural heritage resources has focused on the educational value (Choi, Ritchie, Papandrea & Bennett, 2010). Through promotion and education by the government, local people expand their knowledge and deepen their understanding of Macao's cultural heritage resources. Their sense of ownership and pride in those resources helps the conservation and preservation of the city which is very crucial. Also, it evolves in line with the development in cultural heritage tourism. Thus, it does not only have a positive impact to the travellers, it can boost Macao's multi-dimensional image and positive effects on the local community.

Land shortage in Macao causes traffic congestion, which worsens the development of cultural heritage tourism. Mainland China has approved plans by Macau to reclaim an area of land equivalent to 500 football pitches to solve the problem of land shortage in Macau's tourism development. The project of the Macao Light Transit System was confirmed in 2006. This will provide better transportation options between Macao Peninsula, Taipa Island and Cotai and will relieve traffic congestion on roads and bridges. Regarding the accessible transportation system to Macao, the construction of the Hong Kong-Zhuhai-Macao Bridge (HZMB) began in 2009 and is expected to be completed in 2015. It is considered as a way for shortening the travelling time and distance between Hong Kong and Macao. The proposed bridge (Hong Kong-Zhuhai-Macao Bridge) project can diversify Macao's economy. The scholars consider that this project would yield significant impacts on the regions and also facilitate tourist flows among the destinations (Hsu & Zheng, 2010). It can make Macao more accessible for international visitors via Hong Kong's international airport, the reason is that very few international flights are provided by Macao International Airport. It can further promote the development of regional tourism industries.

### 3.5.4 *Threats*

With an economy based on the gaming industry around 75% of Macao's tax base comes from gaming (DSEC, 2009b). According to the concession contract signed by the Macau SAR government and the concessionaires, the latter have to pay a 35% gaming tax and contribute a further 1.6% of their annual gross gaming revenues to a public foundation for promoting cultural, academic and charitable activities (DSEC, 2008). This enhances the promotion of cultural heritage resources in Macao by the gaming industry. Cultural heritage and gaming can be combined as a major attraction for visitors in order to boost Macao's multi-dimensional image and positive effects on the community. However, this implies that Macao relies heavily on the gaming industry. Macao's economic prosperity is largely dependent on its gaming industry and it would be quite a challenge if the gaming market began to fade. In fact, the present global financial crisis and H1N1 flu (swine flu) outbreak has affected Macao with a drop in tourist arrivals from 27 million in 2007 to 23 million in 2008 (DSEC, 2009a). During the past few years, the gaming industry has also expanded worldwide (Lee, Kang, Long & Reisinger, 2010). Even the gaming industry in Asia Pacific has also seen phenomenal growth (Au, Tsai & leong, 2010). The new entrants in the gaming industry such as Singapore, Cambodia, Vietnam, Laos and Malaysia already have legalised casino gaming and have pushed the gaming industry into a competitive environment (Au, Tsai & leong, 2010). In the case of Singapore, it has the potential to attract Chinese gamblers who used to visit Macao's casinos because of the similar cultural backgrounds. The reason is that mainland China is the second main target of Singapore. It is a well-known country in the world and the tourism industry is the major leading industry in Singapore. Thus, the Singapore Tourism Board has set up several development strategies in order to increase the visitor arrivals to 1.5 million by 2012 (Singapore Tourism Broad, 2009). Some of the countries are also interested in the liberalisation of the gaming industry such as Japan and Taiwan (Tsai, 2006). Given the improving relationship between mainland China and Taiwan, Taiwan is in a good geographic location to attract travellers from mainland China and also compete with Macao to liberalise the gaming industry. In fact, the State Council in mainland China released a document in 2009 detailing the development of Hainan which is located in the South China Sea into an international tourist destination, explicating six strategies for the development plan. The six

strategies include developing Hainan into a pilot region for China's tourism industry reform, building the island into a world-class leisure, travel and holiday tourist destination, establishing a demonstration zone for China's ecological development, and making Hainan an important platform for international economic cooperation and cultural exchanges. In fact, Macao also plans to develop itself as a leisure destination together with its gaming industry. It can definitely affect the gaming revenues in Macao directly but also the contribution to cultural heritage tourism from gaming revenues indirectly.

Besides Macao's liberalisation of the gaming industry, mainland China's high-speed growth and policy support are crucial factors for Macao's tourism growth. The major market in Macao is from mainland China. However, mainland China is fearful that an over-expansion of the gaming industry would have negative impacts towards Macao's society for sustainable development. Many mainland Chinese businessmen and government officials are involved in money laundering and problem gambling in Macao. Hence, the Chinese government has tightened its FIT policy, which may have a drastic reduction in the number of travellers in Macao. As Macao's tourism industry is heavily dependent on China, any negative issues in China are likely to have a direct effect on Macao's tourism industry together with cultural heritage tourism. In 2008, the government was accused of carelessness in protecting cultural sites, mainly concerning the Guia Lighthouse. The reason is the government set a maximum height limit of 90 metres around the culturally protected area of the Guia Lighthouse. According to UNESCO's list, Macao's World Heritage Sites are neither at risk nor in danger. However, the Macao government has been reprimanded by several local and support groups for not 'properly protecting' Macao's cultural heritage sites. UNESCO also alerted Beijing to threats facing the Guia Lighthouse and claimed that it might remove at least two mainland sites from the World Heritage List and warned against damage to others. It implies the absence of an adequate conservation and management plan; detailed sustainable planning is also needed. If not, the 'Historic Centre of Macao' might be removed from the UNESCO's World Heritage List.

### 3.6 Implications

This study has examined the situation of Macao by using SWOT analysis. It seems that the impact of the expansion of casino gaming on the growth of cultural heritage tourism in Macao is obvious. The findings reveal that cultural heritage tourism is fragile and relies on the development of the gaming industry. In fact, previous studies (Wan & Kong, 2008) also mention that the expansion of casino gaming has brought certain impacts to the destination; it also leads both positive and negative impacts to cultural heritage tourism. Positive impacts include growth in opportunities as the direct results of the influx of tourists and higher local consumption power, and an increase in competition which further leads to improved quality standards. The negative impacts include the serious shortage of human resources, high shop rentals and inflation, and too intense competition. Macau is severely constrained by the available labour force and land in its endeavour to become a Las Vegas-type entertainment Mecca (Gu, 2004). Thus, collaboration with its two neighbouring destinations in the Pearl River Delta (PRD), Hong Kong and Zhuhai would be important for Macau to sustain its growth. In fact, the Closer Economic Partnership Arrangement (CEPA) and the Pan-PRD Regional Cooperation Framework Agreement were signed between mainland China and Hong Kong and Macao in 2003. The proposed bridge linking Hong Kong, Macau and Zhuhai (HMZ) should greatly facilitate tourist flow among the three destinations (Hsu & Zheng, 2010). These proposals can develop the strategic goals for tourism collaboration and sustainable development. Despite these negative consequences, the previous study (Wan & Kong, 2008) shows that Macao's local residents accept and support the local casino gaming development. Besides the increase in business opportunities, local people generally believed that casino gaming will always be the leading industry in the local economy and that there is no better alternative. Local people's dissatisfaction was mainly with the casino operators and the government, but not the gaming industry. They are expecting the government to formulate more policies and strategies to regulate the casino industry. In this case, cultural heritage tourism can play an important role in a destination, in terms of its collective contribution to represent the destination and create a sense of place. In view of these factors, it is necessary for the Macao government to offer sufficient assistance to enhance the success and sustainable development of cultural heritage tourism. Tourism policy-makers should



first recognise that cultural heritage tourism plays a pivotal role in sustainable tourism development. Understanding how it can develop is vital in establishing strategies to assist growth and contribute to development. It is also believed that immediate attention and effort should be paid to enhancing the ability of cultural heritage tourism to operate and survive by offering some immediate and practical assistance.

Mainland China has remained Macao's largest source market in the tourism industry. It is important for Macao to develop a more multi-faceted destination image incorporating its gaming industry and unique cultural heritage resources. On the other hand, because of the increasing competition in the gaming industry market from Asia such as Singapore it is imperative to develop competitive strategies. To lessen Macao's overwhelming reliance on gambling, the government has already claimed to appropriately diversify the city's economy by expanding its portfolio to develop tourism. A possible way is that the gaming industry can be developed together with cultural heritage tourism and serve as the basis for strategic planning and then developing Macao as leisure destination. The gaming industry can be an engine to develop cultural heritage tourism in Macao which is offering opportunities for Macao as a gaming destination. Macao as a gaming destination can introduce various cultural heritage resources that are sustainable as a source of long-term tourism development. Macao will be developed as a world-class destination. It can provide a wide variety of experiences within a small geographical area. Macao is a city that focuses on its Chinese and Portuguese colonial culture and heritage. The preservation and enhancement of Macao enhances its appeal for travellers and provides a unique experience for travellers to see, taste and feel the culture. This westernised Chinese city in Asia is a favourable place for travellers to take a break and enjoy leisure activities. Meanwhile, Macao is one of the destinations with special cultural heritage resources and satisfactory experiences. In fact, tourism is often treated as a generic experience (Truong & King, 2009) and the physical environment plays a significant role in the travel experience (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994; Bitner et al., 1997), the cultural heritage resources can develop the attractiveness and the cultural heritage tourism can provide a unique travel experience for the travellers. Therefore, Macao is significant and suitable in this research. It is hoped that the present research can provide guidance for cultural heritage destinations in the world and particular in Asia.

Macao's current level of tourism is already approaching this limit, and, given present rates of growth, should have already exceeded the limit soon. Macao should adjust itself in various aspects to retain its competitiveness. Unlike many tourist destinations, quantity is not so much a concern for the policy-makers in Macao, quality in cultural heritage tourism, on the other hand, deserves more attention. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) state that the competitiveness can provide tourists with satisfying and memorable experiences, it can also enhance the well-being of residents and preserve their resources. Therefore, quality of cultural heritage tourism is the key to enhancing competitiveness and ensuring the sustainability of Macao's development. By using Macao as a case, the research contributes from both theoretical and practical standpoints to enhance current levels of knowledge on quality cultural heritage tourism. The focus should not only be on raising the quantity but also the quality of cultural heritage resources. With regard to its potential theoretical contribution, it validates the various attributes as key factors in quality cultural heritage tourism that are likely to influence the level of tourist satisfaction and behavioural. Each attribute is examined with the overall satisfaction and illustrates the interplay between quality, satisfaction and future behavioural intentions within the cultural heritage tourism industry. As for its potential practical contribution, the findings from the study provide new insights regarding cultural heritage tourism from the viewpoint of the tourists and residents. Also, it examines how tourism destinations can be assessed and improved by examining the affecting attributes. Developing this quality model should help increase the quality experience of travellers and local residents, it can ensure that every local resident enjoys the benefits of cultural heritage tourism. It thus assists the management and development of cultural heritage tourism in the long run.

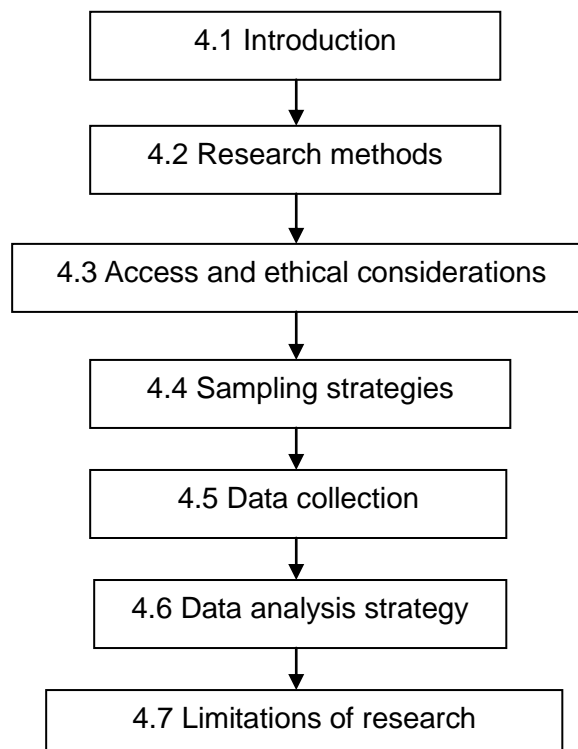
# CHAPTER 4

## METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 Introduction

The literature review presented in previous chapters has shown the relationship among perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in cultural heritage tourism. However, there is a relative lack of academic interest, particularly in Macao. Thus, this research sets out to investigate the quality and related constructs in cultural heritage tourism. It seeks to find out the quality attributes and factors in evaluating quality in cultural heritage tourism and their importance in experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. This chapter explains the research design of this study and reports the process of data collection shown in Figure 4.1. First, theoretical issues of methodology are addressed in Section 4.1, followed by access and ethical considerations in Section 4.3. Also, the sampling strategies and the data collection are presented in Sections 4.4 and 4.5. The data analysis strategy is introduced in Section 4.6. The limitations are reflected in Section 4.7.

**Figure 4.1: Outline of Chapter 4**



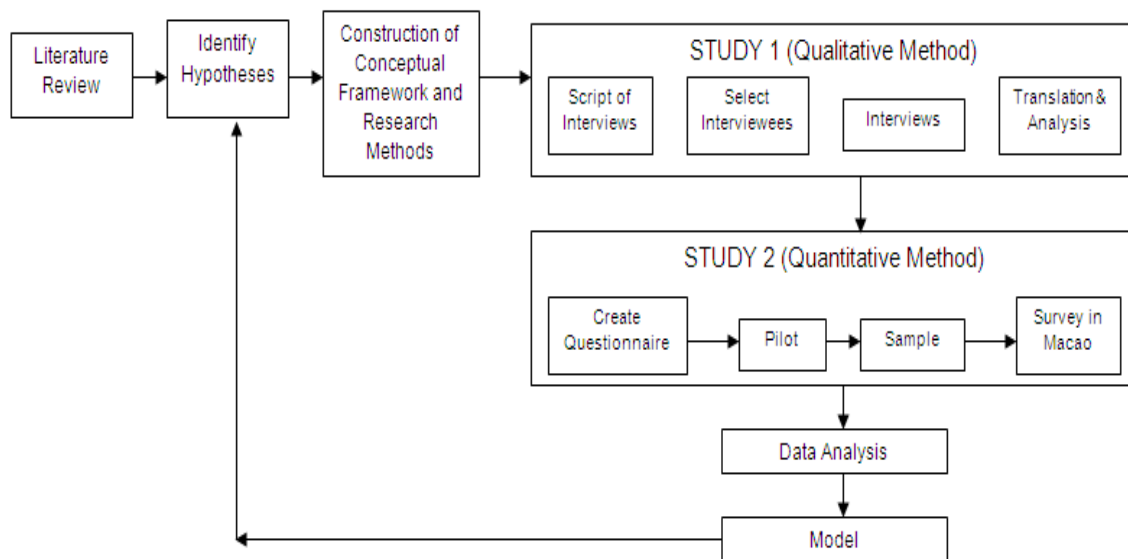
## 4.2 Research methods

### 4.2.1 *Research design*

The methodological approach used in this research includes qualitative and quantitative methods. In order to develop the studies with quality, the researchers try to use both qualitative and quantitative methods to answer objective-value neutral and subjective-constructivist questions. It is possible to have both inductive/exploratory questions and deductive/confirmatory ones in the same research. The mixed methods study involves the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single research, in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, and involves the integration of the data or more stages in the process of research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Both qualitative and quantitative methods are adopted because no single source of information can be relied on to provide a comprehensive perspective. A qualitative and a quantitative method (Qual→Quan) are used sequentially with an inductive theoretical thrust. This design is most often used to develop a model or theory and then to test the theory (Morse, 2003). The research aims to identify the relationships between perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions that exist in cultural heritage tourism. First, a qualitative method is used semi-structured questions to determine the constructs and model in quality cultural heritage tourism. Second, using the qualitative analysis, a Likert scale is developed using attributes in previous literature to form the scale items. This instrument is tested with 100 travellers in Macao. The author then revises the scale and obtains reliability and validity statistics (Kieren & Morse, 1992). Quantitative study is then conducted to determine the quality issues and test the models related cultural heritage tourism. Regardless of the fact that the second study is quantitative method, the first study in this research is qualitative study which is considered as the core study, even though the second quantitative component forms a deductive phase, the theoretical thrust is inductive. According to Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003), (Qual→Quan) approach must be methodologically independent, exquisite and adherent to its own methodological assumptions. Hence, each study in this research is distinct and each of them is congruent with its own assumptions. Also, the samples in these two methods are distinct. The qualitative study uses a small purposeful sample while the quantitative study uses a large,

randomly selected sample. Because of the time lapse between the two studies, it is not likely that they have participants in common (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). As a result, by using a combination of these two methods, the author is able to use different data sources to validate the findings. An outline of the process is shown in Figure 4.2.

**Figure 4.2: Research Design**



This research is considered as the sequential studies. The data in the research were collected sequentially and then were integrated in the process of research. The intent is to first explore the issues under research and then follow up on this exploration with quantitative data. The qualitative methods are used to help develop quantitative measures and instruments (Steckler, McLeroy, Goodman, Bird & McCormick, 1992). Thus, the results are amenable to studying a large sample and be inferred to a population (Creswell et al., 2003). Although social and behavioural research was dominated by quantitative in the 20th century (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003), they are suitable only to delve deeply knowledge. During the 1980s, the qualitative paradigm came of age as an alternative to the quantitative paradigm, and it was often conceptualized as the polar opposite of quantitative research. However, an examination of recent social and behavioural research reveals that mixed methods are being used extensively to solve practical research problems (Teddlie & Tashakkori,

2003). Importantly, social phenomena are so complex that, different kinds of methods are needed to best understand these complexities (Greene & Caracelli, 1997). Mixed research is the third major research paradigm that has complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses. These two studies are interdependent and together provide a more comprehensive view than either one approach.

The methodology begins with a qualitative phase of interviewing, followed by a quantitative phase of survey instrument design. Since there are two phases of data collection by using the mixed methods, the author reports the data collection process in two phases. Two chapters include an analysis of each phase of data separately with an integration of information in the discussion chapter. In fact, the most typical case is the integration of the two phases at the data analysis and interpretation after quantitative data and qualitative data have been collected (Creswell et al., 2003). Thus, this integration can identify the core constructs in this research for collecting both forms of data in the first place and understanding the important interrelationships between the qualitative and quantitative phases in the data collection. In the qualitative phase, the author tried to inquire into the situation with a strong emphasis on description and with a thematic focus on understanding a central phenomenon. They are assessed by using interviews to yield the data. These databases are analysed by using grounded theory to understand the complexity of the phenomenon. Then, the quantitative uses the survey for generating interpretations generalisable to a population. Mixed methods can obtain convergence or corroboration of findings, to eliminate or minimise key plausible alternative explanations for conclusions drawn from the research data and to elucidate the divergent aspects of a phenomenon (Johnson, 1995). Furthermore, validity is considered to ensure the quality in this research. Valid research is plausible, credible, trustworthy and defensible (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). Three types of validity are applied in this research. Firstly, descriptive validity refers to the factual accuracy of an account as reported by the researcher. It is essential that the researcher carefully collect and corroborate descriptive information during the process of data collection to ensure its accuracy. Secondary, interpretive validity refers to the degree to which the researcher accurately portrays the participants' meanings about what is being studied. It means that the author needs to understand the research participants' views and ways of thinking. Thirdly, theoretical validity refers to the degree to which a theoretical

explanation developed by the research fits the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Johnson & Christensen, 2000).

#### 4.2.2 *Rationale of mixed research methods*

Mixed method designs are those that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research methodology of a single study or a multi-phased study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). It is the third research paradigm, adding an attractive alternative research approach (when it is appropriate) to quantitative and qualitative. Guba and Lincoln (1989) argue that qualitative and quantitative methods are based on mutually exclusive assumptions and there is almost no common ground between them. The methods are incommensurable. Leininger (1994) also argues that the qualitative and quantitative paradigms are so radically different that they cannot be reconciled. However, the proponents of mix methods are related to the compatibility thesis and also the philosophy of pragmatism. The compatibility thesis is the idea that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible while the philosophy of pragmatism is that the researchers should use the approaches that work the best in a real world situation. Some researchers (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004) argue that researchers should use whatever methods are needed to obtain the optimum results. The logic of this pragmatist position is that neither qualitative nor quantitative methods alone are sufficient to develop a complete analysis. Hence, they need to be used in combination and they can complement each other (Creswell et al, 2003). In fact, the ultimate goal of any research project is to answer the questions that were set forth at the project's beginning. Mixed methods are useful if they provide better opportunities for answering the research questions. Also, the mixed methods are useful if they help researchers to meet the criteria for evaluating the good of their answers better than do single approach designs (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). It has become widespread in many of the social sciences and applied disciplines during the past 25 years (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Punch (1998) states that qualitative research is more concerned with theory generation while quantitative research is more directed at theory verification. Thus, qualitative research can be used for theory generation and quantitative research can be used for theory verification in mixed methods research. The major advantage of mixed methods research is that it enables the researcher to simultaneously answer

confirmatory and exploratory questions. Therefore, it can verify and generate theory in the same research (Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003). Hence, the mixed methods in this research allow the author explore in greater depth the processes in qualitative methods and confirm the hypotheses in quantitative method.

As a result, both quantitative and quantitative methods are used in this research. Since each of the two basic approaches to research has been criticised by proponents of the other orientation, the field of mixed methodology has evolved as a result of controversy and as a pragmatic way of using the strengths of both approaches (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). Furthermore, all methods of data have limitations and the use of multiple methods can neutralise and also cancel out some of the disadvantages of methods (Creswell et al., 2003). Thus, mixed methods designs are adopted in this research in order to incorporate techniques from both quantitative and qualitative research. In fact, many researchers (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Creswell, 1994; Greene & Caracelli, 1997) mention that using mixed methods can offset the disadvantages that certain of the methods have by themselves. Johnson (1995) also emphasises that methods should be mixed in a way that has complementary strengths and nonoverlapping weakness. Brewer and Hunter (1989) also suggest that the multimethod approach to research is superior to a monomethod because it provides grounds for triangulation. This idea is also the fundamental principle of mixed research. Then, the research findings can elucidate the divergent aspects of a phenomenon and converge and can be seen as an indicator of the validity (Erzberger & Prein, 1997). It can also generate a new comprehension of the phenomenon for further investigations (Rossman & Wilson, 1985). However, some researchers consider that mixed methods are feasible but they must be kept separate. Therefore, the strengths of each paradigmatic position can be realised (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Morse, 2003).

Although using a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches is widely advocated in tourism field, researchers need to consider carefully their rationale for using a combination of methods (Creswell et al, 2003). The philosophical stance in this research is critical realism. It is relatively new philosophical perspective that offers a radical alternative to the established paradigms of positivism and interpretivism (Houston, 2001; McEvoy, Colgan & Richards, 2003). The idea is not



to identify generalisable laws (positivism) or to identify the lived experience or beliefs (interpretivism), it is to develop deeper levels of explanation and understanding (Bhaskar, 1978). According to Bhaskar (1978), critical realism refers that there exists a reality independent of our representation of it, but it acknowledges that our knowledge of reality is subject to all kinds of historical and other influences. It draws a clear distinction between reality and our knowledge of reality. It prioritises ontology over epistemology. It is critical of society and holds that social research has an emancipator purpose (Robson, 2007). It attempts to raise consciousness of social conditions and emancipate individuals from their situations via critical methods of inquiry (Fay, 1987). Critical realism rejects positivism's preoccupations with prediction and quantification and measurement. Critical realism rejects the 'one size fit all' ontology and advocates selecting research methods and techniques according to the nature of the phenomena under investigation (Bhaskar, 1978). Critical realism also argues that positivistic methodologies focus exclusively on observable events and fail to take full account of the extent to which these observations are influenced by prior theoretical frameworks (Collier, 1994). The positivistic methodologies also deal with relationships between the various elements of social systems in isolations (Collier, 1994). Although critical realists acknowledge the value of interpretivist methodologies that focus upon discourse, human perception and motivations, they may fail to relate discourses to the underlying social structures (Bhaskar, 1989). Critical realists claim there is only one reality but the real world operates as a multi-dimensional open system. Hence, it is usually with multiple interpretations of it. Furthermore, critical realists argue that the choice of research methods should be dictated by the nature of the research problem. It is suggested that the most effective approach will be to use a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods (Pratschke, 2003). From the critical realist perspective, the key strength of qualitative methods, is that they allow themes to emerge during the course of an inquiry that could not have been anticipated in advance while the quantitative methods can help to illuminate complex concepts and relationships that are unlikely to be captured by predetermined response categories or standardised quantitative measures (Mingers, 2004). As a result, this research is used the mixed methods approach and qualitative study is considered as the core study, critical realism is appropriate in this research.

### 4.2.3 *Qualitative research methods*

The first study in this research is conducted using a qualitative approach as it aims to investigate and describe the quality issues and eventually build a theoretical model in relation to quality in cultural heritage tourism. An interview approach is used to seek clarity and a deeper understanding the meanings of the respondent intend. An interview approach is used to seek clarity and a deeper understanding about the issues and phenomenon in more depth, rather than simply describe them at a superficial level as may be achieved through the use of questionnaires (Breakwell, Hammond & Fife-Schaw, 2000; Eves & Dervisi, 2005). Hence, a qualitative method is adopted in Study 1, using semi-structured interviews that are one of a variety of forms of research interview. Also, there are many techniques available to involve stakeholders in tourism planning, such as drop-in centres, nominal group technique sessions, focus groups and citizen survey (Yüksel, Bramwell & Yüksel, 1999). Attempts to measure the quality of cultural heritage attractions commonly centre on questionnaire surveys, questionnaires are frequently prepared on the basis of interview studies, particularly with focus groups (Drummond & Yeoman, 2001). Originally, a focus group is planned on homogeneous groups but such a group tends to be dominated by one or two vocal individuals and hence produces skewed and biased results. Besides, the researcher is concerned about the difficulties of gathering all the selected respondents for the same time slot. As a result, the semi-structured interview method is chosen in this study, as it is able to yield an insight into the chosen subject and an in-depth understanding. By using semi-structured interviews, the interviewees have exactly the same questioning context. The interviewing of the respondents is standardised and differences between interviews are minimised. Meanwhile, the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply and make in-depth responses to the interviewer. Therefore, it is an appropriate method in this study because its purpose is to identify the attributes of quality.

Furthermore, stakeholder semi-structured interviews have several characteristics, which show their suitability for this study (Yüksel et al., 1999). Firstly, the interviewees have exactly the same questioning context; interviewing of the respondents is standardised and the differences between interviews could be minimised (Bryman, 2004). Secondly, this technique can allow each respondent to

express his/her views equally. There is no chance for respondents to predominate the interviews and debate the issues with individuals in other stakeholder groups (Ritchie, 1988). Thirdly, the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply and make in-depth responses to the interviewer. Importantly, it is crucial to choose the proper techniques based on the goals. The technique of semi-structured interviews is an opinion collecting technique, which is suitable for this study. The interviews can provide the opportunity to have direct contact with stakeholders and get a broad and detailed information about the issues (Yüksel et al., 1999). Thus, it can get more specific views of stakeholders on cultural heritage tourism in Macao and explore the potential value of interviews with stakeholders.

The interviews took place with different stakeholder groups affected by cultural heritage tourism in Macao. An increasing attention to the involvement of stakeholders has been seen in tourism research (Murphy, 1983; Gunn, 1988; Haywood, 1988; Inskip, 1991; Ritchie, 1993; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Yüksel et al., 1999). Freeman (1984) depicts that, in the broadest sense, the tourism stakeholders include local businesses, employees, government, competitors, national business chains, tourists, activist groups and residents (p.55). In this study, the sample consisted of gaming operators (dominant businesses), and representatives of significant government bodies (government officials of tourism bureau, cultural bureau and museum) and key individual/ groups related to cultural heritage tourism (neighbourhood association, tour guide association, an architect and member of legislative assembly). The sample was thus a mix of the major influential representatives in this Macao community, and the author asked them about current issues, proposals in the plan and recommendations on the plan and future development. The author understands that the validity of the findings depended on how the interviewer had arrived at this particular interpretation because all interpretations are subjective (Altheide & Johnson, 1994). The interviewer therefore tried not to invent her interpretations but ensured that results were the product of conscious analysis. This required a constant justification of the interviewer interpretation and a relentless internal evaluation of her motives for interpreting in a particular way (Manson, 1997).

The aim of the first study is to identify the attributes and constructs related to quality in cultural heritage tourism. The results from this study should provide insights and information very valuable to develop a quantitative (survey) research. Thus, Study 1 adopts the grounded theory approach to analyse the data collected by a means of individual interviews (Glaser, 1978; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Grounded theory approach is considered as a qualitative research method using a systematic set of processes to develop an inductively derived grounded theory about a phenomenon (Charmaz, 2006; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). It is appropriate for creating a theoretical model in fields of hospitality and tourism, which has previously not existed or judged to be inadequate (Mehmetogulua & Altinay, 2006). It is an interpretive methodology that employs inductive reasoning to identify and relate emergent themes (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). It requires the researcher to explore a phenomenon without prior hypotheses to explain it. However, Thomas and Fames (2006) point out that it is impossible to free oneself of preconceptions in the collection and analysis of data in the way that Glaser and Strauss suggested. Heath and Cowley (2004) also mention that it is hardly to enter a field completely free from the influence of literature review. Backman and Kyngäs (1999) indicate that it is particularly difficult for a researcher to have a clear thought of the topic area without preconceptions. Denscombe (2003) states that there is a danger to generate a theory from the data without a thorough literature review at the beginning of a study.

In such case, literature review is conducted and presented in Chapter 2. Although Strauss and Corbin (1998) warn that it is usual for researchers to focus too much on previous studies and fail to make discoveries of their own, grounded theory does not reject existing literature and researchers' previous knowledge (Tan, 2010). Thus, based on the suggestions from Tan (2010), it is vital to keep an open mind when reviewing the literature and analysing data. It helps the author foster theoretical sensitivity which refers to the researcher's knowledge, understanding, skills and ability to see data with analytic depth. Then, it reduces the risk of missing some relevant literature and acknowledges the potential effect of author's personal biases.

#### 4.2.4 *Quantitative research methods*

A quantitative method was adopted in Study 2. The survey is one of the most frequently used designs in dissertations within the leisure and tourism fields (Smith, 1995; Finn, Elliott-White & Walton, 2000), which is also reinforced by the various academic journals on the subject. It can provide information about the distribution of a wide range of people's characteristics and the relationships among the characteristics (Robson, 2007). Furthermore, Smith (1995) mentions that surveys are the most important source of information for tourism analysis, planning and decision-making. The normal survey tool is a series of printed questions in the form of a questionnaire or an interview schedule of some sort and its purpose is to obtain reliable and valid data on the subject being researched (Finn et al., 2000). The survey instrument was designed to include all constructs of the proposed models to investigate the hypotheses and the questions in this questionnaire were based on a review of the literature and Study 1. According to Johnson and Christensen (2000), it is important to follow the 13 principles of questionnaire construction including (1) make sure that the questionnaire items match the research objectives, (2) understand your research participants, (3) use natural and familiar language, (4) write items that are simple, clear and precise, (5) do not use 'leading or 'loaded' questions, (6) avoid double-barreled questions, (7), avoid double negatives, (8) determine whether an open-ended or a closed-ended question is needed, (9) use mutually exclusive and exhaustive response categories for closed-ended questions, (10) consider the different types of response categories available for closed-ended questionnaire items, (11) use multiple items to measure abstract constructs, (12) develop a questionnaire that is easy for the participants to use and (13) always pilot-test the questionnaire. Therefore, the questionnaire was designed based on these principles. After the pilot-test, it was revised and finalised based on feedback from academic scholars of tourism and a pilot sample of 100 tourists in Macao. Thus, the content validity of the survey instrument was deemed as adequate. A free-response technique was used in a face-to-face survey to study visitors' perceptions of quality in cultural heritage tourism, in particular, to investigate the attributes of perceived quality and the relationships among experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. It also investigated the relative importance of the quality mix within cultural heritage tourism. Securing involvement is also a technical matter, the design and length of

questionnaires are considered in this study. It can secure a high degree of involvement from respondents to the survey (Robson, 2007).

Furthermore, it was feasible to interview individuals on the street by using the survey and obtained a generalised perception of quality in cultural heritage tourism and compared its specific operations. However, before collecting the main data, a pilot study was used to test the measurement scales and survey questionnaire in order to improve clarity and readability of the final instrument. The reason is that the reliability and validity of survey data depend to a considered extent on the technical proficiency of those running the survey. If the questions are incomprehensible or ambiguous, it cannot obtain the valid information (Robson, 2007). In order to ensure the validity, the internal and external validity are also considered. The concepts of internal validity and external validity are always applied to quantitative research (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). Internal validity is concerns the soundness of an investigation. In particular studies of cause and effect need to be internally valid. The external validity refers to the extent to which the results of an investigation can be generalised to other samples or situations (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Besides, by representing all respondents with the same standardised questions, carefully worded after piloting, it is possible to obtain high reliability of response. No follow-up was made for this survey due to situational difficulties arising from its on-site nature and the respondents' being visitors in Macao. The targeted respondents were travellers to Macao because little attention is focused on cultural heritage from a visitor perspective in identifying individual visitor needs, motivations and, in particular, the value sought and gains from visiting heritage attractions. A standardised language is used to refer to the sampling procedures employed. The raw survey data are deposited in data archives. According to Robson (2007), this standard of professionalism can ensure the quality of the data and documentation. It is important in enabling author to check and understand the data clearly. Also, it permits both checking and further analysis by other researchers.

### **4.3 Access and ethical considerations**

Ethical behaviour was important in this study and it was necessary to be concerned with issues like honesty and respect for the rights of the respondents. Based on

Veal (1992), a set of guidelines for the tourism survey was implemented in the study and they include anonymity, short interviews (around three or four minutes), fairly innocuous and non-personal questions. On the other hand, the Social Research Association's (2003) ethical guidelines state that researchers should "conduct their work responsibly and in light of the moral and legal order of the society in which they practice" (p.11) and be "obligated to protect subjects from undue harm arising as a result of their participation in research" (p.14). Thus, the author followed these two guidelines and ensured that the research was carried out ethically throughout the whole research process.

On the initial contact in for the qualitative study, interested stakeholders were briefed on the purposes of the study and procedures before the interviews. Some respondents agreed to have the interview at the point of contact. Then, appointments were made for an agreed time and place for the interviews. At the beginning of the interviews, participants were assured of the confidentiality of the information they would provide. They were also informed that they could withdraw at any point of the interview. A tape recorder was used whenever the interviewees agreed. For those feeling uncomfortable with the tape recorder, notes were taken and were checked with the interviewees during the conversation. In practice, 91.7 % of the respondents agreed to be recorded, but all gave permission under the condition that the author should keep it confidential and not let the voice recording be heard by a third person. At the end of the interview, the author left her contact information, including email and telephone number, in case the participants needed further contact or wanted to share other issues of the research.

At the stage of quantitative study, experienced interviewers (the author chose IFT (Institute For Tourism Studies, Macao) undergraduate students with previous experience in data collection) were hired to administer the questionnaires. In order to ensure consistency in results, the interviewers were trained and briefed by the author. They were sent to Senate Square, the place most visited in Macao by both cultural and non-cultural travellers. Senate Square was selected as the sole location for data collection for this quantitative study to provide the study in a similar context for all visitors. Suggested by de Rojas and Camarero (2008), any possible influence of contextual factors (cultural and tourist factors and adjacent services) on variables

studied (satisfaction, perceived quality, emotion) could be avoided. Participants in the survey were contacted during their visit to Senate Square and interested visitors were briefed on the purpose of the research and procedures of the survey. During the data collection, they were also monitored by the author to ensure that everything went smoothly and that the data were relevant. For those respondents who agreed to join the survey at the point of contact, the interviewers did the interviews immediately. At the beginning of the survey, respondents were assured of the confidentiality of the information they would provide. At the end of the survey, contact information of the author was also provided for any enquiries. It was crucial for the interviewer to understand the language and culture of the respondents. Chinese and Portuguese are the two official languages in Macao but since the author and the experienced interviewers cannot speak Portuguese, the languages for semi-structured interviews and survey were Chinese and English. In this case, the interview questions and questionnaires were prepared in two versions (English and Chinese). As some of the interview transcripts and questionnaires might need translation from Chinese to English, this was more difficult and could lead to possible misunderstandings, so the translator needed to understand the topics precisely. Furthermore, the author is the only person to transcribe the interview transcripts from digital records to word file to ensure precise understanding of the context. In addition, it was important to follow strict conventions in writing field notes and adhere to a consistent theoretical orientation. In order to ensure the validity for the translation in questionnaires, the backward translation is used for the interview questions and questionnaires to ensure the questions are translated precisely. The author does the English-to-Chinese translation first, and then asks two colleagues who are familiar with the topics to do Chinese-to-English translation. After that, the authors compare and reconcile differences. Before collecting the main data for this study, a pilot study is also made to test the interview questions and the measurement scales in survey questionnaire to improve clarity and readability.

#### **4.4 Sampling strategies**

##### *4.4.1 Interviews*

By using semi-structured interviews, the interviewees are given exactly the same



questioning context. The interviewing of the respondents is standardised and the differences between interviews can be minimised. Meanwhile, the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply and make in-depth responses to the interviewer. It can reduce the constraints on opinions expressed and provide insights into values and attitudes about the issues. On the other hand, the interviewees in the Study 1 are purposively selected. In compliance with the qualitative-explorative nature of the research, diversity is considered more important than representativeness. Hence, judgemental sampling is applied. It involves selecting a group of people because they have particular traits that the author wants to study. Cassell and Symon (2004) state that the sampling advantages in interviews include greater control over respondent selection, and more depth, context and flexibility in the process of inquiry. Therefore, it was an appropriate method in this study because one of the purposes is to identify the attributes of quality. Interviews were used conducted in order to gather a better understanding of the quality issues in cultural heritage tourism. A qualitative inquiry focuses in-depth on relatively small samples, typically selected purposefully. Patton (1990) indicated that purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study where one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the inquiry. In addition, the strategy of picking small, homogeneous sample was adopted in order to bring people together of similar backgrounds and experiences to participate in the interviews concerning the attributes of quality. Patton (1990) also mentions that there are no rules for the sample size in a qualitative inquiry. Thus, a total of twelve interviews from both public and private sectors were conducted in Macao, categorised into four stakeholder groups and the number of interviews for each was as follows: local government officials (6), managers of gaming operators (2), individuals related to cultural heritage tourism (2) and interested organisations (2). The local government officials included had the most involvement in cultural heritage tourism development. The gaming operators were included because the gaming industry is the main economic activity in Macao. The individuals related to cultural heritage tourism could express opinions from the viewpoint of local residents and in addition, the interested organisations included a representative from local tourism associations.

#### 4.4.2 Survey

In order to test the proposed hypotheses and model, questionnaire survey based on information collected from travellers to Macao and a quantitative method were adopted. The objective of the survey was to investigate general opinions about quality constructs on cultural heritage tourism. The sampling error in the survey was expected to decrease as the size of the sample increased (Hurst 1994). The literature suggests that the ratio between the number of items and the sample size should exceed a certain minimum and be at least 1:5 (Hinkin, Tracey & Enz, 1997). Besides, according to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), if the population size reaches 5000 or more, a sample of 400 will be adequate. Since tourist arrivals in Macao have continued to grow to 27 millions in 2007, 500 respondents are more than adequate (DSEC, 2008). Furthermore, structural equation modelling (SEM) was to be used for the data analysis of Study 2 and sample size plays an important role in interpreting SEM results. The recommendations are for a size ranging between 100 to 200, with a sample of 200 being a 'critical size' (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001). Therefore the sample population was raised from 400 to a total minimum of 500. This study used a face-to-face survey method. However, before collecting the main data for this research, a pilot study was also made to test the measurement scales and survey questionnaire to improve clarity and readability. The target respondents were the visitors travelling to Macao, with a total sample size of 500 selected through convenience sampling. Experienced interviewers (the author chose Institute for Tourism Studies undergraduate students with previous experience in data collection) were hired to administer the questionnaires. In order to ensure consistency in results, the interviewers were trained and briefed by the author. During the data collection dates, they were also monitored to ensure that everything went smoothly and that the data were relevant. The interviewers were sent to Senate Square, the place most visited by both cultural and non-cultural travellers in Macao and the targeted respondents were approached randomly on weekdays, weekends and public holidays. Based on the Chen and Tsai (2007)'s study, the convenience sampling technique was applied. A total of 550 questionnaires were delivered and 513 usable samples were obtained, resulting in a very high response rate 93.2%. Travellers visiting Senate Square in the morning, afternoon, evening and at night were approached in order to minimise selection biases. However, there was a control on the sample size of

respondents as to whether they had visited the cultural heritage attractions or had involved cultural heritage resources.

#### 4.4.3 *Pilot study*

The pilot studies were made for both qualitative and quantitative studies as in the research protocol. The advantages of the pilot studies were in helping to assess the feasibility of the studies, identify problems that might occur in the fieldwork and test the effectiveness of the research methods. Importantly, it could ensure that relevant data were collected. The pilot studies enabled the author to refine the research design and be better prepared for the subsequent fieldwork for the main studies.

For semi-structured interviews, efforts were made to consult academic staff in the cultural heritage tourism field about the list of interviewees and this helped to approach suitable respondents and obtain the relevant data. Before the interviews, the author explained to the interviewees that the recorded data would be kept confidential and used only by the author for this particular research. Under such a condition, more respondents agreed to be recorded in the main study. For the survey, efforts were made to maximise the opportunity to enlist participants. The fieldwork was carried out during the peak tourist season and the peak period of the fieldwork sites in order to receive the largest volume of visitors to approach as potential participants.

Also, the questionnaire was pre-tested with 100 travellers in Macao with regard to appropriateness of the items, question format and wording to identify potential biases and ambiguities. The survey instrument was revised and finalised based on the feedback from five tourism experts and a pilot sample of 100 visitors in Macao. Furthermore, the content validity of the survey instrument was deemed adequate. The Cronbach  $\alpha$  results of scale reliability for the pilot test were perceived quality (.869), satisfaction (.709), behavioural intentions (.712), authenticity (.765), interpretation (.872) and educational benefits (.744). The study was made in Senate Square to ensure the reliability of the designed questionnaire. Minor modifications were based on comments collected from the academics and the pilot study. Modifications were made in respect of the appropriateness of items, question format

and wording. All empirical study data were collected over a period of 6 months from travellers visiting Senate Square in Macao, an important and famous cultural heritage destination in China.

#### *4.4.4 Reflecting and refining research design*

In general, the pilot studies proved that the research tools were appropriate and the research design viable. Following piloting of the structured survey, the questions were deemed appropriate. Respondents in the survey found the 5-point Likert scales easy to use and they were deemed to be appropriate, so they were left in the questionnaire. However, a few problems were identified. Firstly, it was difficult to get survey participants on rainy days since Senate Square is an open place. Secondly, it would be helpful to have learned Portuguese to avoid appearing obtrusive and to have a deep understanding of the respondents' thoughts. Thirdly, one of the interview respondents refused to have the conversation recorded, so the author, unable to record the complete conversation, only took notes. Additionally, this respondent gave too brief answers and the author needed to use various probing techniques to encourage further elaboration and explanation. Fourthly, some respondents were not the original targeted stakeholders for whom which they were the representatives. They might have considered politically desirable responses and expressed 'favourable' opinions. There was also a challenge of topic control during the interviews. This could have affected the information collected and made findings difficult to interpret. Lastly, some respondents tended to deviate from the questions and raised lots of issues which were not relevant.

### **4.5 Data collection**

Data for both studies were collected from 2007 to 2008. A mixed-method approach was adopted including semi-structured interview and questionnaire survey. A multiple sampling strategy was used in these two methods. Theoretical sampling was used in semi-structured interviews while the survey used basically convenience sampling. The details of these two data collection methods are as follows:

#### *4.5.1 Qualitative research methods*

The research design included number of questions in the interviews in order to conceptualise the issues of quality underlying the phenomenon of cultural heritage tourism in Macao. A total of 12 personal interviews were conducted in Macao in 2007. Based on the above-mentioned literature, each interview session lasted between 30 to 40 minutes, with none lasting more than one hour. It also avoided the respondents' suddenly deciding that too much time was being spent on the interviews, which adversely affected the content. Participants in interviews were contacted earlier and interested visitors were briefed on the purpose of the research and the procedure for the interviews. Appointments were made with those willing to participate and time and place were agreed. A pre-designed interview sheet containing questions in both Chinese and English was prepared in advance. At the beginning of the interviews, the participants were assured of the confidentiality of the information they would provide. They were also informed that they could withdraw at any point. The interviewees were asked to express orally their thoughts and evaluate the quality attributes in cultural heritage tourism. In order to generate and enrich responses, the interviewer was equipped with a list of questions aimed at encouraging interviewees to elaborate on their comments and preferences. The tape recorder was used whenever the participants agreed. In practice, only one of the interviewees refused to be recorded and for this interviewee, notes were made during the interview and checked with the interviewee during the conversation. The author left her contact information with the participants in case of further enquiries. The interview schedule, interview questions and respondents' demographic information are given in Appendices A and B.

Although the official languages in Macao are Chinese and Portuguese, Portuguese is not the researcher's mother tongue and some of the targeted respondents speak Chinese. As a result, Chinese and English were used in the interviews. All interviews were digitally recorded except one because the respondent refused. All the interviews were made by the author who maintained an interview style that did not bias respondents' answers. The author used probing and paraphrasing to facilitate recalls and allow delayed responses (Hsu, Cai & Wong, 2007). Applied to grounded theory in the data analysis of Study 1, theoretical sampling was chosen in response to

the study. Data were collected using grounded theory procedures described in Strauss and Corbin (1998), a process which can generate theory and develop emerging theoretical categories. Theoretical sampling discovers categories and develops the interrelationships into a theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The aim of theoretical sampling is to explore the dimensional range or a variety of conditions of the properties of the concept being explored (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Daengbuppha, Hemmington & Wilkes, 2006). However, it is only related to conceptual and theoretical development and not about representing a population or seeking for generalisability (Charmaz, 2006). After the data collection, the author coded and analysed the data and decided what data to collect next in order to develop theory (Connell & Lowe, 1997; Goulding, 2002). On the other hand, the sampling started with data, constructing tentative ideas about the data and then examining these ideas through further empirical inquiries (Charmaz, 2006). Memo-writing leads directly to theoretical sampling because the author intended to elaborate and refine the theoretical categories. It helped the researcher to conduct theoretical sampling depending on having already identified categories (Charmaz, 2006). Thus, sample size is not defined in advance in order to gather the most relevant data about the phenomena. It also helps to define the categories explicitly. Although Creswell (1998) suggests that a typical grounded theory study includes 20-30 interviews, saturation was closed after 12 interviews. Interviewers continue to add data until no new categories or properties are emerging or to the point of saturation. As a result, data in this study were collected with 12 respondents.

#### *4.5.2 Quantitative research methods*

Before proceeding to the quantitative study, twelve semi-structured interviews were held with the representatives from both public and private sectors. The purposes were to identify the quality attributes and how the attributes affect satisfaction and also behavioural intentions. The questionnaire was designed as a survey instrument including all constructs of the proposed model to investigate the hypotheses of interest. The questions were based on the interviews and literature reviews. The author developed a questionnaire in order to test the above-mentioned hypotheses. The questionnaire was mainly designed for measuring Macao travellers' perceptions on quality in cultural heritage tourism, satisfaction levels with their holiday

experiences of cultural heritage tourism and their likelihood of revisiting the same destination or visiting other similar destinations or neighbouring destinations in the future. The four-page questionnaire comprised twelve sections. The first section measured respondents' quality of experience towards cultural heritage tourism while the second measured variables related to the respondents' perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism. The scale of quality attributes in the first and second sections were prepared from Study 1 and the proposal of Brady and Cronin (2001), also adopted in the de Rojas and Camarero (2008) research. Those four researchers consider the three dimensions of quality: outcome quality, interaction quality and physical environment. Outcome quality is measured as the educational and instructive experience and the excellence of the objects and materials exposed; interaction quality focuses on the treatment received and the employees' willingness to look after the visitor; physical environment quality refers to the centre's installations, informative panels and atmosphere. The attributes were carefully selected and amended based on review of relevant literature (Brady & Cronin, 2001; de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). In the third section, based on the researches of Russell and Pratt (1980) and de Rojas and Camarero (2008), the measurement of satisfaction attributed was developed. This instrument was used because there is a comprehensive review of the findings from major destination studies. The fourth section modified Kozak's (2001) study and de Rojas and Camarero's (2008) research in order to develop a measurement scale of behavioural intentions to understand overall tourist satisfaction levels regarding Macao, how likely the tourists were to visit Macao in the future and visit or revisit other similar destinations, and visit neighbouring destinations. The questions were further grouped under many attributes. Based on the researches of Ryan and Dewar (1995) and Zhang and Chow (2004), the interpretations and authenticity indices were developed. The questions related to interpretations and authenticity were in the fifth and sixth sections, respectively. Based on the research of McIntosh and Prentice (1999), the seventh section asked about the educational benefits gained by travellers visiting the cultural heritage attractions. These questions aimed to elicit respondents' views on benefits on Macao as a cultural heritage destination after their holiday experience. A 5-point Likert scale was used in these seven sections with scale anchors 1 = disagree and 5 = agree. To determine whether there is a relationship between level of specialisation and visitor characteristics, demographic data including occupation, income, age,

educational level, nationality were examined in the eighth part, ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth of questionnaire. On the other hand, open-ended questions were also included in the questionnaire. Visitors were asked to reflect upon and describe the sorts of experience(s) the attraction(s) has/have provided, what thoughts or feelings had come to mind about cultural heritage in Macao and what attractions had come to mind about cultural heritage attraction in Macao. The details of questionnaire are shown in Appendix C.

Based on the Chen and Tsai (2007) study, the convenience sampling technique was applied. A total of 550 questionnaires were delivered and 513 usable samples were obtained. In 2008, visitor arrivals for the whole year were 22,933,185 while there were 1,908,525 in December (DSEC, 2010). Macao statistics indicated that the main purpose of visiting Macao is vacation (69%) in 2008 (DSEC, 2009b). It was assumed that 1,316,882 tourists visit Senate Square in December 2008. Since the survey was conducted in December 2008, the respondents in this survey represented 0.04% of the total sample. Travellers visiting Senate Square in the morning, afternoon, evening and at night are asked were approached in order to minimise selection biases. To ensure random sampling, the targeted respondents were approached randomly on weekdays and weekends as well as public holidays during the survey periods. However, there was a control on the sample size of respondents as to whether they had visited the cultural heritage attractions or had involved cultural heritage resources.

#### **4.6 Data analysis strategy**

The author integrated components of both qualitative and quantitative research at the data analysis and interpretation stages after collection of data. Changes in analysis software have opened up new possibilities for working with mixed data types, boundaries between numerically and textually based research are becoming less distinct, data may be readily transformed from one type to another, making achievable integration of data types and analysis methods (Bazeley, 2007). Data collected in the interviews needed to be converted into a computer-friendly format. The inferences were developed and analysed, then grouped under themes and categories. The 12 interview questions could be broadly grouped into several areas



and the themes identified neatly followed these in the interviews. At the stage of quantitative study, the literature has shown that respondents prefer verbal rather than numerical labels (Haley & Case, 1979). Various survey results also showed that respondents tend to overuse the extremes of a numerical scale with verbal anchors at the ends (Shulman, 1973; Schwarz, Knauper, Hippler, Noelle-Neumann & Clark, 1991). In this study, therefore, verbal labels were used in each question. To convert the survey data into computerised format, coding assigned a number to each of the possible answers in the questionnaire.

#### *4.6.1 Qualitative research*

Theoretical coding is the first analytic step in making analytic interpretations, which is the key process in grounded theory (Bryman, 2004). Grounded theory coding consists of two main phases: 1) an initial phase involving naming each word, line or segment of data, and 2) a focused, selective phase using the most significant or frequent initial codes to sort, synthesise, integrate and organise large amounts of data (Charmaz, 2006). In order to facilitate analysis, the data coding process of grounded theory consists of open, axial and selective coding which draw on Strauss and Corbin's (1998) grounded theory approach. Theoretical coding discovers the conceptual models of relationships and allows the researcher to group or cluster open codes conceptually into larger theoretical categories (Connell & Lowe, 1997). Although the past few years have seen increasing acceptance of the use of qualitative data analysis (QDA) software to assist interpretive analysis of text and other non-numerical sources (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), Microsoft Excel software is employed for the textual analysis primarily because it is user-friendly and allows the insertion of categories and themes into existing spreadsheets, as well as alphabetic sorting. It can transform qualitative coding into a format that allows the analysis. Therefore, it is used for the qualitative analysis and the further discussion of data analysis in qualitative research is in Chapter 5.

#### 4.6.2 Quantitative research

Quantitative research analysis software for statistical analysis has been possible since the earliest introduction of computer and better know programme (The Statistical Package for Social Sciences, SPSS) have been available for more than 25 years. Hence, SPSS is used in the study for the descriptive analysis to provide respondents' profiles, correlations and Cronbach's reliability test. Consistency and validity were assessed by applying Cronbach's  $\alpha$  test and factor analysis to validate the questionnaire and which was useful for checking the reliability of the chosen scale (Field, 2005). It can ensure the quality of the data set and analysis. In response to researchers demand, a number of programmes that are designed for quantitative analysis to make different analytical use of numerical data. Path Analysis is a causal modelling approach to exploring the correlations within a defined network. The method is also known as Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). It, using the AMOS 5.0 programme, allows the relationships to be submitted for analysis symbolically, thus eliminating the need for the unwieldy creation of a detailed mathematically precise representation of the relationship. It tests the proposed relationships in the proposed model to see if it is accurate or if it needs modification (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). It has also been applied in several researches to test the causal relationships in the model and the important constructs that can be modelled (Swanson & Horridge, 2004; Lam & Hsu, 2006). The proposed model in path analysis usually involves two kinds of variables including observable/manifest (endogenous or dependent) variable and latent (exogenous or non-observable) variables. Observable variables serve as indicators of the underlying construct represented by the observable variables, and latent variables are usually theoretical constructs that cannot be observed directly. In fact the constructs in this research including 'quality of experience', 'perceived quality', 'satisfaction', 'behavioural intentions', 'authenticity', 'interpretations' and 'educational benefits' are research abstractions that cannot be measured directly. SEM is a hybrid of multiple regression and factor analysis techniques, belonging to the general linear model family. SEM analyses relationships among latent variables by combining the strengths of factor analysis and multiple regression into a single model that can be tested statistically. Therefore, analysis can understand patterns of correlations among those latent variables and explain as much of the variation as possible with the model. It helps answer questions about whether sample data are consistent with

the hypothesised model. In tourism research, structural modelling has recently been used to measure service quality and satisfaction in the hotel/motel industry and in studying travellers' and retailers' perceptions of service levels at a specific tourism destination (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Therefore, these two programmes are suitable for the quantitative analysis and the further discussion of data analysis in quantitative research is in Chapter 6.

#### **4.7 Limitations of research**

The limitations in this research should be considered as it is an issue in any research project. First, the proposed model is not designed to include all possible attributes influencing quality in cultural heritage tourism. The author limits the consideration to the identified attributes because the research focuses only on the relationships between perceived quality, satisfaction, quality of experience and behavioural intentions. On the other hand, the limitation of Study 1 is that, although the author gathered sufficient data from the study, the amount of data from both public and private stakeholders is not equal. Data in Study 1 were collected in two phases with twelve interviewees (six interviewees from the public sector and the other six from the private sector) but one from the public sector refused to be recorded during the interview. She answered with only one or two sentences to each question in a positive way. As a result, the interview data of this interviewee were disregarded. In addition, some interviewees were not the original targeted stakeholders of whom they were the representatives. They thus might have considered the political desirability and expressed 'favourable' opinions. The value of interviews is considered only if the stakeholders are involved fully in the issues and also in interpreting the results (Yüksel et al., 1999). This can affect the information collected and make the findings are difficult to interpret. Also, it is unknown whether the above-mentioned issues might be related to the outcomes. Furthermore, the author used survey for data collection in Study 2, which might create a fragmented experience. The targeted respondents in Study 2 were the travellers in Macao. According to Terwee (1990), a traveller is difficult to understand in the survey language. They might misunderstand the meaning of the questions. The researchers might seek for generalisability when they design the survey in order to let the respondents understand the questions and the changes might not show the original meanings. In addition, SEM methodology

and AMOS analysis may be construed as a limitation because the model is not tested using an experimental design; strong evidence of causal effects cannot be inferred. Importantly, the results are intended to support the a priori causal model (Cronin, Brady & Hult, 2000). The use of additional attributes in the constructs might affect the inherent reliability and validity of the measures used. According to Cronin et al. (2000), measures of actual behaviours are better than the investigation of behavioural intentions because it could enhance the validity of the study. However, the data are often difficult and costly to gather. It should be noted that such research is thereby limited in scope. Therefore, tourism practitioners who look to the literature as a means of setting quality are being misled by the objective of the research.

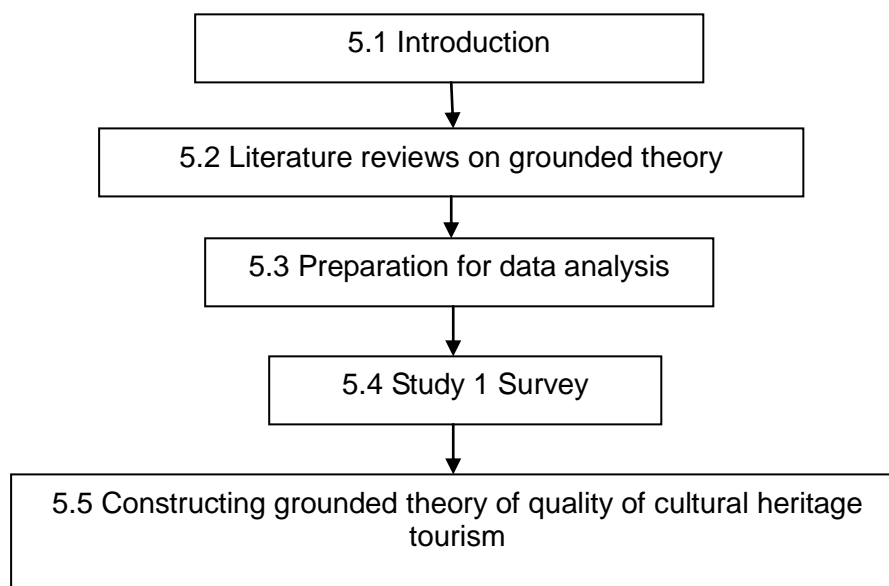
# CHAPTER 5

## DATA ANALYSIS (STUDY 1)

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter initiates an investigation into quality of cultural heritage tourism in Macao, a city witnessing the fastest growth in China. A theoretical model is developed through an intense scrutiny of textual data collected by semi-structured interviews from stakeholders in Macao. Using the literature and theories on quality and cultural heritage tourism, adopting a grounded theory approach, the study proposes a quality model for cultural heritage tourism. The chapter reports the theories on the grounded theory approach and an outline of the chapter is shown in Figure 5.1. First, the literature reviews on grounded theory are presented in Section 5.2. Grounded theory in tourism and hospitality research, the concept of grounded theory and methods of data collection in a grounded theory approach are discussed. Second, preparation for data analysis is presented in Section 5.3. Third, the details of the survey in Study 1 are presented in Section 5.4 which shows that the sample collected is representative of the target population. Finally, the model is developed in Section 5.5 using a grounded theory approach.

**Figure 5.1: Outline of Chapter 5**



## **5.2 Literature review on grounded theory**

### *5.2.1 Grounded theory in tourism and hospitality research*

This study adopts the grounded theory approach with the aim of developing a theoretical model of quality cultural heritage tourism. The grounded theory approach is proposed as the methodology. It is more of a research paradigm than a clearly prescribed methodology. Thus, it allows the researchers for interpretation and adaptation, enabling the emergence of a research methodology (Dick, 1990). The grounded theory approach is used in this study to yield insight and understanding about the quality of cultural heritage tourism and contributes to tourism knowledge in this regard. It is chosen because it emphasises the meaning of experience and behaviour in context and in its full complexity, a view of the scientific process as generating working hypotheses rather than immutable empirical facts, and an attitude towards theorising that emphasises the grounding of concepts in data rather than their imposition in terms of a priori theory (Pidgeon, 1996). Willig (2001) also indicates that there are two reasons for using grounded theory. Firstly, it is designed to facilitate the process of theory generation and discovery. Secondly, it works with categories, which makes it more accessible to those trained in quantitative methods that problematise categorisation itself. Using the grounded theory approach can demonstrate the theoretical and practical issues with exploration and inductive development. The systematic analytic procedures of grounded methodology help to develop new insights into cultural heritage tourism, particularly the visitors' experiences at cultural heritage attractions. Table 5.1 summarises the studies in which grounded theory has been applied.

**Table 5.1: Grounded theory in tourism and hospitality research**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>The Studies</b>	<b>Objectives</b>
Connell & Lowe (1997)	Generating grounded theory from qualitative data: The application of inductive methods in tourism and hospitality management research	To explain and evaluate how researchers can utilize the grounded theory to best effect within tourism and hospitality management settings.
Riley & Love (2000)	The state of qualitative tourism research	To provide a descriptive review of qualitative tourism researches and baseline data about previous and present uses of the interpretive paradigm and qualitative methods.
Woodruff, MacDonald & Burford (2004)	Grounded theory of leisure travel	To review grounded theory studies available in the literature that deepen understanding of leisure travel decisions and tourism behaviour.
Daengbuppha, Nemmington & Wilkes (2006)	Using grounded theory to model visitor experiences at heritage site: Methodological and practical issues	To present grounded theory as an alternative approach for conceptualising and modelling the consumer experience.
Lepp (2007)	Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda	To investigate the residents' attitude towards tourism.
Hsu, Cai & Wong (2007)	A model of senior tourism motivations—Anecdotes from Beijing and Shanghai	To initiate an original inquiry into the motivations of senior tourism in China.
Martin (2007)	Management learning exercise and trainer's note for building grounded theory in tourism behaviour	To craft useful learning exercises for training analysts and executives from grounded theory.
Nimrod (2008)	Retirement and tourism themes in retirees' narratives	To examine central themes in travelling retirees' perceptions of tourism and travel and understand the place and value of tourism in retirement.
Kim, Eves & Scarles (2009)	Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach	To examine the factors influencing consumption of local food and beverage in destinations.

Grounded theory is widely used in tourism and hospitality studies, which suggest the usefulness of grounded theory in these fields. That literature can also provide guidelines for generating theory. According to Mehmetoglu and Altinay (2006), there are two advantages of using grounded theory that possesses a number of unique

characteristics, compared to the other traditional qualitative methodological approaches. Firstly, the research question is identified within a broad topic in order to leave room for discoveries. It means that thinking about specific relationships between variables and theories is avoided as much as possible. Secondly, a natural overlap of research idea formulation, crafting instruments, entering the field, analysing the data and reviewing the literature occurs in the grounded theory methodology. Theoretical categories are not created on a single step basis. They are redefined as relationships clarify; therefore they become saturated by evidence. Then, the researchers can compare category to category and check meaningful literature to see whether it fits or confounds existing theory. The author selects grounded theory because it is also ideally suited to construct a data-based theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Importantly, the author tries to address the quality issues in cultural heritage tourism with a deeper understanding. It is necessary to opt for a qualitative-explorative research methodology which is grounded theory. As a result, grounded theory is considered an appropriate one and is used in Study 1.

### 5.2.2 Concept of grounded theory

Grounded theory as a research strategy aims to generate or discover a theory, an abstract analytical scheme of a phenomenon, which relates to a particular situation (Creswell, 1998). It consists of a series of hypotheses linked together to help explain the phenomenon (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). Grounded theory was originally developed by two sociologists, Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Initially, they deal mainly with the philosophical and theoretical dimensions of the methodology and elaborate a number of ways to discover the linkages between data and theory. It is an inductive approach by using the data to generate the theories and most prominent to qualitative data analysis. An inductive strategy of linking data and theory is typically associated with a qualitative research approach (Bryman, 2004). Then, the grounded theory undergoes a number of revisions. Most significantly, Glaser and Strauss themselves part company and propose different ways (Willig, 2001). Although they developed grounded theory, Glaser (1992) accuses Strauss and Corbin (1990) of distorting the principles of the original theory. On the other hand, the ideas from Glaser and Strauss provide a high level of conceptual density and use jargon which is difficult for non-sociologists.



Other researchers, such as Charmaz (2006), seek to distil the method to its essential meaning and give more practical insights (Connell & Lowe, 1997). Grounded theory is therefore employed in different areas with various versions. It uses participants' experiences as data to construct and validate the emergent theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). No matter which versions of the grounded theory, theory is the end-product of the grounded theory process and provides researchers with an explanatory framework with which to understand the phenomenon under investigation (Willig, 2001). It can also be a paradigm model that systematically links antecedents, situational conditions, coping strategies and consequences to the phenomenon of interest (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Grounded theory refers to “a qualitative method that uses a systematic set of procedures and simultaneous process of data collection and analysis to develop an inducting derived grounded theory about a phenomenon” (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). It helps researchers to understand two main issues, including (1) the basic philosophical approach underpinning the theory; there is no need for preconceived theorising because all the theoretical explanations are already present; (2) the researchers are able to recognise a number of different indicators and explain most of the variation in the data (Connell & Lowe, 1997). The latter also state that, firstly, grounded theory sets out to discover new theoretical insights and innovations, rather than review the substantive literature first. It contrasts to the traditional logical deductive reasoning. Because of its inductive nature, the theoretical bias of the researchers is recognised but is easier to operationalise than methods, which require the preconceived structures. Secondly, data collection and analysis occur simultaneously and discoveries shape ongoing data collection. The overall process is kept on an inductive direction by holding conceptual development embedded in the data. Thus, the author using the grounded theory generates hypotheses to understand the meanings and interrelationships.

### 5.2.3 Methods of data collection

A qualitative methodology is adopted in this study by using semi-structured interviews since grounded theory is one of the most developed inductive research methods in

which the data emphasise depth and quality rather than sample size (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Qualitative methodologies have three fundamental characteristics, namely holistic view, philosophy of naturalistic inquiry and inductive approach to data analysis (Patton, 1980). Holistic view refers to understanding the phenomena in their totality through clear dissection and analysis. It is recognised that human behaviour is better studied in its totality, allowing all factors to be considered and for a complete understanding to be gained (Connell & Lowe, 1997). Naturalistic inquiry views social phenomena as objectively determined and best analysed at a distance. Qualitative methodologies place more emphasis on investigating phenomena in their naturally occurring states. Inductive approach carries fewer preconceived ideas and the researcher's mind will be more open. Qualitative research places less emphasis on testing theory but more on generating new theory and seeks to test hypotheses based on gaps in theoretical knowledge. This study emphasises all three qualitative characteristics.

The grounded theory aims at theory-building in cultural heritage tourism, therefore, building on the theory of others is crucial to the evolution of knowledge and indeed an essential component of any kind of scientific research (Papathanassis & Knolle, in press). The issues affecting the validity in grounded theory should be considered to ensure the role of existing research and the utilisation of the corresponding literature. Accordingly to Papathanassis & Knolle (in press)'s study, grounded theory requires the researcher to refrain from reviewing existing literature at the initial stages of research. A literature review should take place in an iterative manner, parallel to the data collection and its interpretation. The author follows this principle to validate the data collection and consolidate literature reviews. Furthermore, by using semi-structured interviews, the interviewees are given exactly the same questioning context. The interviewing of the respondents is standardised and the differences between interviews can be minimised. Meanwhile, the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply and make in-depth responses to the interviewer. It can reduce the constraints on opinions expressed and provide insights into values and attitudes about the issues. Cassell and Symon (2004) state that the sampling advantages in interviews include greater control over respondent selection, more depth, context and flexibility in the process of inquiry. Therefore, it is an appropriate method in this study because one of the purposes is to identify the attributes of

performance quality. Interviews are used to gather a better understanding of the quality issues in cultural heritage tourism.

### **5.3 Preparation for data analysis**

Based on the Charmaz (2006) suggestions regarding grounded theory, there are four procedures in data analysis and theory generation. (1) theoretical sampling, (2) theoretical coding, (3) saturating theoretical categories, (4) theorising in grounded theory

#### *5.3.1 Theoretical sampling*

Theoretical sampling is the process of data collection for generating theory and the development of emerging theoretical categories. The aim is to explore the dimensional range or variety of conditions of the properties of the concept being explored (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Daengbuppha, Hemmington & Wilkes, 2006). Glaser and Strauss (1967) state that theoretical sampling discovers categories and suggests the interrelationships in a theory. However, it is only related to conceptual and theoretical development and is about representing a population or seeking for generalisability (Charmaz, 2006). Applied to grounded theory, the sample is chosen in response to the research. The researcher codes and analyses the data and decides what data to collect next in order to develop theory. The theoretical sampling has to follow where the data lead (Connell & Lowe, 1997; Goulding, 2002). The author adds the sample through theoretical sampling. This is purposive sampling which increases the diversity of your sample, searching for different properties. When it reaches to 'saturation' after the 12 interviews, this is a sign that it is time to move to sorting. Then, the author groups the memos, like with like, and sequence them in order to make theory clearest.

Furthermore, the sampling starts with data, constructing tentative ideas about the data and then examining these ideas through further empirical inquires (Charmaz, 2006). Data are collected using grounded theory procedures described in Strauss and Corbin (1998). Memo-writing leads directly to theoretical sampling because the author intends to elaborate and refine the theoretical categories. It helps the

researcher to conduct theoretical sampling which depends on having already identified categories (Charmaz, 2006). According to Glaser (1978), memo-writing continues in parallel with data collection, note-taking and coding. A memo is a note to the researchers about some hypothesis. Importantly, it is about the relationships between categories which are developed from coding. Glaser (1978) also emphasises that memo-writing is given high priority in the process of the analysis. Coding makes visible some of its components. Memo-writing adds the relationships which link the categories to each other. Thus, based on the interpretation framework outlined by Borgatti (2008), the author uses three types of memos in this study including field note, code note and theoretical note. Field note is developed during the interviews while the code note is developed during the coding. Then, a theoretical note is developed by using post-it that notes the issues in the text or codes relates to the literature. The final theory and report are therefore the integration of several theoretical memos.

Hence, sample size is not defined in advance in order to gather the most relevant data about the phenomena. It also helps to define the categories explicitly. Although Creswell (1998) suggests that a typical grounded theory study includes 20-30 interviews, saturation is closed after 12 interviews. Interviews continue to add data until no new categories or properties are emerging or to the point of saturation. 'Saturation' is reached when additional qualitative data collection fails to reveal novel aspects, points and issues. According to Glaser (1992)'s ideas, this point is reached when the discussions start becoming repetitive, signalling the sufficiency of collected data. In qualitative research, saturation can be considered as the equivalent to representativeness in quantitative studies (Papathanassis & Knolle, in press). As a result, data in this study are collected in two phases with 12 respondents, selected by theoretical sampling. Papathanassis & Knolle (in press) also mention that 'saturation' is reached far earlier than expected. Thus, the saturation is reached after 12 interviews in this study. Table 5.2 summarises the data collection strategies and number of participants in each phase. Phase 1 enabled the author to create a list of codes and explore their relationships while Phase 2 helped to construct a paradigm model and discuss themes related to the model.

**Table 5.2: Two phases in data collection**

Phases Coding	Purposes	Participants
1 Open and Axial	Identify codes within categories and explore the relationships among them.	8 individual interviews
2 Selective	Construct paradigm model and discuss themes related to the model	4 individual interviews

### 5.3.2. Theoretical coding

Theoretical coding is the first analytic step to make analytic interpretations, which is the key process in grounded theory (Bryman, 2004). Grounded theory coding consists of two main phases: 1) an initial phase involving naming each word, line, or segment of data, and 2) a focused, selective phase using the most significant or frequent initial codes to sort, synthesise, integrate and organise large amounts of data (Charmaz, 2006). In order to facilitate the analysis, the data coding of grounded theory consisting of open coding, axial coding and selective coding was drawn from Strauss and Corbin's (1998) grounded theory approach. Theoretical coding discovers the conceptual models of relationships and allows the researchers to conceptually group or cluster open codes into larger theoretical categories (Connell & Lowe, 1997).

Throughout the grounded theory literature, researchers avoid forcing the data into preconceived codes (Charmaz, 2006). The author also guards against forcing the preconceptions on the data she codes, as this might reduce problems in coding. These three types of coding are the different levels of coding and each relates to a different point in the elaboration of categories in grounded theory (Bryman, 2004). Through the coding, the author is enabled to gain a deeper understanding of the data, complete the research process and evaluate the proposed theory (Daengbuppha et al., 2006).

#### 1. Open coding

Open coding involves the wide-ranging fracturing of data by isolating significant incidents such as events, issues, processes or relationship and labelling them, using researcher expressions (Connell & Lowe, 1997). It is the process to break down,

examine, compare, conceptualise and categorise and it yields the discrete concepts which are the basic unit of grounded theory analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Daengbuppha et al., 2006). It also stays close to data because they codify the substance of the empirical data. The data of Study 1 were interview transcripts, which belong to the conversation data. Data in grounded theory are typically analysed from transcribed interviews. It is suggested that conversation data are fragmented and coded by using open coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Goulding, 2002; Daengbuppha et al., 2006). The author aims to identify the basic concepts of grounded theory analysis and the incidents are coded into as many categories that might fit the basic concepts of open coding. The interview transcripts are coded incident-by-incident and also line-by-line to achieve this.

Then, the categories are the names assigned to the phenomena. Codes become the properties of categories. A category is discovered after concepts have been compared against one another and grouped under a higher order. This provides an explanation for the phenomena under investigation (Glaser, 1978; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The first procedure is to create properties and dimensions for each category (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The second procedure is to classify and confirm the properties and dimensions in each category. It is also to confirm the associations between categories and properties. The third procedure is to compare the properties and dimensions in each category, however, a new category is created only when it has different properties and dimensions in the existing categories. Comparative analysis is essential from the initial data coding and the theory generation process (Daengbuppha, Hemmington & Wilkes, 2006). The author re-reads the transcripts several times through these three procedures in order to make sense of the data and break them down into manageable forms. Hence, the keywords were noted and interpreted in this coding. The tape-recording is also employed to serve as input for further analysis and interpretation after the completion of the data collection effort. The reason for the recordings is to adhere to the principle of 'emergence' by limiting the risk of 'forcing' (Glaser, 1978). According to Glaser (1978), 'emergence' is fundamental to understand the methodology. Grounded Theory does not test a hypothesis. Hypothesis-testing research which sets out to find what theory accounts for the research situation as it is while the Grounded Theory aims to discover the theory implicit in the data. Based on this principle, codes are categories according

to the type of content they are related to. Subsequently, single-instance codes, semantically unrelated to the issues are also excluded. A total of 482 codes are identified while 158 codes are not related to the quality in cultural heritage tourism. There are 2 single-instance codes. Then, 42 codes are merged. As a result, there are 16 categories with 281 codes after the open coding.

## 2. Axial coding

The categories and codes in open coding are used as a basis for axial coding which involves identifying the organising interrelationships between codes. Axial coding aims to link categories with subcategories and asks how they are related (Charmaz, 2006). It refers to the process of developing main categories and their subcategories (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). This is done after open coding and puts the categories back together in new ways by making connections between a category and its subcategories (Dey, 1999). Strauss (1987) considers that axial coding is a dense texture of relationships around the 'axis' of a category. Strauss and Corbin (1990) predicated that an element of axial coding was done informally (linking sub-categories to categories) during the open coding process as codes were generated and refined. Creswell (1998) also shows the purposes of axial coding are to sort, synthesise and organise large amounts of data and reassemble them in new ways. That is done by linking codes to contexts to consequences, to patterns of interactions and to causes (Bryman, 2004). As a result, axial coding is chosen and done after the open coding. The author aimed to use axial coding to generate tentative statements of relationships.

## 3. Selective coding

Selective coding involves the integration of categories from axial coding to form an initial theoretical framework (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). It is the process to select the core category, systematically relating to other categories, validating the relationships and developing the grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Daengbuppha et al., 2006). The codes and categories are explored further by re-visiting the coded statements, with attention being given to understanding the inter-relationships. The data are charted and presented as diagrams to represent

the overlapping issues (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). Further to this, it identifies the core category, which is the central issue or focus around which all other categories are integrated (Bryman, 2004). It means that the key concepts are defined and the nature of phenomena is mapped. Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes (2006) pointed out that this type of coding is used to search for patterns and themes across all interviewees' conceptual categories through the development of a conditional matrix. Importantly, it is to develop the core category and develop a theoretical framework. It presumes the existence of a core concept or theory which encapsulates and explains the observed phenomena (Borgatti, 2008).

### *5.3.3 Saturating theoretical categories*

In order to enhance the validity of the data, theoretical saturation is achieved through the three kinds of coding. Daengbuppha, Hemmington and Wilkes (2006) point out that open coding develops the concepts, categories and properties, axial coding explores the connections between categories and sub-categories and selective coding integrates categories to build the theoretical framework. They also suggest that the process continues until it reaches closure of the emergent theme. Since open coding stays close to data, it can be contrasted to axial and selective coding. The theoretical categories can be reconstructed from the data. Theoretical categories are created through the theoretical coding. Categories define relationships by comparing the data. By comparing the data, the well-defined categories are developed which state the causes, conditions and consequences (Connell & Lowe, 1997). Meanwhile, the researcher can check the literature to see whether the categories fit or confound existing theory. Therefore, categories become saturated in the new theory. Glaser (2001) shows the views that saturation forms the foundation for treating theoretical concepts in grounded theory and treats categories theoretically. It raises the categories to an abstract and general level. Theoretical memos are also created in order to theorise the ideas about the codes and their relationships.

### *5.3.4 Theorising in grounded theory*

After the completion of empirical analysis of data and development of categories



through coding and memo writing, the author tries to identify and organise interrelationships between codes. By using Borgatti (2008)'s interpretation framework, the author underlines the relevant quality issues. Related causal condition in quality and cultural heritage tourism are explained and interpreted. However, it adheres to the emergence principle and qualitative characteristics of the chosen methodology. Then, the final stage is theorising in grounded theory and the theory is developed. Grounded theory assumes that the theory is concealed in data for the researchers to discover. Theorising in grounded theory consists of theoretical sorting and diagramming. Memos prompt the researcher to make the analysis progressively stronger, clearer and more theoretical, while sorting gives the researcher a means of creating and refining theoretical links (Charmaz, 2006). The process of sorting serves to increase the focus of the emerging theory as relationships are delimited, categories collapse and are made more theoretically explicit (Connell & Lowe, 1997). Diagramming can provide concrete images of the ideas. Importantly, it offers a visual representation of categories and their relationships (Charmaz, 2006). Strauss and Corbin (1998) consider creating visual images of the theories as an intrinsic part of grounded theory methods. They use various types of diagrams such as maps, charts and figures to tease out relationships while constructing the analysis and demonstrate the relationships to be the completed works.

Furthermore, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) view of theory has some positivist leanings but emphasises relationships among concepts. They stated that theory is a set of well-developed concepts which can be used to explain or predict phenomena. It is abstract and explanatory. Positivist definitions of theory are chosen because its most prevalent definitions of theory are derived from positivism (Charmaz, 2006). It is a statement of relationship between abstract concepts that cover a wide range of empirical observations. Positivist theory seeks causes, favours deterministic explanations and emphasises generality and universality (Charmaz, 2006). Positivist theories consist of a set of inter-related propositions aimed to (1) specify relationships between concepts, (2) explain and predict these relationships, (3) verify theoretical relationships through hypothesis-testing and (4) generate hypotheses for research (Charmaz, 2006). Limitations of these theories are too narrow, reductionist explanations. Therefore, the ideas fit the stance of this study.

#### 5.4 Study 1 survey

Since the sample size was not defined in advance, twelve potential respondents were approached through mailing first, including the president and vice-president of the Cultural Affairs Bureau that focuses on classifying, restoring, renovating and up-grading Macao's cultural heritage, including both buildings and artefacts; the director and managerial staff of the Macau Government Tourist Office (MGTO), a service charged with pursuing the overall goals defined for the territory's tourism sector; the President of the Council of Administration of the Civil and Municipal Affairs Bureau (IACM) involved in many cultural heritage projects including the Old Ladies' House, the Cheang's Mansion, the Pawnshop Museum, the Lo's Mansion and the Macao Art Museum; the curator of Macao Museum of Art, the largest museum in Macao which displays the speciality of traditional oriental culture combined with the artistic flavour of Western civilization; three presidents of different local tourism-related associations; the vice-president of the Neighbourhood Association and Committee of Tourism Development, a platform which coordinates within government various tourism development efforts to provide better policy support and leadership on the part of government to the development of tourism in Macao; and two gaming operator presidents. Eventually, eight stakeholders were approached. The data from these eight interviews enabled the author to create a list of codes and explore their relationship in the data analysis. For saturation to the issues, the other batch of potential respondents was approached through mailing, including two architects involved in many project related to cultural heritage issues, from the public sector and private sector, respectively; the deputy director and senior executive of the Macau Government Tourist Office (MGTO); a deputy of the Legislative Assembly; the curator of Chinese Ceramics (The Macao Museum of Art); the vice-president of the local tourism-related association; and the general manager and executive director of gaming operators. The other four interviews continued to add data until no new categories or properties were emerging or to the point of saturation. As a result, data in this study were collected in two phases with twelve interviewees, six of them are from the public sector and the other six from the private sector; eight were male and four female. The profile of the respondents is given in Appendix B.

Digital recordings of the interviews were transcribed into text for data analysis and an indexing method was used to organise the data (Hsu, Cai & Wong, 2007). Although one of the interviewees refused to be recorded during the interviews, notes were made during the interview and checked with the interviewee during the conversation. Thus, the author still uses this data for further analysis. The author left her contact information with the participants in case of further enquiries. The interview tapes were fully transcribed after the interviews and as quickly as possible in order to constantly compare data before the second list of interviewees. Then, the author confirmed the second list of interviewees based on the data. As suggested by Mehmetoglu and Altinay (2006), the interview tapes were listened to several times after the transcriptions and it was useful to note the impressions and intuitions with regard to both the interviewee and the content of the interview. In addition, the author re-read the data transcripts and notes to locate the concepts and the links between interviewees.

The analysis of this study is based on the analytical approach developed by Coffey and Atkinson (1996). It is a specific research strategy regarding grounded theory, consisting of three separate analytic strategies: coding, narratives and, finally, metaphors. The analysis started with coding, so the author used open, axial coding and selective coding. The narrative approach denotes the ways in which social actors produce, represent and contextualise experience and personal knowledge through narratives. Metaphors are used in the final stage to explore what is said in the data and also how it is said. Grounded theory provides an opportunity to develop new insights into the cultural heritage tourism and influence of different stakeholders in quality issues. Therefore, data analysis in this study tries to identify various meanings issues and discover related categories by using coding, and it allows the author to arrange and analyse the data systematically. Based on the three categories of the interview questions and the aims of this study, data were categorised into main themes and sub-themes. The analysis followed the guidelines of the grounded theory approach which allows a theoretical model to be delineated. Firstly, the author evaluated the data to discover relevant and reoccurring themes. Secondly, these themes were categorised and assigned labels. Thirdly, categories emerged as a result of which the propositions were introduced and developed (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Hsu et al., 2007).

## **5.5 Constructing grounded theory of quality of cultural heritage tourism**

### *5.5.1. Findings*

As mentioned above, three types of coding were employed: open, axial and selective coding, in which the author used the manual coding procedures. The quality of data analysis does not affect whether computer-based, manual, mechanistic or observant coding procedures are used. It depends on the experiences, creativity and theoretical awareness of the researchers (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). The author was confident to use the manual coding procedures in this study. The transcribed interviews were open coded by using labels and numbers which could reflect the interview text. There are three procedures in open coding in order for further analysis of the data to emerge. Moreover, closely related ones overlapping with each other are combined together. After open coding of the data, they were tentatively grouped into 16 categories including (1) role in cultural heritage tourism, (2) development of cultural heritage tourism, (3) development of tourism, (4) reasons for change, (5) advantages in cultural heritage tourism, (6) quality of cultural heritage tourism, (7) importance of cultural heritage tourism, (8) authenticity, (9) guiding and interpretation, (10) difficulties in cultural heritage tourism, (11) how to help cultural heritage development, (12) attractions in Macao, (13) attitudes of tourists, (14) agree the HISTROQUAL or not, (15) the role between public and private sectors, and (16) relationship between cultural heritage and entertainment. The labels given to categories originate from open code labels. At the same time, there are sub-categories under each label. After the open coding, the axial coding is processed in order to put the categories from open coding back together and make connections between a category and its subcategories. During axial coding, the categories are merged and linked. Furthermore, on the basis of the collected data and aided by the author's knowledge and experience in cultural heritage tourism and tourism industry. The author identifies and proposed a total of 9 categories potentially related to the quality in cultural heritage tourism. The details are as follows:

1. Role of public sector
2. Role of private sector
3. Cooperation between public sector and private sector
4. Factors affecting quality
5. Quality attributes of tour guides
6. Importance of cultural heritage tourism
7. Challenges in cultural heritage tourism
8. Factors affecting satisfaction
9. Satisfaction affecting visitors' behavioural intentions

The labels given to categories originated from open code labels. At the same time, there are sub-categories under each label.

## **1. Role of Public Sector**

1. Conservation based on authenticity
2. Transferring cultural heritage products as tourism products
3. Taking initiative in development

### **1.1 Conservation based on authenticity**

Many respondents from the public sector expressed that they are very enthusiastic about cultural heritage tourism development and consider conservation is very important in cultural heritage tourism. Particularly, it is necessary to conserve the resources based on authenticity. Conservation based on authenticity is illustrated in the following:

“Is the conservation based on their authenticity?”

“I am concerned with the conservation, how to conserve is very important.”

“We are looking at the international charters and recommendations regarding conservation worldwide.”

“The government has done a lot, such as preserving.”

## 1.2 Transferring cultural heritage products as tourism products

The respondents also expressed that the public sector should transfer the cultural heritage products as tourism products. Tourism can be a factor to promote the economy as well. Meanwhile, both visitors and local people can experience those cultural heritage products. The following illustrate:

“Promote and create the opportunity to let the cultural products develop as the tourism products to provide to the tourists.”

“The local people and tourists can see and experience the resources.”

“Be concerned about the needs of local people and try to enhance their cultural quality.”

“Government should invest more for the local people.”

## 1.3 Taking initiative in development

Respondents from the private sector indicated that the public sector should take the initiative in cultural heritage development since it can create the policies in destinations. Therefore, it should take the initiative and should not solve the problems when they appear. The staff in the public sector should also understand the cultural heritage resources, which is crucial in development. The data imply all this:

“The people such as from the tourism department should learn more about the building structure. Some of my colleague, they don't know much about culture heritage.”

“Need to coordinate with the Cultural Institute, Cultural Heritage Bureau, IACM, public works and police office.”

“No attention to it until the tourists request it. In terms of management, they temporise, just maintain the cultural tourism.”

## **2. Role of Private Sector**

1. Involvement
2. Flexibility

## 2.1 Involvement

Some respondents claimed that they are trying to involve themselves in cultural heritage tours in order to enhance the development. Both visitors and local people can benefit if the private sector is involved more. The private sector should be supportive and show the involvement. The following demonstrate the tendency:

“Our association is a non-profit organisation. We try our best to use all the members, family, sons and daughters and also the relatives to join the World Heritage tours.”

“If people can benefit from this area, the private sector is willing to do this. The private sector will invest in the area, which can earn a lot.”

## 2.2 Flexibility

For some of the respondents, it is appropriate to ask the private sector to promote cultural heritage tourism. Compared to the public sector, the private sector is not constrained by policies or laws. It would be more flexible to implement goals in which the flexibility of private sector is also shown, as illustrated in the following:

“It is not just the duty of government. It can be implemented by industries since they are more flexible.”

“Private sector can be the leader. That is fine but needs support from the government.”

“Government is related to the laws. It is too complicated.”

## **3. Cooperation between Public Sector and Private Sector**

1. Same vision
2. Difficulties and challenges

### 3.1 Same vision

Many respondents also reported that it is necessary to have cooperation between public and private sectors. They should contribute and cooperate in consultancy and development. It is also important to have the same vision and should be supportive towards cultural heritage tourism, as illustrated:

“It is necessary to have cooperation between public sector and private sector.”

“Private sector can be the leader. That is fine but needs support from the government.”

“Both public and private sectors contribute and also cooperate in consultancy.”

### 3.2 Difficulties and challenges

The previous extracts demonstrate the respondents’ feeling towards cooperation between public and private sectors. However, there must be difficulties and challenges if there is cooperation between the sectors. Some respondents also express this in the follow extract:

“There are difficulties and challenges for cooperation between public sector and private sector.”

“The public sector would like to see more private companies take on the entertainment activities. Public sector can cooperate and support.”

## **4. Factors affecting quality**

1. Education
2. Quality of experience
3. Conservation
4. Quality of users
5. Integrate with the community

### 4.1 Education

Some respondents indicated that the destinations should focus on the spirit of cultural heritage. Importantly, it is crucial to let visitors and local people to understand how to appreciate the cultural heritages. Not only by focusing on one or two cultural heritages, it should develop different types of cultural heritage resources in the destinations. It can be implemented by education:



“We hope the government can promote the hardware of the historical centre and also the spirit of the cultural heritage.”

“Educate people how to appreciate our sites better.”

“They may focus only on world heritage, but at the same time, the government can do more and promote other cultural heritage through education as well.”

#### 4.2 Quality of experience

Apart from the education, it is necessary to be concerned about visitor management in the cultural heritage sites. Since crowded areas can affect the experience, many respondents show that the sites should control the number of users. An admission fee system can guarantee the quality of service and reduce the users who are interested in the cultural heritage. It implies that the quality of experience is considered and several illustrations are provided:

“I suggest the admission fee system, not all, step by step. Of course, nowadays, the local people cannot accept that.”

“When we accept the admission fee, we can also guarantee to provide quality service and increase the tour guides and facilities.”

“It can control the people and reduce the people who are not interested in it. Because you don’t have a good experience when you visit the places full of people and crowded.”

#### 4.3 Conservation

This is commonly mentioned by respondents regarding quality of cultural heritage tourism of which it is one of the major factors. It should be improved based on authenticity and interpretation in different ways. Limiting the number of users is also a way to conserve the cultural heritage resources. Importantly, promotion and education of local people establish a positive attitude towards conservation. The following demonstrate:

“We agree to enhance the awareness of local themes. If we try to enhance awareness of local people and the awareness of conservation, we should try to do the promotion and enhance the education levels.”

“We should enhance the conservation of those important attractions.”

“From the point of view of conservation of cultural heritage, we do not want

too many people to visit those places.”

#### 4.4 Quality of users

According to many participants, the management should focus not on the quantity of users but on their quality. It is necessary to improve user quality. It is also a way to conserve the cultural heritage resources because crowded environments cannot provide good experiences and also affect user quality. It shows that quality of users can affect the quality of cultural heritage tourism, described in the following:

“We should not focus on the quantity but should focus on the quality.”

“If change the quality of tourism, we need to develop the quality of customers.”

“In the future, the quality tours and people, it is very important, not just to let them know the attractions but also feel the environment.”

“All things we are looking into because the quality of people coming to Macao, not quantity of people, is that the cultural tourism industry needs to be in terms of experience, not things, the crowds.”

#### 4.5 Integrate with community

Some respondents suggest that the visitors and local people can live and be involved together in the cultural heritage. The visitors can truly experience the resources and management can also invite the local people to share their experiences and interact with the cultural heritage resources and visitors. Importantly, those resources should be integrated with the community. It not only gets the support of local people but also enhances the attractiveness of cultural heritage tourism. The following extracts illustrate:

“We should live and be involved in the cultural heritage.”

“Local people cannot share their experience. If people have businesses near the attraction, of course you can see the effect, but for ordinary people, you cannot see the effect.”

“We can also get the old people involved in the cultural heritage. They can explain to people and share their own experience.”

### **5. Quality attributes of tour guides**

1. Knowledge
2. Training

### 3. Interpretation

#### 5.1 Knowledge

Many respondents agree that knowledge is one of the quality attributes of tour guides. Tour guides assigned to each site should be knowledgeable and able to provide correct information to visitors and even local people. They are required to be well-prepared for their duties and understand deeply the cultural heritage sites/resources. The attitude of tour guides is also a factor in quality of information. Examples are as follows:

“I suggest there should be tour guides stationed at each site.”

“If you want quality tourists, we need quality teams (tour guides).”

“Tour guides are very important. The tour guides cannot pass on the right messages and correct information to tourists.”

“They should be knowledgeable and deepen the information on this place.”

#### 5.2 Training

In order to enhance the knowledge of tour guides, training is necessary and information should be correct. The training should be together with a licence system which can keep up the standards of tour guides and provide clear guidelines on what quality is as well. Furthermore, it can be started in schools or the community, to allow younger and older people to be involved in cultural heritage tourism. In order to enhance involvement, they can be assigned as tour guides, particularly the older people who can share their experience with visitors or other local people. The concepts are shown in the following quotes:

“Government needs to provide more training and more guidelines to the tour guides. We need to standardise the quality of tour guiding.”

“We can also get the old people involved in the cultural heritage. They can explain to people and share their own experience.”

#### 5.3 Interpretation

The respondents also have the view that training can let tour guides understand how to pass correct information and good interpretation to visitors and local people which

is more attractive and interactive. By using tour guides, it can be more active and give very clear identifications for cultural heritage sites/resources. Meanwhile, the level of translation and languages should be considered. Importantly, the interpretation can show the spirit of the cultural heritage sites/resources and can be presented with multi-media and technical assistance such as brochures, websites, books, signages and PDA. The following extracts illustrate:

“If you use the people, the tour guide can give information depending on different people. More interactive.”

“If you go to the places, the tour guides can interpret the places, tell you the history, what happened in the past.”

“If I come to Macao and just read the leaflet, why should I come to Macao? I can also read the information from the Internet. What is the difference?”

“On the quality conservation work, promoting the information to the public and for good interpretation support.”

## **6. Importance of cultural heritage tourism**

1. Awareness and Recognition
2. Identity
3. Education
4. Tourism Development

### **6.1 Awareness and recognition**

As mentioned previously, many respondents indicated the quality issues regarding cultural heritage tourism and also implied its importance. Firstly, awareness and recognition, letting local people know the importance, value and uniqueness of their places. Importantly, it can enhance awareness towards history. Examples are illustrated in the following:

“Proud of it.”

“We agree to enhance the awareness of local themes. If we try to enhance awareness of local people and the awareness of conservation, we should try to do the promotion and enhance the education levels.”

“It is very important to make local people proud of their culture.”

## 6.2 Identity

This lets local people feel proud of it and have a sense of belonging and cohesion. Furthermore, local people might treasure what they have and try their best to conserve their resources. The sub-categories are depicted in the following extracts:

“Let the local people know their city and have deep understanding.”

“We hope that the perceptions of tourists and local people can be changed.”

## 6.3 Education

Cultural heritage tourism can use the sites to educate visitors and local people as well, who have chances to experience those cultural heritage sites/resources. Particularly, the local people can understand their culture deeply and this might create positive attitudes towards conservation and preservation. The following extracts indicate this function:

“It establishes positive thinking on conservation. This attitude is very good and is beneficial to conservation of cultural heritage.”

“Let the local people know their city and have deep understanding.”

“I think the most important thing is to let local people understand our cultural heritage.”

## 6.4 Tourism development

Cultural heritage tourism not only increases the number of visitors, it is very crucial to attract long-haul visitors who might stay longer in the destinations. It can stimulate different spending in the destinations and promote economic development. Some respondents also report that the average revenues of cultural heritage tourism are higher than other types of tourism. Meanwhile, it is a means to promote a destination and change the negative images of visitors. The issues of tourism development are highlighted in the following:

“It is healthy behaviour and generates the contribution”

“It can also stimulate the economics of development of the districts.”

“Develop the things related to economic profit.”

“Is very crucial to attract long-haul tourists.”

## 7. Challenges in cultural heritage tourism

1. Quality of experience
2. Quality
3. Planning
4. Attitudes
5. Sustainability

### 7.1 Quality of experience

Lots of respondents express the challenges in cultural heritage tourism. One of them is related to the sites. The sites may exceed carrying capacity if the numbers of users are too high. It cannot affect the users' expectation. In addition, the users do not have a good experience when they visit places full of people. Therefore, it is necessary to diffuse the people who are truly interested in the cultural heritage sites/ resources. Quality of experience is illustrated in the following extracts:

“Sometime, those places may exceed the limit of carrying capacity or exceed our expectation.”

“Diffuse the people.”

“It can control the people and reduce those who are not interested in it.”

“Because you don't have good experience when you visit places full of people and crowded.”

### 7.2 Quality

This is the second challenge. Firstly, it is related to meanings, cultural values of the cultural heritage sites/resources. It implies the importance of conservation and preservation based on authenticity. Secondly, interpretation through tour guides should be up to standard. The true values can be passed to the users. In order to maintain the standards, there is a need to invite the experts and professionals to be trained as tour guides. Thirdly, at the managerial level, the staff should be trained as well. They must comprehend management in cultural heritage tourism. Fourthly, departments, associations and organisations in the public and private sectors are required to coordinate and develop suitable planning in the destinations. The following quotes are examples:

“Things related to behind the scenes and the meanings, cultural value and interpretation, may not be passed on.”

“We also need the time to train the experts and professionals. We try to improve.”

“Government does not pay attention, the private organisations pay attention.”

### 7.3 Planning

Some respondents highlight that planning is very important because the destinations cannot solve problems when they emerge. It is necessary to have thorough planning in cultural heritage tourism. It should focus on both cultural heritage sites/resources and supporting facilities as well. The former should be well managed and conserved; the latter can be the transportation system, signages and also the research centres. The aims of cultural heritage tourism need to be clear. The ultimate goal is to educate local people and let them treasure their resources. The goals can be implemented through promotion and guiding. The following examples illustrated:

“The government also has done things, but not with transparency, not asking people. The most important, their work is stagnated.”

“It is more likely the government provides the subsidy or sponsorship to industries, and industries use the resources more flexibly in order to promote them to travellers.”

“The government can promote the hardware of the historical centre and also the spirit of the cultural heritage.”

“Provide a simple map and suggest the itineraries to them. It can save their time and they do not need to hurry up and find their transportation.”

### 7.4 Attitudes

All the respondents agree that the users of cultural heritage tourism include visitors and local people and their attitudes can affect development so this is the fourth challenge. It is necessary to attract the people who are really interested in the sites/resources because they might have positive attitudes. Meanwhile, they are likely to be satisfied through the experiences. Attitudes can be changed by different approaches. For the visitors, the destinations need to understand users' needs and try to provide experiences to meet their expectations. The results affect them to stay longer or come back to the destinations again. For the local people, the destinations should enhance their involvement in cultural heritage tourism. Promotion is a

means to let them understand more and appreciate the values. It is illustrated as follows:

“For those who are interested in that, we hope that they concentrate on the tour guides, listen to the tour guides and appreciate the art. For those who are not interested, they block up the areas. It can control the people and dilute the people who are not interested in it. Because you don't have a good experience when you visit places full of people and crowded. The tourists are satisfied because they mainly take photos of the attractions”.

## 7.5 Sustainability

This is the last challenge. Many respondents indicate that the destinations should consider sustainable cultural heritage tourism. It means that management needs to continue conservation and preservation in the future. The improvements are made depending on the environments. However, the admission fee system and management plans can assist conservation. Sustainability can be implemented through a monitoring system, research centres and conservation. Furthermore, it not only adds to the attractiveness of the existing cultural heritage attractions, it also develops other attractions as well. The issues are described in the following extracts:

“We are also undertaking researches and possible researches into the policies and development for the future.”

“The kids learn history, they may be interested in buildings. They can visit museums.”

“We should start from school. They may be the new guides in the future.”

“When the tourists are satisfied with those resources, at the same time, it does not affect the benefits and usages of local people, affect the functions and continue in the future.”

## **8. Factors affecting satisfaction**

1. Visitors' opinions
2. Local people

### 8.1 Visitors opinions

These are one of the factors which affect satisfaction so the destinations should understand and be concerned about the needs of visitors. Visitors' reactions can



reflect whether a destination is successful or not. Attractions, safety, traffic and environment are the major factors influencing visitors' satisfaction. The following examples illustrate:

“Promote and create the opportunity to let the cultural products develop as the tourism products to provide to the tourists.”

“The industry should focus on how to promote them to tourists.”

“Do not need to care about traffic when they visit the attractions. There should be areas for tourists and they feel easier in mind to visit those places.”

## 8.2 Local people

The destinations also need to take account of the satisfaction of local people. The destination is concerned not just with understanding the needs of visitors but also with the local people's as well so attractions should have educational functions. Importantly, the concern should focus more on young generation. The following quotes describe:

“Promote those cultural resources to tourists and local people. The local people and tourists can see and experience the resources.”

“When the tourists are satisfied those resources, at the same time, it does not affected the benefits and use of local people, affect the functions and continue in the future.”

## **9. Satisfaction affecting visitors' behavioural intentions**

1. Tourism development
2. Souvenirs

### 9.1 Tourism development

Positive satisfaction can affect visitors' behavioural intentions in relation to tourism development because it can attract visitors to stay longer and visit the destination(s) again. In addition, they can be drawn by different kinds of attractions. If they are satisfied, they might recommend to friends or relatives. It is quite powerful to promote a destination. The extracts demonstrate as follows:

“It is very crucial to attract long-haul tourists.”

“Provide more attractive points for tourists.”

“If a tourist travels on his/her own, normally, he/she did research before travelling.”

“We are trying to attract the tourists to stay longer. I am sure that the tourists are more interested in our cultural heritage.”

## 9.2 Souvenirs

On the other hand, it is necessary to develop souvenirs, which can help visitors recall a place. The souvenirs should come in many varieties and importantly, they can also show the local culture and represent a place. This not only stimulates visitors to buy the souvenirs, but souvenirs also serve as a promotion tool. Meanwhile, the local people are willing to develop souvenirs. The idea is articulated in the following extracts:

“Macao has creative artists and designers, why not develop souvenirs?”

“Regarding the cultural heritage, I find out that one thing has not been developed, which is souvenirs.”

### 5.5.2 *Model themes and model*

#### 1. Model themes

These themes are founded on the theories of quality of cultural heritage tourism and are based on the findings of the qualitative survey of 12 stakeholders in Macao by using axial coding. Axial coding is not just a simple indexing because the author creates memos throughout the analytical process. Comments and thoughts on linkages are recorded initially and the analysis moves on to be updated and developed. The major themes are developed based on axial coding and theoretical memos. As a result, the author is able to propose a model of quality of cultural heritage tourism in Figure 5.5. Themes associated with the model are discussed below.

***Theme 1: Stakeholders have significant cohort effects on level of quality in cultural heritage tourism.***

This first major theme shows that the roles of both public and private stakeholders in cultural heritage tourism development are interrelated and have significant cohort effects on the quality of cultural heritage tourism. The data imply the importance of the stance and attitude of stakeholders. The effects of both public and private sectors on the level of quality in cultural heritage tourism vary from cohort to cohort. All stakeholders show positive attitude towards the development of cultural heritage tourism and this should cement its progress and quality. However, both public and private sector consider themselves as the auxiliaries with assistance to the other party which should expand the plans on cultural heritage tourism. It implies that none of them would take the responsibility for quality and development in cultural heritage tourism. A discrepancy exists between public and private sectors in cultural heritage tourism development. Furthermore, difficulties are also mentioned by many stakeholders involved in implementing the development of that tourism. The responses also show that both public and private sectors recognise themselves as auxiliary to support the other sector. It seems none of them wishes to take responsibility for the development of cultural heritage tourism. Both sectors urge the other sector to contribute more to the development. Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill (1993) mention that the development of tourism will not be optimal if it is dominated by either public or private sectors. The private sector is motivated by profit and loss accounts while the public sector is constrained by the bureaucratic planning environment. The implication is that a balance of private and public sector involvement in tourism development is vital and both sectors should have the same vision. They can form clear goals and relationship between both sectors through collaboration. Therefore, collaboration between public and private sectors is particularly crucial because there is a congruence of objectives between the two. The destinations with cultural heritage tourism can benefit not only the economic development and also social development. Furthermore, interviews with stakeholders can provide useful information and also enhance transparency between both sectors, which is important. It helps to identify the quality constructs and related attributes and also assist the sustainable development of cultural heritage tourism.

***Theme 2: Quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism is affected by authenticity, interpretation and educational benefits***

Much emphasis in the tourism and hospitality literature is given to the significance of cultural heritage tourism in its job creation and economic generation (Edwards & Llurdes, 1996). It also contributes to tourism development. However, most of the stakeholders agree on the importance of experience because what visitors consume in the cultural heritage attractions is not only the service but also the experience. The stakeholders consider that the quality of experience is affected by authenticity, interpretation and educational benefits. Those constructs can ensure quality and sustainable development in cultural heritage tourism.

The authenticity of the cultural heritage attractions is a complex question. Although most of the stakeholders consider that there is authenticity in the attractions, they also criticise that some newer alterations are spoiling their charm. It seems that it is impossible to use only one question to present the authenticity of an attraction. Some stakeholders agree only on the authenticity of the World Heritage sites which are a powerful aid in conservation and preservation and also international exposure. In fact, most people consider that being in the World Heritage List is a valuable aid in promoting conservation initiatives, development of tourism and even raising national pride. But it is necessary to confirm and ensure the authenticity of all cultural heritage attractions in Macao, not just the World Heritage sites. Furthermore, the authentic experience in attractions has historical integrity and helps create a sense of place and belonging. It can assist the appeal of cultural heritage sites and marketing them as 'authentic' (Pearce & Moscardo, 1986; Waitt, 2000).

On the other hand, the stakeholders consider that Macao should focus on the spirit of cultural heritage by using education. Education on cultural heritage attractions to the public not only attracts visitors with a high standard of knowledge, it also delivers the messages of conservation in cultural heritage attractions to extend the awareness of the public, even towards the goals of education. Poria, Butler and Airey (2004) review that the reasons for visiting cultural heritage attractions can be placed into three groups: 'heritage experience', 'learning history' and 'recreational experience'. It shows a certain degree of involvement with the attractions and educational

components. Cultural heritage tourism gives visitors the opportunity to understand and appreciate the essential characteristics of a place and its culture and gives residents increased culture awareness and self-identity. Besides, attracting people to visit the cultural heritage attractions can inculcate respect for the local culture and history to achieve sustainable development. Thus, local residents and tourists can benefit greatly through education regarding the cultural heritage resources.

Furthermore, the stakeholders agree on the importance of interpretation. It can inform the visitors about appropriate behaviours and educate them how to protect the attractions. It can also help sustain the management and conservation of cultural heritage attractions. In fact, it is necessary to understand them in order to provide suitable services to visitors and to change their attitudes and concepts in positive ways. Providing information can influence where visitors go and assist in managing their impacts. It helps visitors to enjoy their visits but also ensures that every visitor follows the predetermined sequence during the visits (Pearce, 1984). The data also indicate that it is also difficult to guarantee that all the interpreters pass on accurate information so training is necessary to ensure the quality of information and interpretation. The training should be together with a licence system which can keep up the standards of tour guides and provide clear guidelines on what quality is as well. Furthermore, it can be started in schools or the community, to allow younger and older people to be involved in cultural heritage tourism. In order to enhance the involvement, they can be assigned as tour guides and particularly the older people can share their experience with visitors or other local people. Although it does not mean that people learn from the interpretation at the cultural heritage attractions, they tend to use various interpretative techniques to encourage learning and enhance visitors' experience. Interpretation appears to be an important component of the visit for many people, enabling them to learn informally and be affected by the experience as well (Light, 1995). Thus, interpretation is one of the factors which influence the quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism.

***Theme 3: Quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism is related to the perception of quality and satisfaction.***

The stakeholders show that most local residents and tourists focus on the World

Heritage sites in Macao. Those attractions have already exceeded the level of carrying capacity. Moscardo (1999) mentions that providing information about alternative sites, routes or activities is an attempt to move visitors away from heavily used sites. Since crowded areas can affect the experience, the stakeholders show that the attractions should control user numbers. The quality of experience can guarantee the quality of cultural heritage tourism and reduce the users to those interested in the cultural heritage. In particular, it enhances the quality of cultural heritage tourism and contributes to the satisfaction of local residents and visitors. As suggested by stakeholders, the contacts between staff and visitors are important in cultural heritage tourism. The visitors mainly interact with staff when visiting the attractions and participating in exhibit areas. To ensure the quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism, visitors should be either accompanied by a guide or encounter custodians located in each attraction. It implies that provision of the information by staff can ensure the quality of experience because this information can help them enjoy their visit. In fact, the quality of experience for each visitor is affected by interaction with staff but this takes place in the context of the physical setting and the managerial concepts underlying the visit (Laws, 1998). Weiermair (2000) also points out that quality is affected by service personnel because human resources are engaged in cultural heritage tourism. Zhou, King and Turner (1998) propose that one of the main reasons for the Chinese to visit heritage sites is their fame and popularity with others. There are many reasons for people to visit cultural heritage attractions/resources and it is important to understand them. From the literature, the two common reasons to visit the sites are education, which means visitors are willing to learn, and entertainment, which means visitors are willing to be entertained (Poria, Butler & Airey, 2004). It implies cultural heritage tourism is with educational experience. The cultural heritage visitors seek to learn in cultural heritage attractions and also seek to be exposed to material that is part of their own culture and heritage, which provides them with a satisfied experience. By understanding the personal interests attained from heritage visiting, justification can be afforded to cultural heritage tourism development beyond that of the economic generation to an understanding of how people need cultural heritage to add perspective and meaning to their lives (McIntosh, 1999). Thus, it is essential to understand the visitors in cultural heritage tourism because the overall experience can affect their perception of quality and satisfaction in it.

***Theme 4: Quality of cultural heritage tourism leads to satisfaction with ultimate pursuit of travellers' behavioural intentions.***

The data show the relationship among quality of cultural heritage tourism, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The general thrust of the literature on satisfaction with consumption is that the consumers more satisfied with a product are expected to be the ones who tend to have higher probabilities of continuing to purchase it and of telling their friends and relatives of their favourable experiences (Kozak & Beaman, 2006). Applying this concept in the data, the visitors who are more satisfied with a place tend to have higher probabilities of revisiting and of telling their friends and relatives of their positive experiences. At the same time, the visitor perceived the quality in the destinations. The findings from this study are consistent with the literature that highlights the relationship of perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. It implies that the quality can be affected by satisfaction, which can play a key role in the visitor behaviour model. Returning and recommending are related to a positive attitude towards the destinations. There are linkages between returning, recommending and satisfaction but it cannot confirm that the quality of experience can lead the returning and recommending to the destinations. The reason is that the return is not influenced by the current experience (Kozak & Beaman, 2006). Furthermore, in the previous literatures, MacKay and Crompton (1988) mention that quality of experience is defined as the psychological outcomes that visitors derive from visiting a site or facility. According to the themes, it reflects that visitors' perceived quality is affected by the experience. Thus, quality of experience and perceived quality of performance are likely positively correlated. On the other hand, Tian-Cole, Crompton and Wilson (2002) provide empirical support in their research that the quality had a stronger direct effect on satisfaction. Tian-Cole, Crompton and Wilson (2002) also state that there was the relationship between visitors' future behaviour, perceived quality and satisfaction. In addition, Mill and Morrison (1992) mention that if two places, either next to each other or destinations in the same country, are perceived to be similar as holiday destinations, a tourist's experience in only one of them can be expected to encourage or discourage intentions to visit the other similar destination. Satisfaction with a destination can increase propensity to visit the same destination and also visit other destinations in the same area or country. Although the Macao tourism industry has a long history,

its development has been closely linked to gaming. In terms of cultural heritage tourism in Macao, it is a new destination. However, it is reasonable to believe that the visitors with high satisfaction will recommend to friends and relatives, even though they might not return to the destination. At least, they will visit other destinations in the same area or country. It is not only inferred from the literature and the findings also suggest this relationship. It is important for management to monitor this aspect which is powerful in promotion, and attract more visitors to a destination. The findings show the complicated relationships between quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

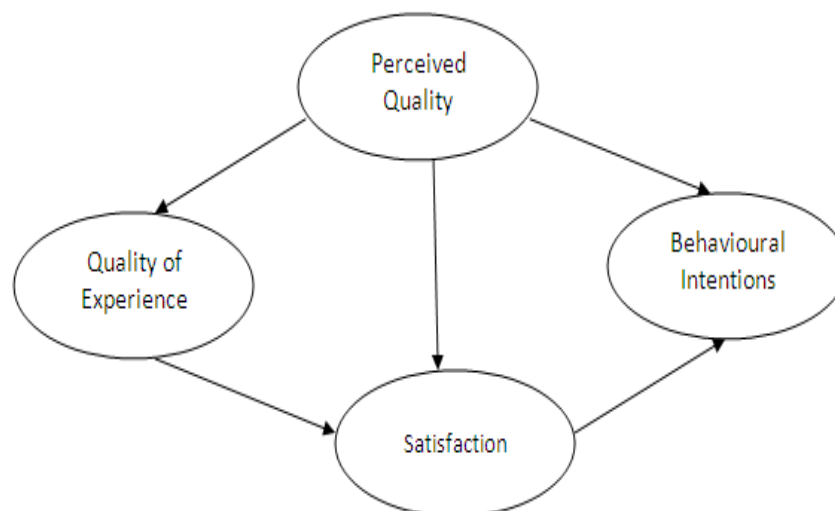
## 2. Models

Many themes are developed from the categories in axial coding. Glaser (1978) suggests that 'selective coding' should be performed after the axial coding for the identification of a core category and the relationships among the categories. It presumes the existence of a core concept or theory, which encapsulates and explains the observed phenomena. Apart from the core category, several categories re-emerge and are re-developed at the selective coding stage. The theoretical memos also play an important role to assist in the process of creating order and making sense of the data in this stage. Then, the following explanation of the theme provides a more detailed interpretation of the data, where each of the themes and sub-themes is examined more thoroughly. Therefore, a number of significant themes emerged from the grounded theory analysis of the interview data. Each theme is made up of a series of concepts and some of them might be grouped into sub-themes which exist within the overall theme and the model as well. From the data analysis, themes, concepts and relationships are yielded. The author starts to compare these with extant literature. According to Glaser (1978), the literature is accessed as the data becomes relevant. It is referred to as enfolding the literature which involves asking what it is similar to, what it contradicts and why. It facilitates an understanding of how to conceptualise and integrate the data (Creswell, 1998; Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). Importantly, it improves the construct definitions and leads to internal validity. It also improves external validity by establishing the domain to which the study's findings can some extent be generalised (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). This helps to link the research with the existing body of knowledge in the



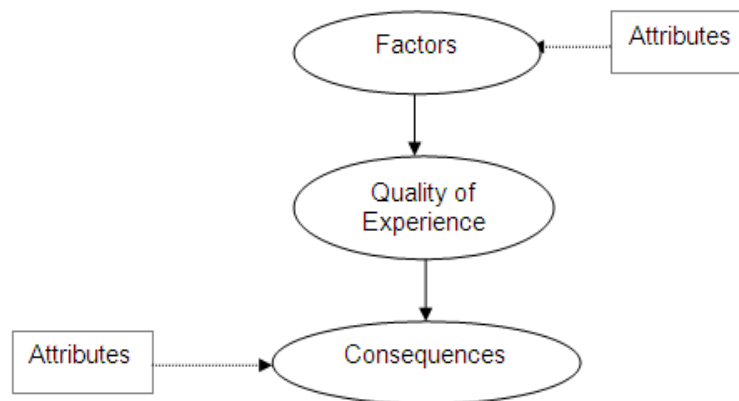
subject area and supply an analytical framework. Based on the above-mentioned themes, the core theme is developed from those themes, which is 'quality of experience'. In fact, all of interviewees refer extensively to the 'quality of experience' during the cultural heritage tourism development. Therefore, the author decides to set 'quality of experience' as the core category. On the other hand, the initial objective for grounded theory approach in this study is to identify a number of quality issues in cultural heritage tourism. Apart from the core category, a number of potentially relevant categories are identified including perceived quality, satisfaction, behavioural intentions, interpretation, authenticity and educational benefits. These categories are meaningfully organised in a core concept, which constitutes the main deliverable of grounded theory. As a result, the model regarding the relationships among quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions are shown in Figure 5.2.

**Figure 5.2: The Relationships among quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions**



The theory building is through selective coding and the paradigm model. The integration of categories explores the dimensions and meanings in the 'quality of experience' and also the consequences. The paradigm model as shown in Figure 5.3 is used in this study.

**Figure 5.3: Paradigm model**



Quality of experience is the core component in cultural heritage tourism, which involves the consumption of an experience which cultural heritage attractions provide for their visitors through their site interpretation (McArthur & Hall, 1996; McIntosh, 1999). At the same time, the cultural heritage attractions also present the authenticity and educational benefits to the visitors. Quality of experience can affect the visitors' satisfaction and behavioural intentions through satisfaction very much and depends on the level of quality. Once visitors learn the quality of cultural heritage tourism, they might decide if they will repeat the purchase or not. Furthermore, the introduction of repeat purchases is not only for repeat visitors, it is also for the ones who are informed by friends and relatives. The reputation of high quality is built by 'word of mouth'. Tirole (1997) suggests that repeat purchases induce high quality provision only if two conditions are met: 1) consumers learn the quality of the purchased object quickly enough, 2) they purchase many times. Based on the findings, perceived quality has the effect on behavioural intentions and satisfaction. Quality of experience can therefore influence behavioural intentions indirectly through perceived quality and satisfaction. Meanwhile, the quality of experience affects a destination's success through the positive consequences of satisfaction. It results in the likelihood of repeat visits or word of mouth recommendations. The data results and literature reviews assist the author to establish the theory of quality cultural heritage tourism shown in Figure 5.4.

**Figure 5.4: Quality of cultural heritage tourism: Model 2**



This study explores the quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism by using grounded theory. The model is called Model 2. The constructs in the Model 2 is similar to hypothesised model but the paradigm derived from grounded theory underpins the quality attributes towards cultural heritage tourism. The analysis suggests that authenticity, interpretation and educational benefits are the measurement of perceived quality. Perceived quality is not only measured by outcome quality, interaction quality and physical environment, but also authenticity, interpretation and educational benefits. In addition, behavioural intentional also consider the souvenir consumption as measurement. The data offers both theoretical and practical information on the cultural heritage tourism field. The theoretical issues seek the emergence of new knowledge in this area while the practical issues provide guidance for future studies in the same field.

This study is an attempt to investigate the quality of cultural heritage tourism in Macao with a theoretical foundation. The model is multi-dimensional which reflects the constructs in quality of cultural heritage tourism. Through a qualitative survey and review of theories related to quality and cultural heritage tourism, the author proposes a conceptual model of quality cultural heritage tourism for Macao. Four themes are developed through examination of Macao's cultural heritage tourism and synthesis of theories and extant literature on the quality and cultural heritage tourism in developed countries. Some of the themes are similar to the literature while some of them are

unique in Macao. The proposed model in this study is theorised through the inductive method of grounded theory and with a semi-structured interview sample selected from stakeholders in Macao. As such, the findings are not to be generalised to the visitors and local population in Macao. However, it can represent concrete information for understanding of quality of cultural heritage in Macao. Further investigation on the travellers and local populations is encouraged and needed due to the unique nature of quality. Because of the size of travellers and local population, their thoughts and behaviours might significantly influence their experience and opinions on quality of cultural heritage tourism. Therefore, empirical studies are also needed to test the validity and adequacy of the theoretical model developed.

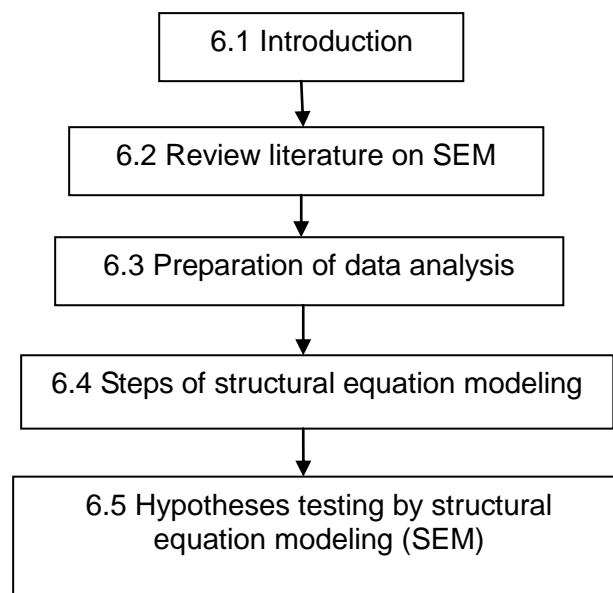
## CHAPTER 6

### DATA ANALYSIS (STUDY 2)

#### 6.1 Introduction

The methodology chapter described and justified the overall research methodology used in this study. This chapter reports the results of the data analysis for the proposed model and Model 2 in previous studies, as shown in Figure 6.1. Section 6.2 presented the literature related to structure equation modelling (SEM). First, a preliminary examination of the data is presented in Section 6.3. In this section, preparations for data analysis, descriptive analysis, and normality and reliability testing are discussed. Second, a profile analysis of respondents is presented in Section 6.4, which shows that the sample collected is representative of the target population. Finally, the hypotheses are examined in their order of presentation from Section 6.5 using structural equation modelling.

**Figure 6.1: Outline of Chapter 6**



## **6.2 Literature review on structural equation modelling (SEM)**

### *6.2.1 Concepts of structural equation modelling (SEM)*

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a statistical technique for testing and estimating causal relations using a combination of statistical data. The advantage is that data and theory can be analysed together with loadings for the measures and estimates of the relationships between constructs estimated simultaneously (Bagozzi, 1984; Fornell & Yi, 1992). It is a multivariate analysis technique that encompasses standard methods such as path analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, causal modelling with latent variables, analysis of variance and multiple regression (Cunningham & Wang, 2005). SEM is a flexible and powerful extension of the general linear model and enables a researcher to test a set of regression equations simultaneously. Bagozzi (1980) suggests four benefits in causal models as follows: (1) they make the assumptions, constructs and hypothesised relationships in a researcher's theory explicit; (2) they require clear definitions of constructs, operationalisations and the functional relationships between constructs; (3) they permit a more complete representation of complex theories; (4) they provide a formal framework for constructing and testing both theories and measures. The objectives of a study using SEM are either explanatory or predictive in nature. Some studies combine both of these objectives (Hulland, Chow & Lam, 1996). However, It is an approach more often used as confirmatory (hypothesis testing) than exploratory (descriptive or model searching), more model-driven than data-driven, and more 'causal' than correlative.

Indeed, the application of structural equation modelling (SEM) is widely used in the research of psychology, education, health sciences and in other areas. Particularly, it offers marketing researchers the promise of advancing knowledge both more effectively and more efficiently (Hulland et al., 1996). The application of causal models has been growing significantly in marketing researches. Although no systematic assessment has been made of how well such techniques are used in tourism and hospitality researches, the author reviews the literature in other areas such as marketing in order to confirm how well they are adopted in this study. In addition, the author considers that the application of SEM is still in the early growth

stage in tourism and hospitality researchers. Its application will accelerate in the future and the related research will become familiar. The importance of SEM is not linked to a particular SEM computer program but it is related to the understanding of SEM. The SEM is chosen in the Study 2 because of its characteristics, as follows (Kline, 2005): Firstly, SEM has an a priori basis and requires researchers to think in terms of models. Although it is not exclusively confirmatory, the application of SEM is a blend of exploratory and confirmatory analyses. The author has already developed a model in Study 1 which reflects the hypotheses as well. By using SEM in Study 2, the model can be evaluated in the analysis. SEM can be viewed as confirmatory. However, the data might be inconsistent with the model which means the author must either abandon the model or modify the hypotheses on which it is based. Therefore the author does the analysis based on Jöreskog's (1993) ideas including (1) strictly confirmatory, (2) alternative models, and (3) model-generating applications of SEM. The first model testing is so narrow because the researcher has a single model that is accepted or rejected based on its correspondence to the data. For the third model testing, if the initial model does not fit the data and is modified by the researcher, the altered model is then tested again with the same data. However, the second testing is still restricted to situations where more than one a priori model is available. Importantly, it makes theoretical sense and its statistical correspondence to the data is reasonable. As a result, the second testing is chosen in the Study 2.

Secondly, the explicit representation of the distinction between observed and latent variables is characteristic of many SEMs. The distinction makes it possible for researchers to test a wide variety of hypotheses. SEM is more straightforward when dealing with both sophisticated relationships and with latent relationships in the empirical model development process (Nusair & Hua, 2010). Thirdly, SEM is still a large-sample technique because several factors affect sample size requirements in SEM. Generally, the analysis of a complex model requires more cases than does the analysis of a simpler model. Although it is difficult to give a simple answer to the question of how large a sample needs to be, Kline (2005) provides guidelines as follows: sample sizes less than 100 would be considered 'small', between 100 and 200 subjects a 'medium' sample size. Since 'small' sample size is only for simple model and also means that power of statistical tests may be very limited. The

sample size in Study 2 is more than 100 cases.

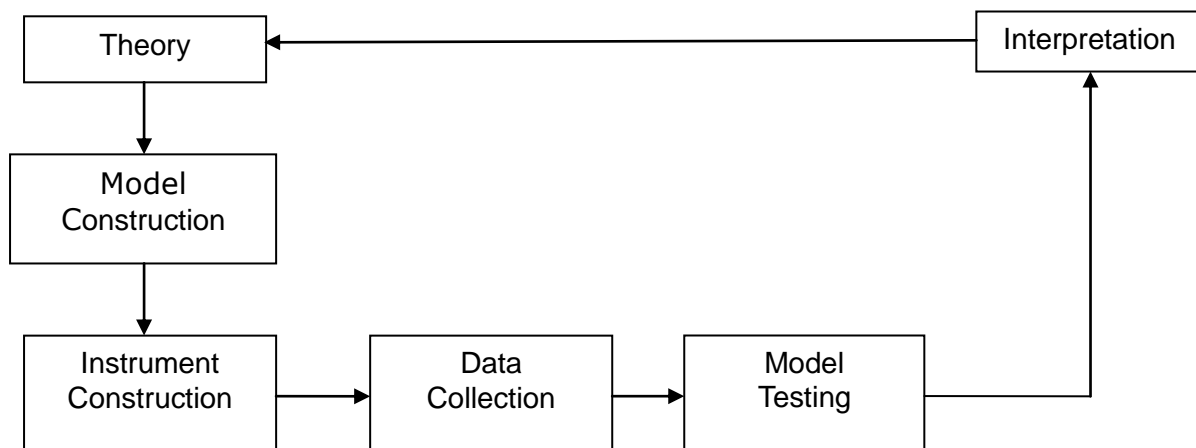
### 6.2.2 *The application of AMOS*

There are many SEM computer program such as AMOS, EQS, Mplus, CALIS and LISREL. Among those programs, LISREL is probably the most widely used in books and journal articles about SEM since it was the only widely available SEM program in 30 years ago. However, no matter which software package is chosen, those SEM program attempt to test traditional models and permits examination of more complex relationships and models (Hoyle, 1995). SEM is not only to conduct standard multiple regression analysis, it also has the additional advantage of modelling relationships between latent variables (Kline, 2005).

Among those computer programs, AMOS is chosen for this study because it has a user-friendly graphical interface. The use of AMOS graphics can enhance the understanding of multiple regressions. It can also clarify concepts and process, organise and articulate information. By using visual diagrams in AMOS, it can reveal the patterns, interrelationships and interdependencies of models (Biktimirov & Nelson, 2003). The author considers that it is the very best method to enhance the communication of the findings from analyses and illustrate the conceptual model to wide audiences. The users are requested to draw a path diagram directly on the screen by using AMOS. The observed variables are represented by rectangles and linear equations are represented with arrows from the independent to the dependent variables (Cunningham & Wang, 2005). On the other hand, AMOS accepts a path diagram as the model specification and provides drag-and-drop drawing tools that allow rapid model specification in user-friendly ways. The researcher then gathers data on the variables of interest and attaches the data set to the a priori specified model. The graphic interface presents the results from analyses in a visual framework that is very easy to understand (Steiger, 2001). Another software package (SPSS) is also used in this study. AMOS accepts correlation or covariance matrix input which can be computed from SPSS. Therefore, AMOS is suitable in Study 2. The Figure 6.2 illustrates the procedures of SEM using AMOS.



**Figure 6.2 Procedures of SEM using AMOS**



### 6.2.3 Score reliability and validity for SEM analysis

Reliability and validity are attributes of scores in a particular sample, not measures. It is essential that the score analyses in SEM are both reliable and valid (Kline, 2005). Therefore, score reliability and validity are examined in this study.

*1. Score Reliability.* Reliability concerns the degree to which the scores are free from random measurement error. It is estimated as one minus the proportion of the observed variance that is due to random error. The most commonly reported estimate of reliability is Cronbach's coefficient alpha which measures internal consistency reliability and evaluates the reliability of each measurement scale (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Kline, 2005). There is no consensus in the literature on how high coefficients should be to consider score reliability as 'good'. Generally, reliability coefficients around .90 are considered 'excellent', values around .80 are 'very good', and values around .70 are 'adequate' (Kline, 2005). In fact, reliability measures above 0.60 are deemed to be acceptable for research purposes (Nunnally, 1978; Peterson, 1994).

*2. Score Validity.* Validity concerns the soundness of the inferences based on the score. Most forms of score validity are subsumed under the concept of construct validity which concerns whether the scores measure the hypothetical construct the researcher believes they do (Kline, 2005). Although there is no single and definitive test of construct validity, the SEM method of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a

tool for evaluating construct validity (Kline, 2005). Since it is unrealistic to measure the hypothetical construct by any single indicator (Kline, 2005), convergent validity is also applied because the construct should explain more variance of its measurement indicators than does the error term (Fornell, 1992; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

### **6.3 Preparation of data Analysis**

Estimation methods in SEM require certain assumptions about the distributional characteristics of the data (Kline, 2005). The data preparation and screening are crucial in estimation methods in SEM which require careful preparation and screening of the raw data for multivariate normality. It also ensures that the collected data are translated into a form suitable for analysis and avoid the data-related problems from the SEM computer program (Kline, 2005).

*1. Questionnaire editing.* This step was to ensure the data collected were complete and consistent, and importantly, that all the questionnaires were completed by eligible respondents. One of the questions in the survey asks about respondents' experience in cultural heritage tourism to screen potential respondents not included in the sample. After screening, no ineligible respondent was found. However, of 550 responses collected, 37 responses were considered unusable as they are largely incomplete, leaving 513 responses to be used for data analysis.

*2. Coding and transcribing data.* Coding of data assigns a code to every response in the survey to prepare the data for transfer into computer files. In this study, most of the variables are quantifiable data, which used numerical codes. Data were then inputted into statistical analysis software. In this study, the SPSS package was used because it is compatible with AMOS 5.0 for SEM analysis.

*3. Cleaning and screening data.* The raw data were inputted into the system by the author after the data collection. Each individual case was given a sequential identity number to allow identification of the data with the original questionnaire script. To ensure accurate transcription of data from the questionnaires and to check for inconsistent responses, two methods are used. Firstly, every tenth questionnaire was checked against the original questionnaire for incorrect entries of responses. No

mistakes were found. Secondly, basic descriptive statistics and frequency distributions are calculated by SPSS to screen all variables to check for out-of-range responses. No error was identified.

4. *Missing data.* In this study, the problem of missing data was considered because SEM requires complete data on all the variables (Byrne, 2001). The reasons for missing data in this survey include that the respondents' refusal to answer the questions; the respondents did not know the answer and also do not have an opinion. Therefore, 6.7% of the questionnaires were considered unusable as they are largely incomplete. Thus, 513 usable responses without missing data were used for data analysis.

Since pilot and empirical studies were conducted in different time slots over a period of 6 months, the demographic data of samples between two studies are compared in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Demographic data of pilot and empirical studies**

		Pilot Study	Empirical Study
<b>Gender</b>	Male	46.0	48.3
	Female	54.0	51.7
<b>Nationality</b>	Hong Kong	32.0	40.7
	Mainland China	37.0	41.7
	Taiwan	9.0	9.4
	Korea	1.0	0.0
	Others	21.0	8.8
<b>Educational Level</b>	Primary school or below	7.0	2.7
	High school or vocational training	26.0	31.6
	Bachelor degree or above	66.0	65.7
<b>Occupation</b>	Senior management	7.0	5.1
	Professionals	22.0	20.8
	White-collar worker	29.0	26.6
	Blue-collar worker	4.0	11.9
	Students	9.0	13.3
	Unemployed	8.0	9.9
	Self-employed	7.0	9.7
	Others	14.0	2.7
<b>Purpose of Visit</b>	Cultural heritage	25.0	22.2
	Gaming	14.0	17.5
	Entertainment	58.0	49.1
	Others	3.0	11.1

The data show that the distribution of demographic data between the studies is very similar. This implies that the different time slots over a period of 6 months do not affect the samples in this study. On the other hand, the t-test was used to determine whether the two samples had significant difference on the constructs of interest to the author. By investigating the constructs of perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions, the p-value are .244, .855 and .455, respectively which are much bigger than the alpha level of .05. It can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between the two samples.

#### *6.4 Steps of structural equation modelling (SEM)*

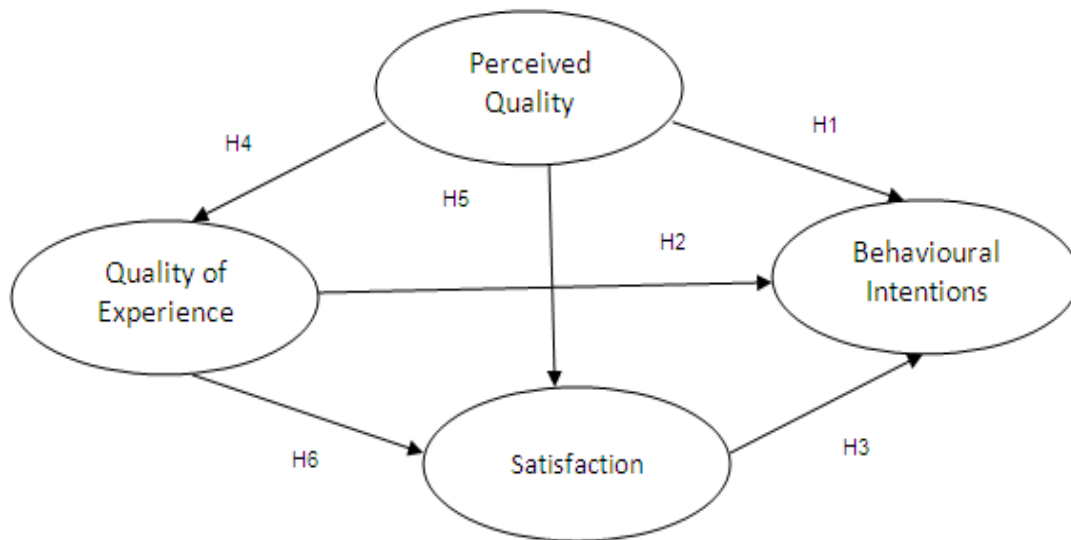
The core SEM techniques include path analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and the evaluation of structural regression models with features of both path and factor models (Kline, 2005). To examine the proposed model and Model 2 in Study 2, the author applies five steps based on Kline's research.

##### *6.4.1 Conceptualisation of structural model*

Structural equation models (SEM) are typically employed to test and develop theory or to make predictions about outcomes using a theoretical framework. The nature of the underlying theory can be quite simple or very complex (Hulland et al., 1996). The causal links in a theoretical model can either a recursive model or nonrecursive model. The literature shows that the recursive models are less likely to have problems in analysis (Kline, 2005). Therefore, the proposed model from literature reviews and Model 2 from Study 2 are recursive models. Secondly, there are two types of variables in the proposed model including observed and latent variables. Thirdly, in the proposed model, quality of experience is an exogenous construct, which is a variable with no causal link (arrow) leading to it from other variables in the model. Furthermore, behavioural intention is a purely endogenous construct, which is a variable that only has causal links (arrows) leading to it from other variables in the model. Meanwhile, perceived quality and satisfaction are intervening constructs because they are consequences of some variables and also antecedents of some other variables. The theoretical formulation of the structural model is developed

based on literature reviews. Since the model conceptualisation is fulfilled, a diagram of proposed model in Study 2 is illustrated in Figure 6.3.

**Figure 6.3: Hypothesised model**



Source: Chapter 2, Figure 2.3

In the proposed model, the items of 'quality of experience', 'perceived quality', 'satisfaction' and 'behavioural intentions' are considered as latent variables which depict the direct and indirect causal effects as the path model with structural components. Meanwhile, each of them is specified by several indicators which show the measurement components. In accordance with the previous findings from the Study 1, authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits are added as the measurement in perceived quality. Also, the souvenir consumption is added as the measurement in behavioural intentions. Thus, an alternative model (Model 2) is developed from Study 1. A diagram of Model 2 in Study 2 is illustrated in Figure 6.5.

**Figure 6.4: Model 2**



Source: Chapter 5, Figure 5.4

In the Model 2, the items of 'quality of experience', 'perceived quality', 'satisfaction', 'behavioural intentions', 'authenticity', 'Interpretation' and 'educational benefits' are considered as latent variables which depict the direct and indirect causal effects as the path model with structural components. Meanwhile, each of them is specified by several indicators which show the measurement components.

#### *6.4.2 Measurement model estimation*

The main objective of measurement model estimation is to define the model conceptualisation and specification in the structural models. The evaluation of proposed model is identified and its subsequent estimation should be made separately for each including measurement and structural. Therefore, the following issues are considered.

*1. Sampling.* Most studies recommend a samples size of at least 100 but also suggest that a sample of 200 or more may be needed for more complex models (Bagozzi, 1980; Hulland et al., 1996). Jöreskog and Sörbom (2001) also recommend the sample between 100 to 200, with a sample of 200 being a 'critical sample size' since small sample sizes create problems for maximum likelihood-based

estimation procedures like LISREL (Fornell, 1983). Thus, a sample size of 200 or even much larger is necessary for the model in this study. On the other hand, although a desirable goal is to have the ratio of the number of cases to the number of free parameters as 20:1, 10:1 may be a more realistic target (Kline, 2005). The suggestion about minimum sample size in terms of the ratio of cases to free parameters may be appropriate for CFA such as 10:1 or even better, 20:1 (Jackson, 2003). Therefore, the sample size of 513 in this study is appropriate.

*2. Number of measurement items.* Each construct should be measured by at least two items in order to assess both measurement reliability and construct validity (Nunnally, 1978; Peter, 1979, 1981). For the complex models, use of only two measurement items per construct might lead to problems of under-identification, resulting in negative degrees of freedom and a non-unique solution, therefore the use of three or more items will be more prudent (Bollen, 1989). Since quality of experience is subjective (Ritchie, 1991) and the scope of experience is more general (Chen & Chen, 2010), the evaluation of experience quality should tend to be holistic rather than attribute-based. Hence, only the construct of 'quality of experience' is evaluated by one item.

*3. Measurement loadings.* An item should have a loading of at least 0.7 on its associated construct since a loading of less than 0.7 suggests an error variance which exceeds the variance in the measure explained by the construct (Fornell, Tellis & Zinkhan, 1982).

*4. Missing Data.* Missing data present different problems. Roth (1994) suggests that the proportion of cases with missing data is small (5 per cent or less), list wise deletion is acceptable. It means that an entire case record is deleted if the case has one or more missing data points. If the cases (5 per cent or less) are not missing completely at random, Little and Rubin (1987) recommend using a maximum likelihood estimation method for analysis, a method that makes use of all available data points.

*5. Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation.* Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation is chosen in this study because it offers users the choice of different procedures and the

most widely used in researches (Kline, 2005). The term describes the statistical principle that underlies the derivation of parameter estimates, the ones that maximise the likelihood that the data were drawn from this population. In fact, ML estimation is the default method in most SEM computer programme including AMOS. The normality of the data set is assessed by examining its skew and kurtosis. Therefore, the analytic technique for the models in Study 2 are relied on maximum likelihood method, which are also based on the assumption that all data follow a multivariate normal distribution (Hulland et al., 1996).

#### *6.4.3 Measurement model evaluation*

The proposed model and Model 2 feature multiple-indicator approach to measurement. Hence, CFA is more suitable for this study. SEM method of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a tool for evaluating construct reliability and validity (Kline, 2005). The results of CFA include estimates of covariances between the factors, loadings of the indicators on their respective factors, and the amount of measurement error for each indicator (Kline, 2005). If the researcher's a priori measurement model is reasonably correct, it should show that (1) indicators specified to measure a common underlying factor have a relatively high standardised loading on the factor, and (2) estimated correlations between factors are not excessively high, for example:  $>0.85$  (Kline, 2005). It can also indicate the convergent and discriminant validity which are the common parts of CFA (Kline, 2005). The CFA model concerns an a priori pattern of loadings of the indicators on the factors. All associations between the factors are unanalysed in CFA model (Kline, 2005). As a result, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is examined in this study.

#### *6.4.4 Model Assessment and Evaluation.*

There are dozens of model fit indexes described in the SEM literature. The availability of so many different fit indexes presents a few problems. This means that it can be difficult for a researcher to decide as to which particular indexes and which values to report (Kline, 2005). However, there is a minimal set of fit indexes that should be reported and interpreted including model chi-square, the Steiger-Lind root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), Bentler comparative fit index (CFI)



and root mean square residual (RMR) (Boomsma, 2000; McDonald & Ho, 2002). Goodness-of-fit (GFI) (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1986) and Tucker and Lewis (TLI) (Tucker and Lewis, 1973) are also considered in this study.

*1. Chi-Square and Normed Chi-Square.* Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) is most basic fit index. This statistic is also known as the likelihood ratio chi-square or generalised likelihood ratio (Kline, 2005). The  $\chi^2$  test is seen as the most objective method of testing the fit of a confirmatory model (Jöreskog, 1971). Chi-square is widely used to determine for the model, along with a corresponding  $p$ -value. The model is deemed satisfactory based on  $p$ -value. The cut-offs are either  $p > 0.05$  or  $p > 0.10$ , with the former more widely accepted in marketing researches (Hulland et al., 1996). It means that the model would be rejected at the .05 level or .01 level. However, Fornell (1983) suggests the problem in this approach is that a satisfactory model can always be found by changing the number of parameters estimated or allowing the measurement and construct error terms to covary. A chi-square of zero indicates the model perfectly fits the data. As the value increases, the fit of an over-identified model becomes increasingly worse. The other limitation of chi-square is sensitive to sample size (Cagli, 1984). In order to reduce the sensitivity, it is suggested to divide its value by the degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df$ ) which is called the normed chi-square (NC). However, there is no clear-cut guideline about what value of the NC, 5.0 is recommended as indicating reasonable fit (Kline, 2005).

*2. Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).* In response to problem in the  $\chi^2$  test, a number of alternative overall model fit measures are proposed to assess how well the estimated model fits the observed data. RMSEA is a 'badness-of-fit' index in that a value of zero indicates the best fit and higher values indicate worse fit. A rule of thumb is that  $RMSEA \leq .05$  indicates close approximate fit, values between .05 and .08 suggest reasonable error of approximation (Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

*3. Root mean square residual (RMR).* RMR indices are based on covariance residuals, differences between observed and predicted covariances (Kline, 2005). For the RMR measure, a value of zero indicates perfect fit, while a value of 0.05 or less suggests good fit. A value between 0.10 and 0.05 is considered as adequate fit.

General speaking, many researchers prefer to use a more conservative limit of 0.07 or 0.08 (Hulland et al., 1996).

Fit indices are chosen following recommendations by Hu and Bentler (1998), and those included in the current investigation are the comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Fit Index (TLI) (Bentler, 1989) and the LISREL goodness-of-fit index (GFI) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). Each of the fit indices may range in value from 1.0 to 0.0. A fit index of 1.0 represents a “saturated” model which means that a model with zero degrees of freedom that perfectly reproduces the original covariance matrix. Values greater than 0.9 indicate a good fit of the data, while values higher than 0.95 indicate an excellent fit of the data (Bentler, 1989; Hu & Bentler, 1998).

1. *Comparative fit index (CFI)*. This is one of a class of fit statistics known as incremental or comparative fit indices, which are among the most widely used in SEM (Kline, 2005). Values of 0.95 or better on these indices are often viewed as indicative of good overall model fit, while values between 0.90 and 0.95 suggest adequate fit. Note that these indices equal one when the estimated model exactly reproduces the observed data and zero when there is no fit at all (Hulland et al., 1996). The AMOS 5.0 program allows the specification of baseline models where covariances among the observed variables are required to be equal instead of zero (Kline, 2005).

2. *Tucker Lewis fit Index (TLI)*. The TLI is an incremental fit index, which compares the proposed model to a null model (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). It is also known as the non-normed fit index (NNFI). A value of the TLI close to 0.90 reflects satisfactory model fit, and values of between 0.8 and 0.9 indicated acceptable fit (Kline, 2005).

3. *Goodness-of-fit Index (GFI)*. Goodness-of-fit (GFI) is the very first standardised fit index associated with LISREL (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1986). It is a kind of matrix proportion of explained variance. Thus,  $GFI = 1.0$  indicates perfect model fit,  $GFI > .90$  may indicate good fit and values close to zero indicate very poor fit (Kline, 2005).

**Table 6.2: Summary of reliability, weights and fit indices**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Type</b>	<b>Acceptable level</b>
Chi-square	$\chi^2$	Model fit	$P > 0.05$
Normed Chi-square	$\chi^2/df$	Absolute fit and	$1.0 < \chi^2/df < 5.0$
Root mean square error of approximation	RMSEA	Absolute fit	RMSEA < 0.08
Root mean square residual	RMR		RMR < 0.05
Comparative fit index	CFI	Incremental fit	CFI > 0.90
Goodness-of-fit index	GFI	Absolute fit	GFI > 0.80
Tucker Lewis fit index	TLI	Incremental fit	TLI > 0.80

Source: Consolidated from Kline, 2005

#### 6.4.5 Respecification

Respecification is considered in this study because an initial model does not fit the data very well (Kline, 2005). Although respecification of a CFA model is even more challenging, it helps the model fit the data. The number of factors, their relations to the indicators and patterns of measurement error correlations are considered for modification. If the indicators fail to have substantial loadings on the factors to which they are originally assigned. One option is to specify that an indicator loads on a different factor (Kline, 2005). On the other hand, the researchers may specify the wrong number of factors. Poor discriminant validity shows that the model has too many factors while poor convergent validity within sets of indicators suggests that the model may have too few factors (Kline, 2005).

## 6.5 Hypotheses testing by structural equation modelling (SEM)

### 6.5.1 Descriptive statistics

#### 1. Variables in perceived quality and quality of experience

Descriptive statistics include the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation. The interval-scaled independent and dependent variables are obtained as depicted in Table 6.3. From the descriptive statistic results, most of the standard deviations are around 1.00. These indicate that the scores among respondents are reasonably spread (+/- three standard deviations cover the whole scale. Using a 5-point measuring scale, 1 is the lowest and 5 is the highest. The results indicate that respondents tend to have positive opinions on cultural heritage tourism in Macao since the mean for quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism is 3.63. As can be seen, the mean of quality attributes including interaction between staff and visitors, service effort, installations, carrying capacity, educational experience, quality in cultural heritage resources, authenticity and interpretations are relatively high ranging from 3.51 to 3.63. It implies that the effort in cultural heritage tourism is observed. Among the six attributes, the treatment received from the staff has the highest mean value, which indicates a higher level of quality in cultural heritage tourism with interaction between tourism providers and visitors.

**Table 6.3: Descriptive statistics of variables in perceived quality and quality of experience**

	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std Dev.
Q1. Treatment received from the staff	1	5	3.63	.670
Q2. Staff willing to look after visitors	1	5	3.62	.663
Q3. Installations in cultural heritage attractions	1	5	3.51	.732
Q4. Atmosphere in cultural heritage attractions	1	5	3.60	.722
Q5. Informative panels in cultural heritage attractions	1	5	3.55	.694
Q6. Cultural heritage resources excellent	1	5	3.57	.713
Q10. Quality of experience in cultural heritage attractions	1	5	3.63	.718

## 2. Variables in satisfaction

As shown in Table 6.4, the respondents indicate that the overall satisfaction with cultural heritage in Macao is 3.57. Meanwhile, the mean for the items related to satisfaction is relatively high, ranging from 3.38 to 3.50. This might indicate that respondents perceive the quality in cultural heritage tourism and are satisfied with it. However, there is still room for improvement. This is consistent with data collected in Study 1 with stakeholders who admit that planning is needed in cultural heritage tourism to enhance the quality and satisfaction.

**Table 6.4: Descriptive statistics of variables in satisfaction**

	<b>Min.</b>	<b>Max.</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std Dev.</b>
Q11.This is one of the best destinations I could have visited	1	5	3.45	.614
Q12. I am pleased with my decision to visit the cultural heritage in Macao	1	5	3.38	.669
Q13. I have really had a good time; I have had fun in Macao	1	5	3.50	.705
Q14. Macao is a city of cultural heritage	1	5	3.41	.764
Q15. Overall satisfaction	1	5	3.57	.706

## 3. Variables in behavioural intentions

For the attributes of behavioural intentions, the results indicate that respondents have a moderate level of behavioural intentions for cultural heritage tourism in Macao ranging from 2.42 to 3.69. Particularly, the mean of the items 'I will visit the neighbouring destinations of Macao' and 'I will stay longer in Macao' are relatively low compared to other items. This might indicate that respondents may not be interested in neighbouring destinations of Macao and staying longer in Macao. The reasons may include the limitation of cultural heritage attractions, constraints of tourism expenditure and duration of holidays. By contrast, the item 'I will recommend someone to visit Macao' has the outstandingly highest mean of 3.69, indicating that respondents are satisfied and willing to recommend to others.

In addition, the items 'If there were a shop, I would buy a souvenir/ I have already bought a souvenir' (3.48) and 'I have bought a book or guide book for more

information' (3.46) are relatively high which show that the souvenirs in Macao are quite attractive and the respondents are interested in books or guide books for more information. Please note that the item 'I will not come back to Macao' is not included for analysis. The item is listed in the questionnaire to reduce respondents' tendency to cross check their responses of the agreement ratings. Indeed, this item corresponds to the items 'I will visit Macao again because of cultural heritage' and 'I will visit Macao again because of other attractions'.

**Table 6.5: Descriptive statistics of variables in behavioural intentions**

	Min	Max.	Mean	Std Dev.
Q16. I will recommend someone to visit Macao	1	5	3.69	.950
Q17. I will say positive things about the cultural heritage in Macao	1	5	3.53	.873
Q18. If there were a shop, I would buy a souvenir./ I have already bought a souvenir	1	5	3.48	.893
Q19. I have bought a book or guide book for more information	1	5	3.46	.933
Q20. I will visit Macao again because of cultural heritage	1	5	3.34	.872
Q21. I will visit Macao again because of other attractions	1	5	3.38	.854
Q22. I will visit neighbouring destinations of Macao	1	5	2.52	1.186
Q23. I will stay longer in Macao	1	5	2.55	1.052
Q24. I will not come back to Macao	1	5	2.42	1.074

#### 4. Variables in authenticity

As shown in Table 6.6, the respondents tend to agree that the cultural heritage in Macao is authentic. Meanwhile, the mean for the items related to authenticity is relatively high, ranging from 3.42 to 3.50. This might indicate that respondents perceive the authenticity in cultural heritage tourism and are satisfied with it.

**Table 6.6: Descriptive statistics of variables in authenticity**

	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std Dev.
Q25. Display	1	5	3.45	.683
Q26. Photographs	1	5	3.44	.665
Q27. Historic restoration	1	5	3.43	.690
Q28. Historic reenactments	1	5	3.45	.672
Q29. Architecture	1	5	3.50	.727
Q30. Video	1	5	3.43	.715
Q31. Interpretive signs	2	5	3.42	.669

## 5. Variables in interpretations

As shown in Table 6.7 the respondents tend to agree that the cultural heritage in Macao has positive interpretations. Meanwhile, the mean for the items related to interpretations is relatively high ranging from 3.30 to 3.59. This might indicate that respondents agree the high level of interpretations in cultural heritage tourism and are satisfied with it. Particularly, the mean of the items 'respect visitors' and 'friendly' are relatively high compared to other items. This might indicate that the interpreters in Macao show the positive image towards visitors. The reasons may be related to their enthusiasm, characteristics and personality. By contrast, the item 'sense of humour' has relative low mean of 3.30 indicating that respondents are satisfied to the interpreters' knowledge of the attractions (mean = 3.49) but they may need to improve the skills of interpretations. It is necessary to use interesting skills to stimulate the attention from visitors.

**Table 6.7: Descriptive statistics of variables in interpretations**

	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std Dev.
Q32. Expression of personal opinions	2	5	3.33	.618
Q33. Knowledge of the attractions is good	2	5	3.49	.670
Q34. Honest and trustworthy	1	5	3.54	.704
Q35. Inform safety regulations	1	5	3.48	.693
Q36. Good presentation skills	2	5	3.33	.678
Q37. Well trained	2	5	3.42	.730
Q38. Respect visitors	1	5	3.59	.744
Q39. Friendly	2	5	3.57	.785
Q40. Always available for help	1	5	3.47	.736
Q41. Pay attention to visitors' needs	1	5	3.40	.739
Q42. Sense of humor	1	5	3.30	.731
Q43. Encouragements audience to interact	1	5	3.41	.713

## 6. Variables in Educational Benefits

For the attributes of education benefits in Figure 6.8, the results indicate that respondents have high level of education benefits to cultural heritage tourism in Macao ranging from 3.55 to 3.64. Particularly, the mean of the items 'Develop my knowledge of cultural heritage' and 'experience the culture' are relatively high compared to other items. This might indicate that respondents can get the knowledge

related to cultural heritage from the attractions. This might indicate that respondents agree the high level of knowledge in cultural heritage tourism and are satisfied with it. Also, it highlights the importance of experiencing the culture in the destinations.

**Table 6.8: Descriptive statistics of variables in educational benefits**

	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std Dev.
Q44. Be close to the cultural heritage	2	5	3.55	.785
Q45. Learn about the culture	2	5	3.59	.815
Q46. Develop my knowledge of cultural heritage	2	5	3.64	.808
Q47. Learn about history	2	5	3.63	.816
Q48. Learn more traditions	2	5	3.59	.818
Q49. Experience the culture	2	5	3.64	.866

## 7. Independent and dependent variables

As shown in Table 6.9, the descriptive statistics include the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation are indicated. A total of 7 constructs is developed based on the literature reviews and study in qualitative method. From the descriptive statistic results, most of the standard deviations are around 1.00. These indicate that the scores among respondents are reasonably spread (+/- three standard deviations cover the whole scale).

**Table 6.9: Descriptive statistics of independent and dependent variables**

	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std Dev.
Perceived Quality (Q1 to Q6)	1	5	3.58	.537
Quality of Experience (Q10)	1	5	3.63	.651
Satisfaction (Q11 to Q15)	1	5	3.45	.512
Behavioural Intentions (Q16 to Q24)	2	5	3.66	.597
Authenticity (Q25 to Q31)	2	5	3.48	.517
Interpretations (Q32 to Q43)	2	5	3.44	.454
Education Benefits (Q44 to Q49)	1	5	3.57	.674

### 6.5.2 Respondents' profile

In this section, frequency distributions are calculated for all of the individuals in this research. The demographic characteristics of the respondents including gender, age, nationality, educational level and occupation are subsumed in Table 6.10.



As shown in Table 6.10, the sample is reasonably evenly distributed in both genders (male-48.3%/female-51.7%) in a total of 513 respondents. The median income of the respondents is MOP13, 945.57 and their average age is 33. As might be expected, the visitors who involve in cultural heritage tourism are relatively old since most respondents are above 30 years old (31 to 40- 28.4% / 40 to 50 -19.7% / >50 -11.5%), particularly 31.2% of respondents are above 40 years. However, 30.9% of respondent are from 21 to 30 years old, it implies that the young generations may be interested in cultural heritage attractions. It also indicated this potential market for further development in cultural heritage tourism. On the other hand, most respondents have a high educational level (the bachelor degree or above – 65.7%) and those are mainly white-collar workers (26.6%) and professionals (20.8%). These results are consistent with the literature in cultural heritage tourism. Most respondents are from Mainland China (41.1%), followed by Hong Kong (40.7%) which corresponds to the visitor arrivals in Macao. Therefore, the data seems to be well representative of the target population.

**Table 6.10: Respondents' profile**

	No of Respondents	%		No of Respondents	%
<b>Gender</b>			<b>Occupation</b>		
Male	248	48.3	Senior management	21	5.1
Female	265	51.7	Professionals	86	20.8
<b>Age</b>			White-collar worker	110	26.6
20 and < 20	49	9.5	Blue-collar worker	49	11.9
21 – 30	158	30.9	Students	55	13.3
31 – 40	146	28.4	Unemployed	41	9.9
41 – 50	101	19.7	Self-employed	40	9.7
51 and above	59	11.5	Others	11	2.7
<b>Nationality</b>			<b>Monthly Income(MOP)</b>		
Mainland China	211	41.1	1000 and < 1000	121	23.6
Hong Kong	209	40.7	1001 – 5000	141	27.5
Taiwan	48	9.4	5001 – 10000	77	15.0
Others	45	8.8	10001 – 15000	66	12.9
<b>Primary Purpose of Visit</b>			15001 – 20000	47	9.2
Cultural heritage	114	22.2	20001 – 30000	28	5.5
Gaming	90	17.5	30001 – 50000	20	3.9
Entertainment	252	49.1	50001 and above	13	2.5
Others	57	11.1			
<b>Educational Level</b>					
Primary school or	14	2.7			
High school or	162	31.6			
Bachelor degree or	337	65.7			

### 6.5.3 Reliability, normality and convergent validity analysis

To investigate the reliability of the scales in the study, the reliability and normality analysis are used in order to check the internal consistency of the items measured. Based on the abovementioned literature, reliability tests are performed by examining Cronbach's alpha values. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) suggest that a Cronbach alpha greater than 0.70 is moderately reliable but also consider that alpha coefficients for scales with few items (six or less) can be much smaller (0.6 or higher). Thus, a Cronbach alpha greater than 0.60 is deemed acceptable for scales with five or fewer items, while an alpha of 0.70 is deemed acceptable for scales with six or more items. The reliability is shown in Table 6.11.

Originally, there were 8 items in behavioural intentions but the Cronbach's alpha was .611 which was deemed unacceptable for scales with six or more items. Thus,

two items were deleted in the categories of behavioural intentions. As depicted Table 6.11, the values of Cronbach's alpha of all variables, exceeded 0.7, ranging from 0.807 to 0.910. The results indicate that adequate internal consistencies are established.

**Table 6.11: Reliability coefficients of scales used in the study**

	Items	Items deleted	Cronbach's alpha
(1) Perceived Quality	6	NONE	.861
(2) Quality of Experience	1	NONE	N/A
(3) Satisfaction	5	NONE	.807
(4) Behavioural Intentions	6	2 (Q22 and Q23)	.893
(5) Authenticity	7	NONE	.908
(6) Interpretations	12	NONE	.910
(7) Educational Benefits	6	NONE	.872

Furthermore, the normality by assessing the skewness and kurtosis is shown in Table 6.12. A distribution is considered to be normal when the value of skewness divided by the standard error is not greater than 3.0 in absolute value (Chou & Bentler, 1995) and the value of kurtosis divided by the standard error is not greater than 10.0 in absolute value (Hoyle, 1995). The normality analysis shows the reasonable results. As shown in Table 6.12, the skewness values of all other variables are below 3.0 in absolute value. On the other hand, the kurtosis values of all variables are below 10 in absolute value. Thus, it is concluded that there is no outstanding non-normality issue. In brief, the results of reliability and normality testing by examining skewness and kurtosis indicate that the scores of each composition of variables fulfill the requirements of the normal distribution. For the reliability test by assessing the values of Cronbach's alpha and normality analysis, all variables have established reasonable internal consistency for further analysis.

**Table 6.12: Skewness and Kurtosis analysis**

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
(1) Perceived Quality	.134	.108	.612	.215
(2) Quality of Experience	-.301	.108	.299	.215
(3) Satisfaction	.066	.108	.556	.215
(4) Behavioural Intentions	-.340	.108	.385	.215
(5) Authenticity	.058	.108	.347	.215
(6) Interpretations	.226	.108	.007	.215
(7) Educational Benefits	-.124	.108	-.076	.215

On the other hand, validity is important in the research of establishing the validity of latent constructs. The convergent validity should be considered (Bollen, 1989; Nunnally, 1978). The 'validity' for the latent constructs would then be assessed considering its reliability and its performance over this minimal set of validity criteria. Convergent measures are highly correspondent across different methods (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The convergent validity of a construct can be gauged by its average variance extracted (AVE). It is suggested that a construct's AVE should be .5 or above (Dillon and Goldstein, 1984). The AVEs for perceived quality (.78), satisfaction (.78), behavioural intentions (.81), authenticity (.80), interpretations (.71) and education benefits (.78) are larger than .50 (Fornell 1992, Fornell & Larcker, 1981) which show a satisfactory convergent validity of the constructs examined in this study. Hence, the latent constructs in the study should be valid and reliable, and then their correlations with the target latent constructs should be theoretically sound.

#### 6.5.4 Correlation coefficients among independent and dependent variables

Reliability concerns the consistency of the positions or rank of individuals in the group relative to others and reflects the instruments ability to discriminate between subjects in a population sample (Kline, 2005). Correlation coefficients are the most appropriate reliability parameter for measurements on a continuous scale. Correlation coefficients provide the basis for establishing and testing models among measured and/or latent variables (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). They estimate the degree of linear association between two variables (Kline, 2005). In other words, correlation coefficients measure the closeness of the relationship or association between two variables (Hair et al., 1995). Through correlation results, the reserachers can assess

whether the relationships being examined in the given model are in the expected directions (Frost & Stablein, 1992). There are numerous types of correlation coefficient. Among these correlations, the Pearson correlation coefficient is suggested to be adequate for variables with interval data (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Hence, Pearson correlation coefficients have been used in this study. Table 6.13 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the summed scales used in the current study. Both scales are treated as distinct factors within the same model.

As shown Table 6.13, all the relationships reported are related in the expected direction. Perceived quality and quality of experience are significantly related to the other constructs, while its correlations with other variables are in the expected direction. This is consistent with the proposed model that perceived quality is directly related to satisfaction and behavioural intentions while quality of experience is directly related to perceived quality and satisfaction. Quality of experience is also related to authenticity, interpretations and education benefits

**Table 6.13: Correlations of proposed variables**

<b>Measure</b>	<b>PQ</b>	<b>QE</b>	<b>SAT</b>	<b>BE</b>	<b>AU</b>	<b>IN</b>	<b>BEN</b>
(1) Perceived Quality	1.00	.579*	.282*	.199*	.284*	.377*	.276*
(2) Quality of Experience	.579*	1.00	.214*	.093*	.215*	.282*	.144*
(3) Satisfaction	.282*	.214*	1.00	.348*	.224*	.347*	.327*
(4) Behavioural Intentions	.199*	.093*	.348*	1.00	.145*	.198*	.127*
(5) Authenticity	.284*	.215*	.224*	.145*	1.00	.353*	.264*
(6) Interpretations	.377*	.282*	.347*	.198*	.353*	1.00	.436*
(7) Educational Benefits	.276*	.144*	.327*	.127*	.264*	.436*	1.00

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). N=513.

Source: analysis of the survey data

### 6.5.5 Model Conceptualisation

**Table 6.14: Legend for labelling constructs/variables**

<b>Label</b>	<b>Construct/variable</b>
<b>PQ</b>	Perceived Quality
<b>SAT</b>	Satisfaction
<b>BE</b>	Behavioural Intentions
<b>QE</b>	Quality of Experience
<b>AU</b>	Authenticity
<b>IN</b>	Interpretations
<b>BEN</b>	Educational Benefits
<b>PQA</b>	Treatment received from the staff
<b>PQB</b>	The staff willing to look after visitors
<b>PQC</b>	Installations in cultural heritage attractions
<b>PQD</b>	Informative panels in cultural heritage attractions
<b>PQE</b>	Atmosphere in cultural heritage attractions
<b>PQF</b>	Educational experience and instructive experience in cultural heritage attractions
<b>PQG</b>	Cultural heritage resources excellent
<b>PQH</b>	Cultural heritage resources are authentic
<b>PQI</b>	Cultural heritage resources are presented through good interpretation
<b>QEA</b>	The overall quality experience towards visiting Macao's cultural heritage tourism
<b>SATA</b>	This is one of the best destinations I could have visited
<b>SATB</b>	I am pleased with my decision to visit the cultural heritage in Macao
<b>SATC</b>	I have really had a good time; I have had fun in Macao
<b>SATD</b>	Macao is a city of cultural heritage
<b>SATE</b>	Overall satisfaction
<b>BEA</b>	I will recommend someone to visit Macao
<b>BEB</b>	I will say positive things about the cultural heritage in Macao
<b>BEC</b>	If there were a shop, I would buy a souvenir./ I have already bought a souvenir
<b>BED</b>	I have bought a book or guide book for more information
<b>BEE</b>	I will visit Macao again because of cultural heritage
<b>BEF</b>	I will visit Macao again because of other attractions
<b>AUA</b>	Displays
<b>AUB</b>	Photographs
<b>AUC</b>	Historic restoration
<b>AUD</b>	Historic re-enactments
<b>AUE</b>	Architecture
<b>AUF</b>	Video
<b>AUG</b>	Interpretive signs
<b>INTA</b>	Expression of personal opinions (neither too passive nor aggressive)
<b>INTB</b>	Knowledge of the attractions is good
<b>INTC</b>	Honest and trustworthy
<b>INTD</b>	Inform safety regulations
<b>INTE</b>	Good presentation skills
<b>INTF</b>	Well trained
<b>INTG</b>	Respect visitors
<b>INTH</b>	Friendly
<b>INTI</b>	Always available for help

---

<b>INTJ</b>	Pay attention to visitors' needs
<b>INTK</b>	Sense of humour
<b>INTL</b>	Encouragements or agreements (encourages audience to interact)
<b>BENA</b>	Be close to the cultural heritage
<b>BENB</b>	Learn about the culture
<b>BENC</b>	Develop my knowledge of cultural heritage
<b>BEND</b>	Learn about history
<b>BENE</b>	Learn more traditions.
<b>BENF</b>	Experience the culture

---

#### 6.5.6 *Testing the measurement model fit*

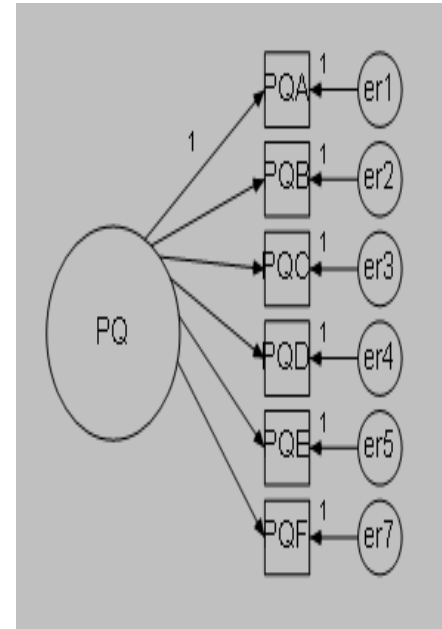
The first issue in evaluating a measurement model is unidimensionality. In this study, each of the latent variables was analysed in the form of congeneric models to determine their unidimensionality. These constructs were analysed individually and the justifications of the procedures as well as the cut-off values for the relevant test statistics were discussed in the previous section.

##### 1. Perceived quality

*Measurement model for perceived quality.* The first latent variable – perceived quality was measured by 9 indicator questions. This nine-indicator measurement model has 45 distinct sample moments to estimate 18 distinct parameters with 27 degree of freedom. Hence, this measurement model was identified. The structure of this measurement model is illustrated in Figure 6.5. The findings, summarised perceived quality model were greater than 0.50. It can be considered acceptable. The coefficient reliability was 0.918 (greater than 0.60) and Chi-square was 227.155 with p-value of 0.000 indicating that there was no significant difference between the model and the sample data. In other words, this finding suggests that the model fitted the sample data.

**Table 6.15: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of perceived quality and Figure 6.5: Measurement model of perceived quality (CFA)**

Reliability – Cronbach alpha			.918	
Standardised regression			<b>Estimate</b>	<b>p value</b>
PQA	←	PQ	1.000	0.000
PQB	←	PQ	.998	0.000
PQC	←	PQ	.983	0.000
PQD	←	PQ	.964	0.000
PQE	←	PQ	1.007	0.000
PQF	←	PQ	.999	0.000
PQG	←	PQ	.995	0.000
PQH	←	PQ	.992	0.000
PQI	←	PQ	.927	0.000
Chi-square			227.155	
Degree of freedom (df)			27	
p (chi-square)			.000	
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)			8.413	
Root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA)			.120	
Root mean square residual (RMR)			.020	
Comparative fit index (CFI)			.927	
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)			.910	
Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI)			.902	



Note: *p* value refers to unstandardised regression weight; AMOS 5.0 does not provide a value for estimated unstandardised regression weights equal to 1

## 2. Satisfaction

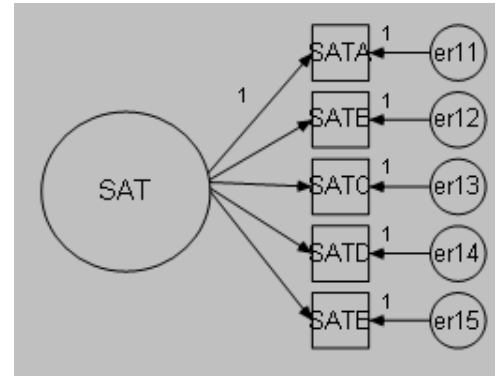
*Measurement model for satisfaction.* The second latent variable is satisfaction is measured by 5 indicator questions. There are 15 distinct sample moments to estimate 10 parameters with 5 degree of freedom. Therefore, this measurement model is identified. According to the findings, it reveals that all standardised regression weights for the satisfaction model are greater than 0.50. In other words, this finding suggests that the model fitted the sample data. In addition, the RMR was 0.021 (less than 0.05), indicating a good model fit. The GFI is .957 which indicates a perfect fit and provided additional support for the model. Thus, the results support that the indicators are reasonable measures of satisfaction and provide evidence of convergent validity.



**Table 6.16: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of satisfaction and**

**Figure 6.6: Measurement model of satisfaction (CFA)**

Reliability – Cronbach alpha	.807
Standardised regression weight	<b>Estimate</b> <b>p value</b>
SATA ← SAT	1.000   0.000
SATB ← SAT	1.185   0.000
SATC ← SAT	1.124   0.000
SATD ← SAT	.936   0.000
SATE ← SAT	1.098   0.000
Chi-square	53.587
Degree of freedom (df)	5
p (chi-square)	0.000
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)	10.717
Root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA)	.138
Root mean square residual (RMR)	.019
Comparative fit index (CFI)	.947
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	.957
Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI)	.894



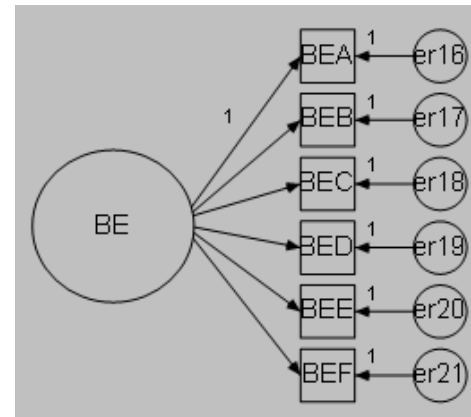
Note: *p* value refers to unstandardised regression weight; AMOS 5.0 does not provide a value for estimated unstandardised regression weights equal to 1

### 3. Behavioural intentions

*Measurement model for behavioural intentions.* The third latent variable is satisfaction is measured by 6 indicator questions. There are 21 distinct sample moments to estimate 12 parameters with 9 degree of freedom. Therefore, this measurement model is identified. According to the findings, it reveals that all standardised regression weights for the behavioural intentions model are greater than 0.50. In other words, this finding suggests that the model fitted the sample data. In addition, the RMR was 0.042 (less than 0.05), indicating a good model fit. The GFI is .897 which indicates a perfect fit and provided additional support for the model. Thus, the results support that the indicators are reasonable measures of behavioural intentions and provide evidence of convergent validity.

**Table 6.17: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of behavioural intentions and Figure 6.7: Measurement model of behavioural intentions (CFA)**

Reliability – Cronbach alpha			.893	
Standardised regression weight			<b>Estimate</b>	<b>p value</b>
BEA	←	BE	1.000	0.000
BEB	←	BE	.922	0.000
BEC	←	BE	.905	0.000
BED	←	BE	1.022	0.000
BEE	←	BE	.932	0.000
BEF	←	BE	.900	0.000
Chi-square			165.216	
Degree of freedom (df)			9	
p (chi-square)			.000	
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)			18.357	
Root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA)			.185	
Root mean square residual (RMR)			.042	
Comparative fit index (CFI)			.908	
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)			.897	
Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI)			.846	



Note: *p* value refers to unstandardised regression weight; AMOS 5.0 does not provide a value for estimated unstandardised regression weights equal to 1

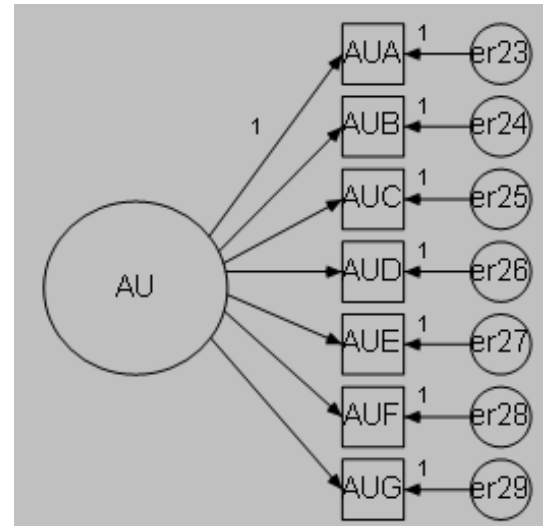
#### 4. Authenticity

*Measurement model for authenticity.* Authenticity was measured by 7 indicator questions. This seven-indicator measurement model has 28 distinct sample moments to estimate 14 distinct parameters with 14 degree of freedom. Hence, this measurement model was identified. The structure of this measurement model is illustrated in Figure 6.8. The findings, summarised in Table 6.18, reveal that most of the standardised regression weights for the authenticity model were greater than 0.50. It can be considered acceptable. The coefficient reliability was 0.908 (greater than 0.60) and Chi-square was 219.495 with *p*-value of 0.000 indicating that there was no significant difference between the model and the sample data. In other words, this finding suggests that the model fitted the sample data.

**Table 6.18: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of authenticity and**

**Figure 6.8: Measurement model of authenticity (CFA)**

Reliability – Cronbach alpha			.908	
Standardised regression weight			<b>Estimate</b>	<b>p value</b>
AUA	←	AU	1.000	0.000
AUB	←	AU	1.013	0.000
AUC	←	AU	1.049	0.000
AUD	←	AU	1.032	0.000
AUE	←	AU	1.124	0.000
AUF	←	AU	1.085	0.000
AUG	←	AU	0.969	0.000
Chi-square			219.495	
Degree of freedom (df)			14	
p (chi-square)			.000	
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)			15.678	
Root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA)			.169	
Root mean square residual (RMR)			.024	
Comparative fit index (CFI)			.904	
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)			.891	
Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI)			.856	



Note: *p* value refers to unstandardised regression weight; AMOS 5.0 does not provide a value for estimated unstandardised regression weights equal to 1

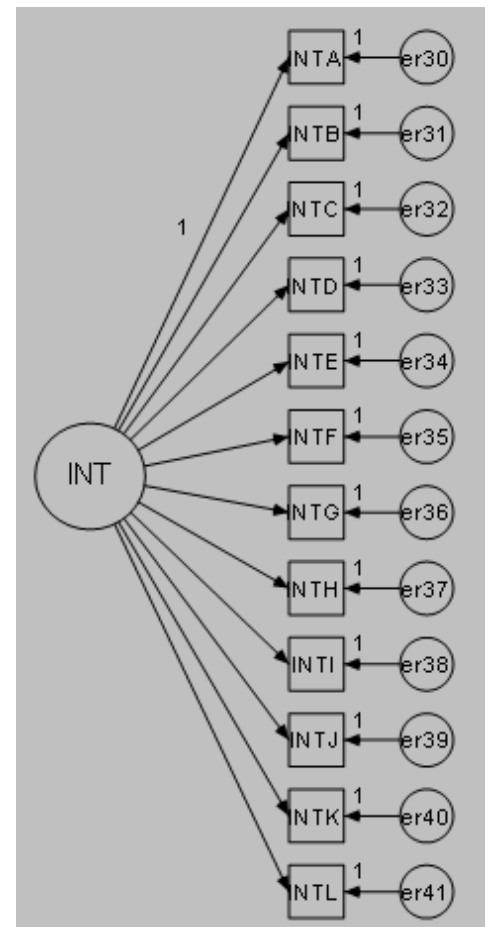
## 5. Interpretation

*Measurement model for interpretation.* The fifth latent variable – interpretation was measured by 12 indicator questions. This measurement model has 78 distinct sample moments to estimate 24 distinct parameters with 54 degree of freedom. Hence, this measurement model was identified. The structure of this measurement model is illustrated in Figure 6.9. The findings, summarised in Table 6.19, reveal that all standardised regression weights for the satisfaction model are greater than 0.50. In other words, this finding suggests that the model fitted the sample data. In addition, the RMR was 0.033 (less than 0.05), indicating a good model fit. The GFI is .849 which indicates a perfect fit and provided additional support for the model. Thus, the results support that the indicators are reasonable measures of satisfaction and provide evidence of convergent validity.

**Table 6.19: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of interpretations and**

**Figure 6.9: Measurement model of interpretations (CFA)**

Reliability – Cronbach alpha			.910	
Standardised regression weight			<b>Estimate</b>	<b>p value</b>
INTA	←	IN	1.000	.000
INTB	←	IN	1.038	.000
INTC	←	IN	1.086	.000
INTD	←	IN	1.044	.000
INTE	←	IN	1.298	.000
INTF	←	IN	1.278	.000
INTG	←	IN	1.373	.000
INTH	←	IN	1.223	.000
INTI	←	IN	1.225	.000
INTJ	←	IN	1.071	.000
INTK	←	IN	.970	.000
INTL	←	IN	1.176	.000
Chi-square			517.739	
Degree of freedom (df)			54	
p (chi-square)			.000	
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)			9.588	
Root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA)			.130	
Root mean square residual (RMR)			.033	
Comparative fit index (CFI)			.847	
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)			.849	
Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI)			.812	



Note: *p* value refers to unstandardised regression weight; AMOS 5.0 does not provide a value for estimated unstandardised regression weights equal to 1

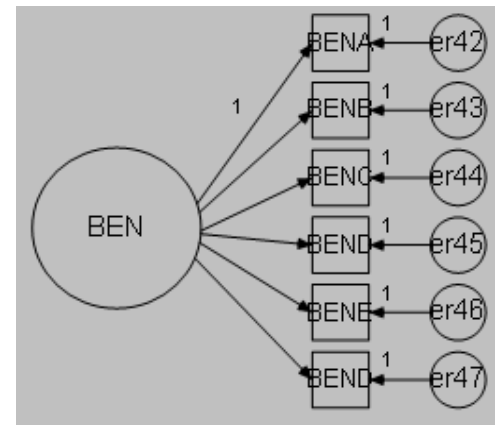
## 6. Educational Benefits

*Measurement model for educational benefits.* Education benefits were measured by 6 indicator questions. This measurement model has 21 distinct sample moments to estimate 12 distinct parameters with 9 degree of freedom. Hence, this measurement model was identified. The structure of this measurement model is illustrated in Figure 6.10. The findings, summarised in Table 6.20, reveal that all standardised regression weights for the satisfaction model are greater than 0.50. In other words, this finding suggests that the model fitted the sample data. In addition, the RMR was 0.034 (less than 0.05), indicating a good model fit. The GFI is .940 which indicates a perfect fit and provided additional support for the model. Thus, the results support that the indicators are reasonable measures of satisfaction and provide evidence of

convergent validity.

**Table 6.20: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of educational benefits and Figure 6.11: Measurement model of educational benefits (CFA)**

Reliability – Cronbach alpha		.872		
Standardised regression weight		<b>Estimate</b>		<b>p value</b>
BENA	←	BEN	1.000	.000
BENB	←	BEN	1.139	.000
BENC	←	BEN	1.006	.000
BEND	←	BEN	.953	.000
BENE	←	BEN	.827	.000
BENF	←	BEN	.916	.000
Chi-square		79.894		
Degree of freedom (df)		9		
p (chi-square)		.000		
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)		8.877		
Root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA)		.138		
Root mean square residual (RMR)		.034		
Comparative fit index (CFI)		.936		
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)		.940		
Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI)		.893		



Note: *p* value refers to unstandardised regression weight; AMOS 5.0 does not provide a value for estimated unstandardised regression weights equal to 1

### 6.5.7 Model identification

In SEM, it is important to address any potential identification problem prior to the estimation of parameters (Byrne, 2001; Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). If a model fails to meet the relevant identification requirements, attempts to estimate it may be unsuccessful (Kline, 2005). First, each potential parameter in the model has to be specified as either a free parameter, a fixed parameter or a constrained parameter (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). A free parameter is unknown and needs to be estimated, while a fixed parameter is fixed to a specified value. And, a constrained parameter is unknown, but is constrained to equal one or more other parameters. There are no fixed or constrained parameters in this study.

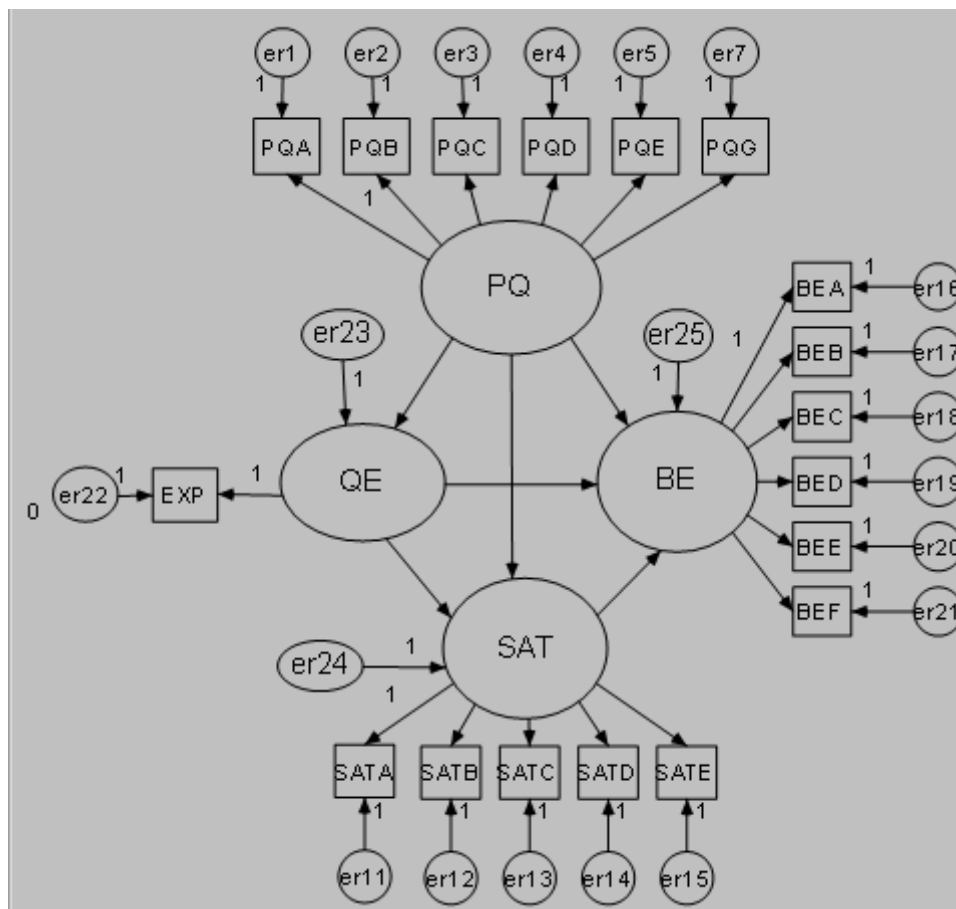
In turn, there are three levels of model identification (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). A model is underidentified (or not identified) if one or more parameters may not be

uniquely determined because there is not enough information in the covariance matrix. By contrast a model is just-identified or overidentified when all of the parameters can be uniquely determined or there is more than one way of estimating a parameter (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). In determining the level of identification, the number of free parameters to be estimated must be less than (overidentified) or equal to (just-identified) the number of distinct values in the variance - covariance matrix (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). For a workable analysis the model must be just-identified or over-identified.

Free parameters in a structural regression model include (1) variances and covariances of exogenous variables (measurement errors, disturbances, and exogenous factors) and (2) direct effects on endogenous variables (factor loadings of indicators, direct effects on endogenous factors from other factors) (Kline, 2005). The formula for the number of distinct values in the variance – covariance matrix is  $v(v+1)/2$ , where  $v$  is the number of observed variables (Kline, 2005). To calculate these, the researcher needed to assess them based on the measurement models of the hypothesised model and the suggested competing model (Model 2), as shown in Figure 6.12 and Figure 6.13.

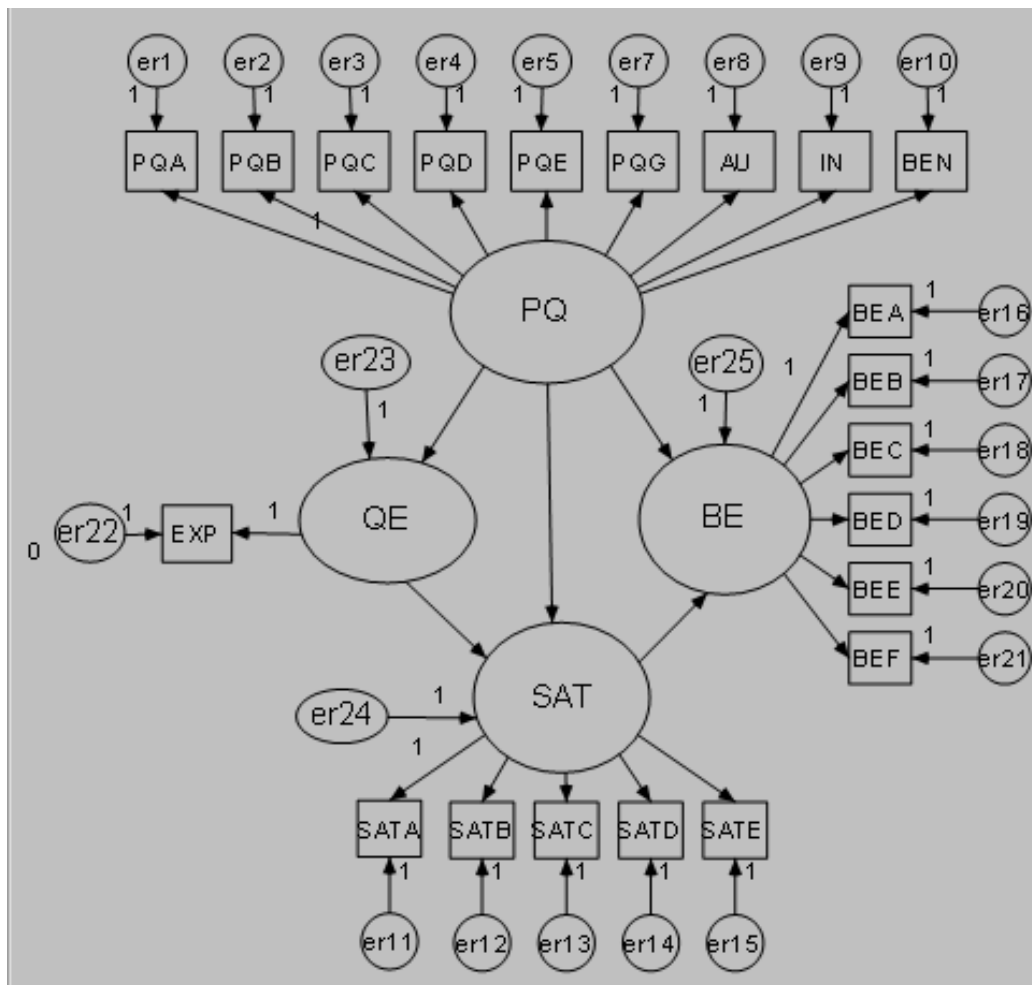
For the hypothesised model (Figure 6.12) , there are totally 46 free parameters including 22 variances and covariances of exogenous variables (1 perceived quality, 18 measurement errors and 3 disturbances) and 24 direct effects on endogenous variables (18 factor loadings and 6 paths). Then, with 18 observed variables, the number of distinct values in the variance – covariance matrix is  $18(18+1)/2 = 171$ . Hence, hypothesised model is over-identified as the number of free parameters (46) is less than 171. However, this model is not identified. According to Kline (2005), the model should be recursive. That means there are no reciprocal paths. However, the model is not identified in SEM program.

**Figure 6.11: Measurement model of the hypothesised model**



Next, the competing model (Model 2) is tested and shown in Figure 6.12, it removes the path between quality of experience and behavioural intentions and introduces three constructs including authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits which were developed from Study 1. There are totally 21 observed variables, which give  $21(21+1)/2=231$  observations in the variance-covariance matrix. On the other hand, there are totally 51 free parameters including 25 variances and covariances of exogenous variables (1 perceived quality, 21 measurement errors and 3 disturbances) and 26 direct effects on endogenous variables (21 factor loadings and 5 paths). Thus, the first competing model is also over-identified, because there are fewer parameters to estimate (51) than there are values in the variance-covariance matrix (231).

**Figure 6.13: Measurement model of the competing model (Model 2)**



The model fit statistics results are shown in Table 6.21. As shown in Table 6.21, the p-value for the chi-square test in hypothesised model demonstrated a value less than 0.05. That is, the results indicate that there might be significant difference between the hypothesised model and the data collected. However, the use of chi-square is limited by its sensitivity to the sample size (Anderson & Gerbing 1988; Hair et al. 1996; Kline 2005). Therefore, normed chi-square ( $\chi^2/df$ ) was used to reduce the sensitivity of the chi-square statistic to the sample size. This normed chi-square test statistic ratio ( $\chi^2/df$ ) is regarded as a measure of absolute fit and model parsimony/complexity in the SEM literature because it is unaffected by the sample size. According to the Table 6.21, the normed chi-square value in hypothesised model is 5.021 which reflect a need for improvement. Other indices such as RMSEA and CFI are not within the acceptable criteria, indicating the hypothesised model cannot be assessed as being



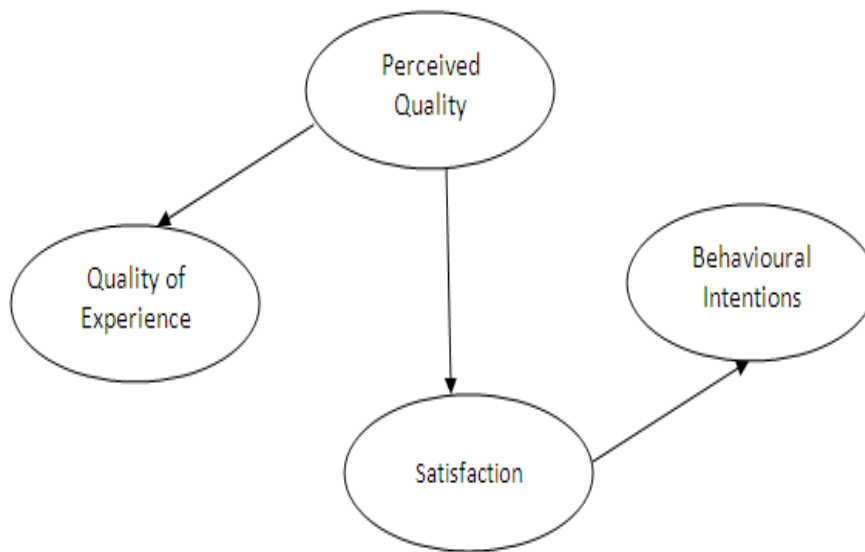
adequate. On the other hand, the normed chi-square value in Model 2 is 4.791 (less than 5.0) suggesting a good fit between Model 2 and the sample data. For RMR, the value is 0.038, which is less than 0.05 which is computed with unstandardised variables, indicate a reasonable fit. The GFI (.844) and TLI (.821) are greater than 0.80. Although other indices including RMSEA and CFI are not within the acceptable criteria, it suggests that Model 2 can be assessed as being adequate. Kinnunen, Feldt, Geurts and Pulkkinen (2006) mention that comparative fit index is between 0.85-0.89 which indicates mediocre fit. Pickett, Dostaler, Craig, Janssen, Simpson, Shelley and Boyce (2006) also mention that RMSEA values of 0.085 or less are considered an acceptable fit while values of 0.086 to 0.10 were considered marginal fits. Thus, RMSEA (0.86) and CFI (.850) in Model 2 indicate a reasonable fit and the result of Model 2 suggests a reasonable model fit.

**Table 6.21: Goodness-of-fit statistics for the CFA model of hypothesised model and competing model (Model 2)**

Model fit indices	Acceptable level	Hypothesised Model	Model 2
Chi-square		Identified 652.742	Identified 886.340
Degree of freedom (df)		130	185
p (chi-square)		.000	.000
Normed chi-square (CMIN/DF)	1.0 < $\chi^2/df$ < 5.0	5.021	4.791
Root mean square of error of approximation (RMSEA)	RMSEA < 0.08	.089	.086
Root mean square residual (RMR)	RMR < 0.05	.035	.038
Comparative fit index (CFI)	CFI > 0.90	.872	.850
Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	GFI > 0.80	.866	.844
Tucker Lewis fit index (TLI)	TLI > 0.80	.850	.821

According to the results above, the Model 2 provide a better model fit than the hypothesised model and the overall goodness of fit statistics in Model 2 is also acceptable. Furthermore, Model 2 is developed based on literature reviews and empirical study from interviews. It is integrated the constructs in hypothesised model. As a result, given this pattern of results of the hypothesised model and Model 2, it is decided to accept the Model 2. The final model is illustrated in Figure 6.13.

**Figure 6.13: Final model**



Estimating the model revealed that all five paths were statically significant, as shown in Table 6.22, the p-values of all five paths were less than 0.05. Therefore, all hypothesised path in the final model were supported.

**Table 6.22: Standardised estimates of the final model**

			Standardised regression weight	S.E.	C.R.	P value
H1	Perceived Quality	→ Behavioural Intentions	.080	.071	1.125	.260
H2	Perceived Quality	→ Satisfaction	.301	.058	.5192	.000
H3	Satisfaction	→ Behavioural Intentions	1.546	.201	7.677	.000
H4	Perceived Quality	→ Quality of Experience	.890	.064	13.839	.000
H6	Quality of Experience	→ Satisfaction	-.014	.032	5.192	.000

This chapter reported the results of the data analysis for the hypothesised model and suggested Model Two in this research study. Firstly, the data was coded and cleaned to ensure the accuracy of the inputted data. The issues of missing data, non response bias, normality and reliability of the data were addressed to make sure the data could cope with the estimation technique chosen – Maximum Likelihood (ML). Next, descriptive statistics and correlations were examined and most of the findings were in

the expected directions. That is, perceived quality is positively related to quality of experience and satisfaction lead to positive behavioural intentions. In turn, authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits are the measurement of perceived quality and also lead to higher quality of experience. Hence, the Model Three is developed and tested. A profile of the respondents was presented to provide evidence for the representativeness of the data.

Then, the measurement models for all latent variables are examined by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Some indicators are eliminated due to poor and/or insignificant standardised regression weights. Then, the hypothesised model and suggested Model Two are estimated. The results reveal that they are all over-identified and could be further examined. After the model identification, the hypothesised model and Model Two cannot be assessed as being adequate. The model fit indices suggested that the Model three had a better model fit than other two models. Lastly, all hypothesised paths in the final model are tested. All five paths in the final model are statistically significant. These results are discussed and their implications are considered in next chapter.

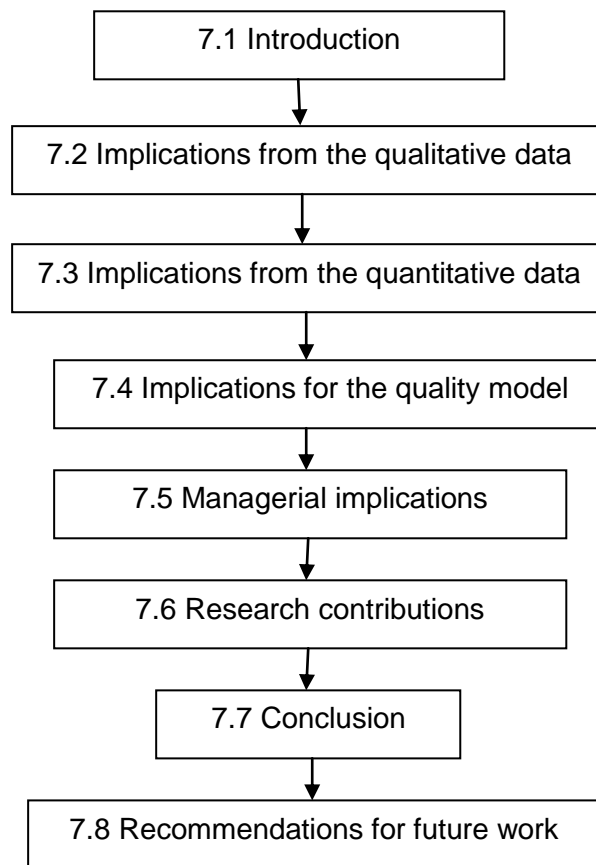
## **CHAPTER 7**

### **IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

#### **7.1 Introduction**

This research began with the aim of analysing the stakeholder involvement in cultural heritage tourism, followed by the formation of structural equation modelling (SEM) of quality in cultural heritage tourism. The analysis is based on combining two methodological approaches: qualitative and quantitative. The results presented in the preceding chapters indicate that the final model fits well and outperforms the hypothesised model. They also support the direct effects that perceived quality and satisfaction have on behavioural intentions, and the indirect effects of the quality of experience. The results were supported by and built on the extant literature on cultural heritage tourism. Figure 7.1, giving the outline of the chapter, shows the implications discussed below. First, it shows the implications from the qualitative data in Section 7.2; second, the implications from the quantitative data in Section 7.3; third, the implications for the quality model in Section 7.4; and finally, the managerial implications in Section 7.5, followed by the research contribution in Section 7.6, a conclusion in Section 7.7 and recommendations for future work in Section 7.8.

**Figure 7.1: Outline of Chapter 7**



## **7.2 Implications from the qualitative data**

The findings from the interviews show that the roles of both public and private stakeholders in cultural heritage tourism development are interrelated and have significant cohort effects on the quality of that tourism. The data imply the importance of the stance and attitude of the stakeholders. All the stakeholders show positive attitudes towards the development of such tourism in which the progress of the planning can be assured. However, both public and private sectors consider themselves as auxiliaries assisting the other sector. In fact, based on the interviews, the public sector is supportive towards the development of cultural heritage tourism but difficulties exist in many government departments and public authorities involved in implementation. Thus, the public sector urges the private sector to contribute more to planning because the private sector has more flexibility to implement the goals easily. On the other hand, the private sector expects the government to formulate more policies and strategies to regulate the cultural heritage tourism and provide

greater assistance to ensure sustainable development. It is necessary to set the goals from the public sector. Obviously, there is a discrepancy between the public and the private sector in cultural heritage tourism development. In fact, the private sector is more profit-driven while the public sector is relatively conservative regarding the use of public funding. A balance of the involvement of the two sectors in tourism development is vital. Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert and Wanhill (1993) mention that the development of tourism will not be optimal if it is dominated by either sector. On the other hand, collaboration can represent a latent understanding among sectors with little formal specification of objectives or relationships. The contribution from both should be balanced and should coordinate their interests well. Transparency can ensure the progress development and emphasise the long-term benefits among the sectors (Palmer & Bejou, 1995). Furthermore, du Cros (2009) points out that different stakeholders have different views of cultural heritage resources, which can heighten and extend the tensions between them. It is necessary to overcome such tensions by using appropriate management strategies. More frequent communication may be one effective way to facilitate better understanding among the different stakeholder groups.

In order to develop quality cultural heritage tourism, it is necessary to be aware not only of the opinions of tourists but also of the opinions of local residents. Carmichael, Peppard and Boudreau (1996) state in their study that local residents' attitudes are important in tourism development because they are rarely expressed in the political and development decision-making process. Therefore, several studies highlight the importance of local residents' perceptions of development in the destinations (Lee & Back, 2005). Tourism developers and community leaders should pay a great deal of attention to residents' attitudes and perceptions because changes in them strongly influence the policy decision-making process (Eadington, 1996) over various tourism development stages. In turn, tourism may affect residents' quality of life (Roehl, 1999). If local residents' attitudes are positive towards the tourism development, including cultural heritage tourism, they are likely to support further tourism development and view tourists favourably. Furthermore, with the substantial economic contribution of the tourism industry through tax revenues and job creation, many destinations only optimise the economic benefits and pay little attention to the social and environmental

costs associated with tourism expansion. Applying this concept to cultural heritage tourism, much emphasis in the tourism and hospitality literature is given to the significance of cultural heritage tourism in terms of its job creation and economic generation (Edwards & Llurdes, 1996). It contributes to the tourism development. However, Wall (2009) mentions that cultural heritage tourism is a highly competitive business and it is important to recognize the competitiveness of cultural heritage tourism. The competitiveness of cultural heritage tourism in the destination depends on quality itself. This implies that quality is identified in relation to its development. Most of the stakeholders agree that the significance of the management is through quality because cultural heritage attractions survive through their quality. Also, it ensures the sustainable development of cultural heritage tourism. Hence, the policymakers for cultural heritage destinations should not only be aware of the economic contributions but also of the social consequences. Cultural heritage resources' activities have public good attributes that contribute to the society's well-being. Cultural heritage tourism is only related to the economic impacts along with social and environmental impacts (Choi, Ritchie, Papandrea & Bennett, 2010). Hence, successful cultural heritage tourism development can be achieved more readily through the understanding of tourists and local people in terms of economic, social and environment impacts. Then, it can guarantee the sustainable development of cultural heritage tourism.

The nature of cultural heritage tourism is complex because it can mean different things to different people. Many tourists consider that cultural heritage tourism means travelling to experience cultural differences (McKercher & du Cros, 2003). As such, some tourists consider that travelling to experience different cultures equates to cultural tourism. Experience in the tourism industry is purchased or obtained from the interaction between travellers and destinations (Chen & Chen, 2010). However, the qualitative data show that perceived quality is affected by authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits and quality of experience is affected by perceived quality. Chen and Chen (2010) also mention that quality of experience refers to the psychological outcome resulting from visitor participation in cultural heritage tourism activities. Therefore, quality of experience may arise from authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits through perceived quality. In fact, the authenticity of the

cultural heritage attractions is a complex question. With increased education and the tendency to stay longer, cultural heritage visitors are becoming more aware of what should and can be done at cultural heritage attractions to achieve authenticity (Vaske et al., 1980). MacCannell (2002) also addresses the issue of authenticity and highlights the importance of authenticity in tourism experiences. Macao has unique attractions with international appeal that attract visitors. It is crucial to continue to enhance the authenticity of such attractions.

Apart from authenticity, the stakeholders consider that Macao should focus on the spirit of cultural heritage by using education. The educational elements of cultural heritage attractions not only attract visitors, but also deliver the right messages about the importance of cultural heritage conservation to local residents. Most stakeholders agree that it is necessary for the local residents to be involved in this education process as they are constantly interacting with the visitors and play an important role in determining the overall visitor experience. To date research on cultural heritage attractions has also focused on the educational value of such cultural heritage attractions and sites (Choi, Ritchie, Papandrea & Bennett, 2010). Based on this issue, cultural heritage tourism has public good attributes that contribute to the society's well-being and educational impacts. Cultural heritage tourism is an important and most powerful tool to promote national integration and bring people from different parts of the world close together. The advantages of cultural heritage tourism are remarkable because it is accompanied by educational benefits. Travelling to cultural heritage destinations is considered an educational experience because cultural heritage tourism can provide knowledge to the visitors and the educational experience can be partnered with the attractions (The National Trust, 1999). Visitors can enjoy themselves and learn a great deal while visiting cultural heritage attractions. Local residents can understand their own culture and history, and then they will be proud of their place. They can learn many more things when they actually come into contact with or see such things or sites associated with their own culture. It enhances understanding and educates local residents about various cultural heritage resources. The tourism practitioners in cultural heritage tourism should take account of the authenticity and educational benefits, which can enhance the appreciation of the cultural heritage characteristics of the destinations. They give a 'sense of place' and



enhance the quality of life of the local community. Cultural heritage tourism should involve educational elements and people can learn from the attractions and activities to ensure both visitors and local people benefit. Since Asia is one of the world's fastest-growing tourism regions, it is timely to extend the knowledge about Macao as a destination and connect tourism with other destinations.

Simultaneously, visitors should be informed about appropriate behaviours and educated about how to protect the attractions through interpretations. In fact, the attitudes and concepts of the visitors affect the complexity and presentation style of the interpretations (Pearce, 1984). Interpretation is firmly established as a central component of modern cultural heritage tourism (Light, 1995; Prentice et al., 1998) and the destinations can use various interpretative techniques to encourage learning and enhance visitors' knowledge. Furthermore, Martin et al. (2004) state that as cultural heritage visitors are more influenced than other visitors by information on cultural and historical attractions, marketers should develop strategies to provide information to these visitors in obvious, convenient locations. They concentrate on the importance of visitor enjoyment, on exciting curiosity and on contributing to conservation (Moscardo, 1999). Importantly, cultural heritage visitors should have the experience of consumption when they visit the destinations. Lopez (1980, 1981) confirms the importance of the guide's personality by showing how a poor guide can ruin an entire experience for visitors. The interpreters need to know their visitors and design suitable interpretation accordingly (Stevens, 1989). This implies that the visitor experience is acknowledged and affected by the interpreters and interpretative techniques at the sites. Interpretation providers at the destination have to be perceived as capable, professional and friendly. It is important to have comprehensive information about how tourists perceive a destination in terms of cultural heritage attractions, resources and even the role in cultural heritage tourism that these components play in relation to the quality of cultural heritage tourism. Thus, the quality of interpretations together with authenticity and educational benefits in cultural heritage tourism are crucial and represent the top priority concern in Macao. Cultural heritage tourism gives visitors the opportunity to experience authentic resources and appreciate their characteristics through educational interpretations of a destination.

### 7.3 Implications from the quantitative data

The quantitative data are collected from the questionnaire survey developed from Study 2 in order to test the model developed from Study 1 to try to provide a clearer picture of the quality issues related to cultural heritage tourism. Based on the descriptive analysis from the demographic profile and attributes from the constructs, some implications are shown from the data. Many people perceive that cultural heritage visitors are older; however, recent studies (Yan, So, Morrison & Sun, 2008) suggest that visiting cultural heritage sites is not only a priority for older people but is also popular among younger international visitors aged between 20 and 39 years. The results show that the visitors involved in cultural heritage tourism are relatively old since most of the respondents are above 30 years old (31 to 40 – 28.4%; 40 to 50 – 19.7%; >50 – 11.5%); in particular, 31.2% of the respondents are above 40 years old. However, 30.9% of the respondents are from 21 to 30 years old, which implies that the young generations may be interested in cultural heritage attractions. It also indicates the potential market for further development in cultural heritage tourism. It is necessary to reach this potential market. Therefore, the management should know the related reasons for travelling and the purpose of the trips with respect to managing cultural heritage attractions. Yan et al. (2008) also mention that many studies show that cultural heritage visitors are well educated. Those studies show the link between educational levels and cultural heritage needs. Most of the respondents involved in cultural heritage attractions and activities have a high educational level, with 65.7% having at least a bachelor degree or above, and those are mainly white-collar workers (26.6%) and professionals (20.8%). The quantitative data also indicate that 22.2% of the respondents' primary purpose of the visit is cultural heritage while 89.0% in this group have a bachelor degree or above. The data show that the results are consistent with the literature. Also, the respondents tend to believe that Macao is considered as a cultural heritage destination, with a mean of 3.41. In the case of Macao, it is impossible to attract gamblers out of the casinos to enjoy the cultural heritage attractions. Therefore, if gamblers or non-gamblers tend to agree with Macao being a cultural heritage destination, it implies the potential elements for Macao to develop as an international cultural heritage destination.

On the other hand, Fallon and Schofield (2004) state in their study that as customers become more familiar with a product/service, their propensity to continue to use it increases. In fact, it has been widely acknowledged that experience is related to a tourist's overall satisfaction and future behavioural intentions (Xu & Chan, 2010). The results from the quantitative analysis are similar to the findings of previous studies. The results also show that the item 'I will recommend someone to visit Macao' in the construct of behavioural intentions is outstanding with the highest mean of 3.69, followed by the item 'I will say positive things about the cultural heritage in Macao' with a mean of 3.53. Since the travellers actively acquire information from personal sources such as friends or relatives, advice from those people is generally the most frequently acquired and influential source of information for travellers (Xu, Morgan & Song, 2009). Even though the data indicate that the travellers may not come back to Macao or stay longer in Macao, at least they can recommend Macao to others, and in turn attract them to come to Macao or stay longer. For this reason, if people with positive perceptions of the quality of the destinations do not revisit the places, the likelihood of recommending can be enhanced to influence their friends and relatives.

Furthermore, souvenir consumption is addressed in the study. The item 'If there were a shop, I would buy a souvenir/I have already bought a souvenir' (3.48) should be considered. It is the third highest mean in the construct of behavioural intentions. It shows that souvenir consumption can be considered as one of the attributes in investigating the behaviour intentions apart from the intention to revisit or recommend the destinations. Souvenirs are the tangible products that satisfy the intangible images of experience remembered by the tourists (Littrell et al., 1994). Although souvenir products are often associated with the tourism industry and souvenir consumption can remind the purchaser of the experience (Swanson, 2004), tourists have various reasons for purchasing souvenir products. Souvenir products can be considered as small, decorative objects treasured for their novelty or curiosity value. They can complete the experience and offer uniqueness to the destinations (Swanson, 2004). A tourist purchases a souvenir because he/she may desire to take home a remembrance of the experience (Swanson & Horridge, 2006). Moscardo (2004) mentions that souvenir consumption meets social or cultural obligations and is

a way of experiencing local culture. Hence, it is not only related to tourist spending, but also to the interaction between the host community and tourists. Experience in the tourism industry is purchased or obtained from the interaction between visitors and destinations in souvenir consumption. On the other hand, souvenir products can make a tourist's special travel experience tangible (Swanson, 2004). Hitchcock (2000) mentions that items purchased from the destinations are not just simple mementos of time and place; they are also meaningful. Thus, there is a relationship between souvenir consumption and visitor experience. In turn, souvenir consumption can influence the tourism development in a destination. It can contribute economic impacts to local people in the destinations and can also have sociocultural impacts on local people or local communities in the development of the tourism industry. This topic can be considered as an issue for further investigation.

#### **7.4 Implications for the quality model**

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a statistical methodology combining the strengths of factor analysis and path analysis. The model is constructed by a measurement model and a structural model (Nusiar & Hua, 2009). The measurement model identifies relationships between observed and latent variables based on confirmatory factor analysis. SEM identifies causal relationships among the latent variables by specifying that particular latent variables directly and indirectly influence certain other latent variables in the model (Byrne, 2001). In this research, the author developed the hypothesised model through literature reviews. Six path hypotheses were developed regarding the relationships among quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions (Chapter 2). By contextually applying grounded theory and comparing with the literature, the author developed Model 2. In accordance with the previous findings from grounded theory, the other three path hypotheses among authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits were developed as well. Thus, a total of nine hypotheses are tested in this research. The details are as follows:

## Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism is strongly and positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism has a strong effect on satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: Satisfaction with cultural heritage tourism is positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations.

Hypothesis 4: The quality of the visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism is strongly and positively associated with perceived quality.

Hypothesis 5: The quality of the visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism is positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations.

Hypothesis 6: The quality of the visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism has a strong effect on satisfaction.

Since structural equation modelling (SEM) is a powerful statistical technique that establishes measurement models and structural models, it can advance cultural heritage tourism research both statistically and conceptually. Then, through the application of SEM between the hypothesised model and Model 2, the author can evaluate which model is the 'best-fit' model for the quality of cultural heritage tourism. The results from SEM supported hypotheses H2, *Perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism has a strong effect on satisfaction*, H3, *Satisfaction with cultural heritage tourism is positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations* and H4, *The quality of the visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism is strongly and positively associated with perceived quality*. However, H1, *Perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism is strongly and positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations*, H5, *The quality of the visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism is positively associated with behavioural intentions to return to the same destination and to visit other similar destinations* and

H6, *The quality of the visitor experience in cultural heritage tourism has a strong effect on satisfaction* were not supported by SEM analysis.

The current research used literature reviews, grounded theory and structural equation modelling to examine the relationships among the quality constructs in the cultural heritage tourism context. The results presented in the preceding chapters indicate that the research model fits well and outperforms the hypothesised model. The results can support and build on the extant literature on cultural heritage tourism. The first implication of this research is the confirmation of the quality model because of its high validity. This model combines both perceived quality and quality of experience and illustrates that visitors' experience is affected by their perceived quality, which is affected by the outcome quality, physical quality, interaction quality, authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits. Visitors evaluate their satisfaction levels based on the perceived quality of cultural heritage tourism and subsequent behaviours. Comparing the two pathways (perceived quality → quality of experience and perceived quality → satisfaction), the author affirms the effect of perceived quality on quality of experience and satisfaction. However, the author has analysed the intensification of use by measuring the purchase of related products or materials and the results show that intensification does appear to be a behaviour correlated with visitor satisfaction. This is consistent with a previous study (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Secondly, the findings show that perceived quality has a positive effect on satisfaction. Perceived quality is supported as a direct determinant of satisfaction while interpretations, authenticity and educational benefits are determinants of perceived quality. Furthermore, satisfaction has significant direct positive effects on behavioural intentions. It implies that perceived quality has a significant indirect effect on behavioural intentions mediated by satisfaction. The results imply that positive perceived quality reinforces the effects of quality of experience and the process of satisfaction. It seems that quality of experience and perceived quality are interrelated. Perceived quality can strengthen quality of experience towards satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The findings provide a better understanding of the quality constructs in cultural heritage tourism. Since the visitor experience is a key concept in cultural heritage marketing and satisfaction is determined by the experience obtained, experience from cultural heritage tourism can come from leisure, culture, education

and social interaction (de Rojas & Camarero, 2008). Enhancing the visitors' perceived quality leads to their quality of experience and satisfaction being vital to management strategies. In order to provide quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism, the practitioners should endeavour to understand the visitors' needs with respect to the attributes of perceived quality. Thus, the relationships among the constructs in the quality model are developed. It is an alternative model of quality for future research. Although Obenour, Patterson, Pedersen and Pearson (2006) comment that using surveys for data collection ultimately creates a fragmented characterisation of experience, the tourists' richly contextual narrative voice is difficult to obtain in concise survey language and its quest for generalisability is based on the group average (Terwee, 1990). In fact, the study verifies the theme of the interaction between experience, perceived quality satisfaction and behavioural intentions that was previously reported by researchers. The radical strategies are relevant to maintaining the quality of cultural heritage tourism. On the other hand, the attributes are identified and associated with each construct in the final model. Those attributes can also be considered as quality characteristics in cultural heritage tourism. In fact, researchers consider that perceived value can be identified as a key determinant of repurchase intention and consumer loyalty in the tourism industry (Petrick & Backman, 2002) and this important construct can be applied in cultural heritage destination management to measure quality, in terms of perceived quality affecting the satisfaction and quality of experience. The attributes are derived from Studies 1 and 2. The attributes can provide useful information for incremental changes to improve quality and also to quantify the exact level of quality in cultural heritage tourism. Differentiated approaches are used in this research in order to distinguish the quality constructs between stakeholders and visitors.

According to Morse (2003), a quantitative study moves the research along by confirming the earlier qualitative findings. If the quantitative findings are not confirmed, then the research must consider the reasons why. Although the hypothesised model and Model 2 are identified, the correlations of some of the paths are not significant. The paths between quality of experience and behavioural intention, quality of experience and satisfaction, and perceived quality and behavioural intentions are not significant. Compared with the final model, it is logical to accept these patterns. The

reason may be associated with the path between quality of experience and behavioural intentions. This path is not identified. The area between quality of experience and behavioural intentions overlaps with the area between perceived quality and behavioural intentions, and quality of experience and satisfaction. Thus, it may affect the paths between perceived quality and behavioural intentions and quality of experience and satisfaction not being correlated. The reflections are also shown in the model fit of the hypothesised model and Model 2. Conversely, although the pattern correlations in the final model are not the same as in the hypothesised model in the literature reviewed and Model 2 in grounded theory, it does not mean that the model is incorrect. As Kelloway (1998) mentions, finding the expected pattern of correlations in a model would not imply that the theory is right, only that it is plausible. There might be other theories that would result in the same pattern of correlations. It should be noted that finding the expected pattern of correlations is a necessary but not sufficient condition for the validity of the theory. Therefore, the final model is still considered in this research.

From a theoretical standpoint, this model is created to examine the usefulness of quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. The final model reveals that the data are an excellent fit. The constructs are identified and the final model is formed, which emphasises the importance of perceived quality and quality of experience in the quality model mix. It is also found that the constructs of perceived quality and satisfaction are better predictors of behavioural intentions. From the attributes in the behavioural intentions, they also imply that that the current measures of perceived quality and satisfaction are related to intentions to repurchase the trips to cultural heritage destinations. Incidentally, the final model suggests that authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits can act as factors in the perceived quality of cultural heritage tourism, playing an important role in visitors' quality of experience and satisfaction. Authenticity, interpretations and behavioural intentions are identified in grounded theory as the factors of perceived quality; they are also applicable in SEM analysis. The reason is that travellers consider that the quality of cultural heritage destinations should have certain levels of these three constructs. It means that when a traveller travels to a destination to seek quality in cultural heritage tourism, he/she believes that there are authentic cultural heritage



resources with proper interpretations, as well as educational benefits. Also, authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits are the basic components of cultural heritage tourism. If a destination is without these three constructs, cultural heritage tourism cannot be developed. The reason is that the National Trust's (1999) definition of cultural heritage tourism is 'travelling to experience the places and activities that authentically represent the stories and people of the past and present.' It is quite logical to understand that it is crucial to associate authenticity, interpretations and educational benefits with perceived quality in cultural heritage tourism and then influence the quality of experience.

The final model is a pioneer in applying both quality of experience and perceived quality concepts in the cultural heritage tourism context. Compared with previous studies, this research delineates the four constructs, including perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions, which are mentioned in tourism studies. However, an unexpected correlation in the final model is the relationship between authenticity, interpretations, educational benefits and perceived quality. It also highlights the differences in the concepts and attributes in the constructs in the previous tourism studies. This correlation can be concluded since the cultural heritage organisations have been increasingly emphasising the participation of the public in their policies and programmes. In fact, this finding fits the previous literature that cultural heritage tourism lets visitors enjoy a more educational experience through authenticity and interpretations (du Cros, 2009). One of the strategies in cultural heritage development is to provide a variety of learning experiences (Gilmore & Rentschler, 2002). Therefore, it is easier to understand these three constructs to influence the perceived quality and quality of experience and de Rojas and Camarero (2008) suggest that the best way to present cultural heritage products includes location and internal distribution, walkways, lighting and also informative panels. These can facilitate the visitors to understand, feel and relive the cultural heritage resources. Importantly, they can enhance these three elements. The author believes that by enhancing the three constructs, the perceived quality and quality of experience can be assured and this will lead to their positive perceived quality and satisfaction. Ultimately, it contributes to positive behavioural intentions. Furthermore, the determinants of quality are identified, which indicate that the visitors'

quality perceptions are related to behavioural intentions and this builds up the relationships among quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions.

## **7.5 Managerial implications**

The findings in this research can also be useful to the tourism planners and practitioners of cultural heritage tourism in formulating strategies to maintain or enhance their competitiveness. The managerial implications are that tourism providers have to blend the significance of the cultural heritage attractions into the construction of a competitive tourism strategy. The strategy should integrate the quality and significance of the attractions in generating a fulfilling visitor experience. Also, the research suggests the importance of quality of experience as a basis of satisfaction. It seems that appropriate strategies adopted by tourism providers are essential at the time of planning and developing the destinations. The presentation related to interpretations and educational benefits of cultural heritage resources contributes to stimulating interest and creating a positive experience for the visitor. It can also allow visitors to understand the cultural heritage resources. According to de Rojas and Camarero (2008), adequate interpretations can increase visitors' involvement and stimulate them to spend more time in the destinations. Furthermore, they can encourage visitors to revisit and even help in the conservation of the cultural heritage resources. Since interpretations, authenticity and educational benefits are the determinants of quality of experience, tourism providers should consider various strategies to create positive experiences for visitors based on the former constructs. The author hopes that the current research can provide a direction for future policymaking for cultural heritage resources in destinations. Thus, tourism providers should pay attention to developing differentiated products by improving the quality of attractions and resources. In addition, the interpretations and educational benefits not only provide visitors with knowledge but also enhance visitors' awareness of the destinations. Visitors can still be placed at the focal point of future development and planning (Apostolakis & Jaffry, 2005). From the quality model, policymakers can understand the needs of visitors and the weaknesses of quality in cultural heritage tourism. The information provides grounds for the destinations that focus on a customer-oriented approach in cultural heritage tourism development.

The stakeholders point out that planning proposals are submitted to local government authorities on cultural heritage tourism in Macao regardless of residents' concerns. As suggested by Murphy (1985), residents' participation in the planning and development process is an essential part of tourism development. It is also a fundamental necessity for the sustainability of the development. Weaver and Lawton (2001) suggest that residents are not likely to be more supportive of alternative forms of tourism development. Akis, Peristianis and Warner (1996) recognise that growth in alternative tourism must be accompanied by the recognition of the need for tourism planners to take into account the aspirations of the local residents. Duffield and Long (1981) consider that tourism development should be through local initiatives and consistent with local values. Indeed, it is necessary to ensure a balanced standpoint of sustainability. Choi and Sirakaya (2005) also agree about the importance of residents' concerns. Residents should be the focal point of the development in order to sustain any form of tourism development. However, the residents, particularly in developing countries, are always excluded from the decision making and management of projects (Teye, Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Nash (2006) assumes that the residents' participation is achievable in tourism development. Sirakaya, Teye and Sonmez (2002) also note that studying attitudes in various communities around the world can further increase the explanatory power of behavioural models. Therefore, the findings provide useful information and also assist planning in a destination. Healey (1998) states that incorporating stakeholder views into tourism planning can 'add value' by drawing on the knowledge and insights of stakeholders. The author investigated the situation of cultural heritage tourism from stakeholders' perspectives in order to deliver the attributes of cultural heritage tourism and the interviews enabled the stakeholders to reflect on their notions of cultural heritage tourism. The findings are effective in proposing radical changes to improve cultural heritage tourism development in Macao, which aims to become a preferred cultural heritage tourism destination in the region. The findings also help to identify the priorities and refine the planned strategy. Importantly, the findings point out the necessity for better collaboration among the stakeholders in cultural heritage tourism. It is crucial to create understanding between stakeholders and cultural heritage tourism-related components.

## 7.6 Research contributions

This research presents the first detailed academic inquiry into quality issues and focuses on cultural heritage tourism in Macao. The previous literature shows that perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions are vital for successful destination management marketing. This research explores the complex relationships between these constructs and also the quality of experience. It helps the author reconceptualise and evaluate the relationships between quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in the destinations. It illustrates different perspectives of quality constructs and attributes in the process of cultural heritage tourism. It does not suggest that the recent models including SERVQUAL and HISTROQUAL are not an applicable measurement. However, in the case of Macao, the model driven by the research may be more applicable to understanding the quality issues as well as cultural heritage tourism. The research contributes to enriching the knowledge of quality and cultural heritage tourism in the research area. Based on the implications from the data analysis, it shows the relationships among perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in cultural heritage tourism. Furthermore, this research develops different measurement scales for these constructs. It provides different views from the scales established in the literature. Thus, this research recognises the constructs and attributes that make sense in explaining quality in cultural heritage tourism.

Also, the research contributes to the existing literature on quality and cultural heritage tourism by testing a structural model that includes formative and reflective constructs. A conceptual model is developed based on the literature review and empirical studies. The timing of the research captures the exact entry time of cultural heritage tourism in Macao. To the best of the author's knowledge, it is perhaps the first research study that did not settle for already-available data but instead collected primary data for investigation. It contributes to the existing literature. It confirms that the direct link between perceived quality and satisfaction is supported in the current research. Based on the literature, there has been ample evidence that perceptions of service quality and satisfaction are related. Since service quality is one of the elements of the quality of cultural heritage tourism, the literature on service quality may be applicable

in the cultural heritage tourism context. Furthermore, the indirect link from perceived quality through satisfaction to behavioural intentions is found to be significant. This is consistently supported by the literature. Thus, this research enables other researchers to scrutinise the quality constructs in cultural heritage tourism. It is hoped that the findings will further enrich the existing knowledge, and will also be of use to Macao's policymakers in formulating strategies for the development of cultural heritage tourism. It is believed to be able to provide another perspective and understanding of the quality issues in cultural heritage tourism. This model can be used for larger-scale exploration and experimentation. It readily lends itself to further refinement and empirical testing in other destinations.

Besides, this research contributes to the methodology. This research uses a mixed methods approach including grounded theory and structural equation modelling. Grounded theory is more concerned with theory generation while structural equation modelling is more directed at theory verification. Neither qualitative nor quantitative methods alone are sufficient to develop a complete analysis; therefore, mixed methods need to be used in this research in combination and they can complement each other. It can also help the researchers meet the criteria for evaluating the quality of their answers better than single approach designs do. It suggests that these approaches are effective and efficient. Hence, the mixed methods in this research allow the author to explore in greater depth the processes of qualitative methods and confirm the hypotheses of quantitative methods in the same research. Importantly, the research produces satisfactory results and shows methodological enrichment. Importantly, it opens a pathway for cultural heritage tourism practitioners to develop measurement instruments with a higher applied value.

## **7.7 Conclusions**

With increasing competition in attracting travellers to cultural heritage destinations, it is becoming more important for tourism providers to identify quality attributes that attract visitors to their destinations and retain them. Recent models including SERVQUAL and HISTROQUAL have shown promise as measurement tools for understanding quality issues but have not been used for all types of cultural heritage products. These models are not considered in this research. Furthermore, little is

known about the relationships between perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in cultural heritage tourism. The theoretical development of quality in cultural heritage tourism is in need of further research and understanding. The research has used qualitative and quantitative methods to identify and examine the attributes and constructs in quality cultural heritage tourism. Using grounded theory in the qualitative study, it develops a model with quality constructs including quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. It indicates that quality of experience is the core construct in quality cultural heritage tourism. It also suggests that perceived quality and satisfaction are the important determinants of behavioural intentions. An expected finding concerned the antecedents of quality of experience and the empirical results from the grounded theory presented in the study show that interpretations, authenticity and the educational benefits of cultural heritage attractions can affect the quality of experience, which affects the perceived quality and satisfaction indirectly. Thus, the quality of experience seems to place greater importance on the quality of cultural heritage tourism. Then, the research is followed by the testing of a structural model of the relationships between perceived quality, quality of experience, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. Using SEM in a quantitative study, it tests the validity, reliability and potential of the quality models developed from the literature reviews and grounded theory. The findings provide further evidence that quality of experience is an important construct for the development of cultural heritage tourism. This indicates the importance of quality of experience as a strategic objective and emphasises the core construct in cultural heritage tourism. The study also examines whether there is a relationship between quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions in cultural heritage tourism. The findings show that quality of experience leads to perceived quality and satisfaction. In addition, it suggests that perceived quality and satisfaction are important determinants of behavioural intentions. An unexpected finding concerned the antecedents of quality of experience and the empirical results from the structural modelling presented in the study shows that only the educational benefits of cultural heritage tourism can affect the quality of experience, which affects the quality perception of visitors and their satisfaction. These results have generated a new concept in the literature. From the managerial standpoint, the findings offer suggestions for the future direction of the

development of cultural heritage tourism. It can enable researchers into cultural heritage tourism to gain a better understanding between these constructs and has shown an emerging consensus in their interrelationships. The tourism providers can improve the quality of experience and perceived quality of cultural heritage tourism in order to develop effective strategies. Since cultural heritage tourism has been shown to be increasing and substantial, it should be beneficial for the destinations to examine the quality attributes and constructs that influence travelling and returning to cultural heritage destinations. By understanding the relationships between quality constructs, the tourism providers would know better how to develop cultural heritage tourism and improve the strategies to maximise the benefits from cultural heritage tourism. These findings are particularly useful to tourism providers because they provide directions for the implementation of sustainable cultural heritage tourism. Quality is the foundation of success and a key factor in sustaining competitive advantage in cultural heritage tourism.

## **7.8 Recommendations for future work**

Based on the findings from Study 1 and Study 2, it is necessary to understand the issues of quality in cultural heritage tourism. The research results in a workable conceptualisation, explaining the issues related to the quality of cultural heritage tourism. From a theory-building perspective, a quality model related to cultural heritage is developed. It reconceptualises and evaluates the relationships between quality of experience, perceived quality, satisfaction, behavioural intentions and educational benefits. It illustrates the important quality constructs and attributes in the process of cultural heritage tourism from local stakeholders' and tourists' aspects. It also contributes to the existing literature by testing a structural model that includes formative and reflective constructs. In addition, it readily lends itself to further refinement and empirical testing in other destinations. This model can be used for larger-scale exploration and experimentation. Besides, this research also contributes to the methodology. It uses a mixed methods approach including the grounded theory approach and structural equation modelling. It proves that these approaches are effective and efficient. The research produces satisfactory results and shows methodological enrichment. Importantly, it opens a pathway for cultural heritage

tourism practitioners to develop measurement instruments with a higher applied value.

A reflection on the current research process leads to limitations and directions for future research as well. Firstly, the research is not without limitations. One of these is that the sample size in both the qualitative and the quantitative data is still considered small. A larger sample size would definitely enhance the results' validity and reliability. Secondly, it is recommended that future research is conducted at destinations with similar characteristics but different levels of development in cultural heritage tourism to understand the quality attributes. It would be beneficial to consider as many attributes as possible with respect to their influence on quality of experience and to understand whether the results of this research have wider applicability to other destinations. In this case, the cultural differences should be considered when analysing the results. Thirdly, in order to explore the quality issues in cultural heritage tourism, the grounded theory approach is adopted in Study 1. Within conventional applications of grounded theory, personal unstructured interviews are the predominant data collection method. With regard to investigating quality issues in cultural heritage tourism, this technique has a decisive shortcoming. The terms 'quality' and 'cultural heritage tourism' are abstract and can be misinterpreted by the respondents in the study. Apart from the inherent limitations of grounded theory, the model in Study 1 has a strictly tentative characteristic. The model consists of a number of constructs and attributes that need to be further discussed and developed. Since the interviewees in the study are from Macao and may have similar cultural backgrounds, it could be argued that the views cannot reflect the various opinions. This issue should be addressed as a limitation to the study's validity and findings. Therefore, Study 2 is intended to set the foundations for the development of a complete and integrated set of hypotheses. Another possibility is to conduct a quantitative study with local residents using the same questionnaires based on the conceptual framework and findings of this research to test the validity and generalisability of the research findings. This research included only Macao stakeholders and visitors. Future research could take into account local residents, to examine their views on quality attributes and the importance of quality of experience in cultural heritage tourism.



## REFERENCES

- Ahmed, Z. U. (1991). The influence of the components of a state's tourist image on product positioning strategy. *Tourism Management*, 12(4), 331-340.
- Akis, S., Peristianis, N., & Warner, J. (1996). Residents' attitudes to tourism development: The case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 481-494.
- Altheide, D.L., & Johnson, J.M. (1994). Criteria for assessing interpretive validity in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin., & Y.S. Lincoln. (Eds.). *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp.485-499). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Alzua, A., O'Leary, J.T., & Morrison, A.M. (1998). Cultural and heritage tourism: Identifying niches for international travellers. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 9(2), 2-13.
- Anderson, E. W., & Fornell, C. (1994). A customer satisfaction research prospectus. In R.T. Rust., & R.L. Oliver (Eds.), *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice* (pp.241-268). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Anderson, E. W., & Sullivan, M. (1993). The antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction for firms. *Marketing Science*, 12(2), 125-143.
- Anderson, J.C., & Gerbing, D.W. (1988). Structural equation modelling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423.
- Andreassen, T.W. (1996). Customer loyalty and complex services. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 9(1), 178-194.
- Andrew, F. M., & Witjey, S.B. (1976). *Social Indicators of Well-Being*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Ankomah, P.K., Crompton, J. L., & Baker, D. (1996). Influence of cognitive distance in vacation choice. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 138-150.
- Anton, J. (1996). *Customer Relationship Management: Making Hard Decisions with Soft Numbers*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Apostolakis, A., & Jaffry, S. (2005). A choice modelling application for Greek heritage attraction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(3), 309-318.
- Archer, M. S., Bhaskar, R., Collier, A., Lawson, T., & Norrie, A. (1998). Critical Realism: Essential readings. Critical Realism--Interventions. London: Routledge.
- Ashworth, G. J. (2000). Heritage, tourism and places: A review. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 25(1), 19-29.

- Athanassopoulos, A.D. (1999). Customer satisfaction cues to support market segmentation and explain switching behaviour. *Journal of Business Research*, 47(3), 191-423.
- Atilgan, E., Akinci, S., & Aksoy, S. (2003). Mapping service quality in tourism in the tourism industry. *Managing Service Quality*, 13(5), 412-422.
- Au, N., Tsai, H., & Leong, K.F. (2010). Working in Macau Casino: The perceptions of Hong Kong Tertiary students majoring in hospitality. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 14(4), 403-417.
- Babakus, E., & Boller, G. W. (1992). An empirical assessment of the SERVQUAL scale. *Journal of Business Research*, 24(3), 253-268.
- Backman, S.J., & Crompton, J.L. (1991). The usefulness of selected variables for predicting activity loyalty. *Leisure Sciences*, 13(3), 205-220.
- Backman, K., & Kyngäs, H.A. (1999). Challenges of the grounded theory approach to a novice researcher. *Nursing and Health Sciences*, 1(3), 147-153.
- Backman, S.J., & Veldkamp, C. (1995). Examination of relationship between service quality and user loyalty. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 13(2), 29-41.
- Bagozzi, R.P. (1980). *Causal Modelling in Marketing*. New York: Wiley.
- Bagozzi, R.P. (1984). A prospectus for theory construction in marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 48 (1), 11-29.
- Baker, D. A., & Crompton, J.L. (2000). Quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(3), 785-803.
- Balcar, M., & Pearce, D. (1996). Heritage tourism in the west coast of New Zealand. *Tourism Management*, 17(3), 203-212.
- Beaman, J., Huan, T.C., & Kozak, M. (2002). Estimating a Markov model that incorporates first visit decisions and varying repeat frequency. *Tourism Analysis*, 6(2), 81-97.
- Bearden, W.O., & Teel, J. E. (1983). Selected determinants of consumer satisfaction and complaint report. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20(1), 21-28.
- Beeho, A.J., & Prentice, R.C. (1997). Conceptualizing the experiences of heritage tourists: A case study of New Lanark World Heritage Village. *Tourism Management*, 18(2), 75-87.
- Bentler, P.M. (1989). *EQS Structural Equations Program Manual*. Los Angeles, CA: BMDP Statistical Software.

- Bentler, P.M. (1990). Comparative fit indices in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(2), 238-246.
- Bentler, P.M., & Bonett, D.G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88(3), 588-606.
- Bentler, P.M. & Chou, C.P. (1987). Practical issues in structural modelling. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 16(1), 78-117.
- Berry, L.L. (1980). Service marketing is different. *Business*, 30(3), 24-29.
- Berry, L.L., Bennett, D. R., & Brown, C.W. (1989). *Service Quality: A Profit Strategy for Financial Institutions*. Homewood, IL: Dow-Jones-Irwin.
- Bhaskar, R. (1978). *A Realist Theory of Science*. Hassocks: Harvester Press.
- Bhaskar, R. (1979). *The Possibility of Naturalism*. Brighton: Harvester Press.
- Bhaskar, R. (1986). *Scientific Realism and Human Emancipation*. London: Verso.
- Bhaskar, R. (1991). *Philosophy and the Idea of Freedom*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Bigné, J., Sánchez, M., & Sánchez, J. (2001). Tourism image, evaluation variables and after purchase behavior: Inter-relationships. *Tourism Management*, 22(6), 607-616.
- Bitner, M. J., & Hubbert, A.R. (1994). Encounter satisfaction versus quality: The customer's voice. In R.T. Rust., & R.L. Oliver. (Eds.), *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice* (pp.72-94). Thousand Oaks. CA: Sage Publications.
- Bitner, M.J., Faranda, W.T., Hubbert, A.R., & Zeithaml, V.A. (1997). Customer contributions and roles in service delivery. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(3): 193-205.
- Biktimirov, E.N., & Nelson, L.B. (2003). Mapping your course: Designing a graphic syllabus for introductory finance. *Journal of Education for Business*, 78(6), 308-312.
- 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), 5-22.
- Bojanic, D. C., & Rosen, L. D. (1994). Measuring service quality in restaurants: An application of the SERVQUAL instrument. *Hospitality Research Journal*, 18(1), 4-14.
- Bollen, K.A. (1989). *Structural Equation with Latent Variables*. New York: Wiley.
- Bolton, R.N., & Drew, J.H. (1991). A longitudinal analysis of the impact of service changes on customer attitudes. *Journal of Marketing*, 55 (1), 1-9.

Bolton, R N., & Lemon, K.N. (1999). A dynamic model of customers' usage of services: Usage as an antecedent and consequence of satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 36 (2), 171-186.

Bonn, M. A., Joseph-Mathews, S. M., Dai, M., Hayes, S., & Cave, J. (2007). Heritage/Cultural attraction atmospherics: Creating the right environment for the heritage/cultural visitor. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(3), 345-354.

Borgatti, S. (2008). Introduction to grounded theory. Retrieved 15 September, 2009, from <http://www.analytictech.com/mb870/introtoGT.html>

Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Staelin, R., & Zeithaml, V.A. (1993). A dynamic process of service quality: From expectations to behavioural intentions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30(1), 7-27.

Brady, M.K., & Cronin, J.J. (2001). Some new thoughts on conceptualizing perceived service quality: A hierarchical approach. *Journal of Marketing*, 65(3), 34-49.

Breakwell, G. M., Hammond, S., & Fife-Schaw, C. (2000). *Research Methods in Psychology*. London: Sage Publications.

Brewer, J., & Hunter, A. (1989). *Multimethod Research: A Synthesis of Styles*. Newbury Park: CA: Sage Publications.

Brown, T. J., Churchill, G.A., & Peter, J. P. (1993). Research note: Improving the measurement of service quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 69(1), 127-139.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K.A. Bollen., & J.S. Long. (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models* (pp. 136-162). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Bryman, A. (2004). *Social Research Methods* (2<sup>nd</sup> edition). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryson, J.M., & Crosby, B.C. (1992). *Leadership for the Common Good: Tackling Public Problems in a Shared-power World*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Byrne, B. M. (2001). *Structural Equation Modelling with Amos: Basic Concepts Applications, and Programming*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cadotte, E.R., Woodruff, R.B., & Jenkins, R.L. (1987). Expectations and norms in models of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(3), 305-314.

Cagli, U. (1984). Nested model comparison with structural equation approaches. *Journal of Business Research*, 12(3), 309-318.

Caldwell, N. (2002). (Rethinking) the measurement of service quality in museums and galleries. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 7(2), 161-171.

- Cardozo, R.N. (1965). An experimental study of customer effort, expectation and satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 2(3), 244-249.
- Carman, J. M. (1990). Consumer perceptions of service quality: An assessment of the SERVAQUAL dimensions. *Journal of Retailing*, 66(1):33-35.
- Chan, J.K.L., & Baum, T. (2007). Ecotourists' perception of ecotourism experience in lower Kinabatangan, Sabah, Malaysia. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 15(5), 574-590.
- Charmaz, K. (1994). Grounded theory: objectivist and constructivist methods. In N.K. Denzin., & Y.S. Lincoln. (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp.509-536). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing Grounded Theory: A Practical Guide through Qualitative Analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Choi, A., Ritchie, B., Papandrea, F., & Bennett, J. (2010). Economic valuation of cultural heritage sites: A choice modelling. *Tourism Management*, 31(2), 213-220.
- Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (2004). *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications.
- Chen, C.F., & Chen, F.S. (2010). Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioural intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism Management*, 31(1), 29-35.
- Chen, C.F., & Tsai, D.C. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioural intentions? *Tourism Management*, 28 (4), 1115-1122.
- Childress, R. D., & Crompton, J.L. (1997). A comparison of alternative direct and discrepancy approaches to measuring quality of performance at a festival. *Journal of Travel Research*, 36(2), 43-57.
- Choi, H.S., & Sirakaya, E. (2005). Measuring residents' attitude toward sustainable tourism: Development of sustainable tourism attitude scale. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 380-394.
- Chon, K.S., & Olsen, M.D. (1991). Functional and symbolic approaches to consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction in tourism. *Journal of the International Academy of Hospitality Research*, 28 (3), 1-20.
- Christou, E. (2005). Heritage and cultural tourism: A Marketing-focused approach. In M. Sigala., & D. Leslie. (Eds.), *International Cultural Tourism: Management, Implications and Cases* (pp.3-15). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Chung, T. (2009). Valuing heritage in Macau: On contexts and processes of urban conservation. *Journal of Current Chinese Affairs*, 38(1), 129-160.
- Churchill, G.A., & Surprenant, C. (1982). An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19(4), 491-504.

Chou, C. P., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Estimates and tests in structural equation modelling. In R. H. Hoyle. (Ed.), *Structural Equation Modelling: Concepts, Issues, and Applications* (pp.37-55). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

CIA. (2008). Central Intelligence Agency. *The world factbook—Field listing—Economy*. Retrieved 15 September, 2009, from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2116.html>

Clow, K.E., & Beisel, J.L. (1995). Managing consumer expectations of low-margin, high volume services. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 9(1), 33-46.

Coffey, A., & Atkinson, P. (1996). *Making Sense of Qualitative Data: Complementary Research Strategies*. London: Sage Publications.

Cohen, E. (1988). Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15(3), 371-386.

Colbert, F. (2003). Entrepreneurship and leadership in marketing the arts. *International Journal of Arts Management*, 6(1), 30-39.

Collier, A. (1994). *Critical Realism: An Introduction to Roy Bhaskar's Philosophy*. London: Verso.

Connell, J., & Lowe, A. (1997). Generating grounded theory from qualitative data: The application of inductive methods in tourism and hospitality management research. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(2), 165-173.

Cook, R A., Yale, L J., & Marqua, JJ. (2006). *Tourism: The Business of Travel* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Cooper, C., Fletcher, J., Gilbert, D., & Wanhill, S. (1993). *Tourism: Principles and Practices*. London: Pitman.

Creswell, J.W. (1998). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing among Five Traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J.W. (1994). *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J.W., Clark, V. L. P., Gutmann, M.L. & Hanson, W.E. (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. In A. Tashakkori., & C. Teddlie. (Eds.), *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioural Research* (pp.3-50). California: Sage Publications.

Crompton, J.L. (1979). Motivation for pleasure vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408-424.

Crompton, J. L., & Love, L.L. (1995). The predictive validity of alternative approaches to evaluating quality of a festival. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(1), 11-25.

Crompton, J.L., MacKay, K. J., & Fesenmaier, D. R. (1991). Identifying dimensions of service quality in public recreation. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 9 (3), 15-27.

Cronin, J.J., & Taylor, S.A. (1992). Measuring service quality: A re-examination and extension. *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (3), 55-68.

Cronin, J. J., Brady, M. K., & Hult, G. T M. (2000). Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of Retailing*, 76(2), 193-218.

Cunningham, E. G., & Wang, W. C. (2005). Using AMOS graphics to enhance the understanding and communication of multiple regression. In L. Weldon., & B. Phillips. (Eds.), *The Proceedings of the ISI/IASE Satellite on Statistics Education and the Communication of Statistics*. Sydney: ISI, Voorburg, The Netherlands.

Crosby, P.B. (1979). *Quality is Free*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Czepiel, J.A., Rosenerg, L.J., & Akerele, A. (1974). Perspectives on consumer satisfaction. In R. C. Curhan. (Ed.), *Combined Proceedings Series No:36* (pp.119-123). Chicago: American Marketing Association.

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

Daengbuppha, J., Hemmington, N., & Wilkes, K. (2006). Using grounded theory to model visitor experiences at heritage site: Methodological and practical issues. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 9(4), 367-388.

de Rojas, C., & Camarero, C. (2008). Visitor's experience, mood and satisfaction in a heritage context: Evidence from an interpretation centre. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 525-537.

de Ruyter, K., Wetzels, M., Lemmink, J., & Mattsson, J. (1997). The dynamics of the service delivery process: A value-based approach. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 14(3), 231-243.

de Sales Marques, J. L. (2008). *ACE Macau: Architecture, Culture, Environment Macau*. Macau: Polipress.

Deming, W. E. (1982). *Quality, Productivity and Competitive Position*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Centre for Advanced Engineering Study.

Denscombe, M. (2003). *The Good Research Guide for Small-scale Social Research Projects*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Dey, I. (1999). *Grounding Grounded Theory: Guidelines for Qualitative Inquiry*. London: Academic Press.

- Dillon, W.R., & Goldstein, M. (1984). *Multivariate Analysis: Methods and Applications*. New York: John Wiley.
- Dodd, D., & van Hemel, A. (Eds.). (1999). *Planning Cultural Tourism in Europe: A Presentation of Theories and Cases*. Amsterdam: Boekman Foundation and Ministry of Education, Culture and Science.
- Dorfman, P.W. (1979). Measurement and meaning of recreation satisfaction. *Environment and Behaviour*, 11(4), 483-510.
- Drost, A. (1996). Developing sustainable tourism for World Heritage Sites. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 479-492.
- Drummond, S., & Yeoman, I. (Eds.). (2001). *Quality Issues in Heritage Visitor Attractions*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- DSEC. (2006). Macao Statistics and Census Service. *Visitor Expenditure Survey 2001-2005*. Retrieved 5 June, 2007, from [http://www.dsec.gov.mo/e\\_index.html](http://www.dsec.gov.mo/e_index.html)
- DSEC. (2008). Macao Statistics and Census Service. *Tourism Statistics*. Retrieved 15 September, 2009, from [http://www.dsec.gov.mo/index.asp?src=/english/indicator/e\\_tur\\_indicator.html](http://www.dsec.gov.mo/index.asp?src=/english/indicator/e_tur_indicator.html)
- DSEC. (2009a). Macao Statistics and Census Service. *Macao Figure*. Retrieved 4 January, 2010, from [http://www.dsec.gov.mo/getAttachment/c47694e6-0b07-41e6-ba97-5d48acfc25f3/E\\_MN\\_PUB\\_2009\\_Y.aspx](http://www.dsec.gov.mo/getAttachment/c47694e6-0b07-41e6-ba97-5d48acfc25f3/E_MN_PUB_2009_Y.aspx)
- DSEC. (2009b). Macao Statistics and Census Service. *Macao Economic Bulletin*. Retrieved 4 January, 2010, from [http://www.dsec.gov.mo/getAttachment/efc1c7c9-16a9-4b67-81fa-e2839b5be13d/E\\_BET\\_PUB\\_2009\\_Q1.aspx](http://www.dsec.gov.mo/getAttachment/efc1c7c9-16a9-4b67-81fa-e2839b5be13d/E_BET_PUB_2009_Q1.aspx)
- DSEC. (2010). Macao Statistics and Census Service. *Gaming and Tourism Statistics*. Retrieved 3 March, 2010, from <http://www.dsec.gov.mo/Statistic/TourismAndServices.aspx>
- du Cros, H. (2009). Emerging issues for cultural tourism in Macau. *Journal of Current Chinese Affairs*, 38(1), 73-99.
- Duffield, B.S., & Long, J. (1981). Tourism in the highlands and islands of Scotland rewards and conflicts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 8(3), 403-431.
- Duke, C.R., & Persia, M.A. (1996). Foreign and domestic escorted tour expectations of American travellers. In M. Uysal. (Ed.), *Global Tourist Behaviour* (pp.61-78). New York: International Business Press.



- Dyer, P., Gursoy, D., Sharma, B., & Carter, J. (2007). Structural modelling of resident perceptions of tourism and associated development on the Sunshine Coast, Australia. *Tourism Management*, 28 (2), 409-422.
- Edwards, J.A., & Llurdes, J.C. (1996). Mines and quarries: Industrial heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 341-363.
- Ennew, C.T., & Binks, M.R. (1999). Impact of participative service relationships on quality, satisfaction, and retention: An exploratory study. *Journal of Business Research*, 46(2), 121-132.
- Erzberger, C., & Prein, G. (1997). Triangulation: Validity and empirically based hypothesis construction. *Quality & Quantity*, 31(2), 141-154.
- Eves, A., & Dervisi, P. (2005). Experiences of the implementation and operation of hazard analysis critical control points in the food service sector. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 24(1), 3-19.
- Fache, W. (2000). Methodologies for innovation and improvement of services in tourism. *Managing Service Quality*, 10(6), 356-366.
- Fakeye, P., & Crompton, J.L. (1991). Image differences between prospective, first-time, and repeat visitors to the lower Rio Grande valley. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 10-16.
- Fallon, P., & Schofield, P. (2004). First-timer versus repeat visitor satisfaction: The case of Orlando, Florida. *Tourism Analysis*, 8(2/4), 205-210.
- Fay, B. (1987). *Critical Social Science: Liberation and Its Limits*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Feigenbaum, A.V. (1983). *Total Quality Control* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fick, G.R., & Ritchie, J.R.B. (1991). Measuring service quality in the travel and tourism industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(2), 2-9.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). London: Sage Publications.
- Finn, M., Elliott-White, M., & Walton, M. (2000). *Tourism and Leisure Research Methods: Data Collection, Analysis, and Interpretation*. Harlow: Longman.
- Fleisher, C.S., & Bensoussan, B.E. (2003). *Strategic and competitive analysis: Methods and techniques for analyzing business competition*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Fornell, C. (1983). Issues in the application of covariance structure analysis: A comment. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(4), 443-448.

- Fornell, C. (1992). A national customer satisfaction barometer: The Swedish experience. *Journal of Marketing*, 56 (1), 6-21.
- Fornell, C., Johnson, M.D., Anderson, E.W., Cha, J., & Bryant, B.E. (1996). The American customer satisfaction index: Description, findings, and implications. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(4), 7-18.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50.
- Fornell, C., Tellis, G.J., & Zinkhan, G. (1982). Validity assessment: A structural equations approach using partial least squares. In B.J. Walker, et al. (Eds.), *AMA Educators' Proceedings* (pp. 405-409). Chicago: American Marketing Association.
- Fornell, C., & Yi, Y. (1992). Assumptions of the two-step approach to latent variable modelling. *Sociological methods and Research*, 20(3), 334-339.
- Freeman, R. E. (1984). *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*. Boston: Pitman.
- Frochot, I., & Hughes, H. (2000). HISTOQUAL: The development of a historic houses Assessment Scale. *Tourism Management*, 21(2), 157-167.
- Frost, P.J., & Stablein, R. E. (1992). *Doing Exemplary Research*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Furchtgott, E., & Furchtgott, M.W. (1999). *Aging and Human Motivation*. New York: Kluwer Academic/ Plenum Publishers.
- Furr, H.L., & Bonn, M.A. (2006). Relating destination satisfaction to future travel behaviour. *Tourism Analysis*, 11(3), 211-216.
- Gale, T., & Botterill, D. (2005). A realist agenda for tourist studies, or why destination areas really rise and fall in popularity. *Tourist Studies*, 5(2), 151-174.
- Getty, J., & Thompson, K. (1994). A procedure for scaling perceptions of lodging quality. *Hospitality Research Journal*, 18(2), 75-96.
- Getz, D. (1991). *Festivals, Special Events and Tourism*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Gilbert, D., & Lizottem, M. (1998). Tourism and the performing arts. *Travel and Tourism Analyst*, 1, 82-96.
- Gilmore, A., & Rentschler, R. (2002). Changes in museum management: A custodial or marketing emphasis? *Journal of Management Development*, 21(10), 745-760.
- Gitelson, R. J., & Crompton, J. L. (1984). Insights into the repeat vacation phenomenon. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11(2), 199-217.

- Glaser, B.G. (1978). *Theoretical Sensitivity*. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B.G. (1992). *Basics of Grounded Theory Analysis*. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B.G. (2001). *The Grounded Theory Perspective: Conceptualisation Contrasted with Description*. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.
- Glaser, B.G., & Strauss, A.L. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Chicago: Aldine.
- Glass, J.J. (1979). Citizen participation in planning: The relationship between objectives and techniques. *Journal of the American Planning Association*, 45(2), 180-189.
- Gnoth, J. (1994). Quality of service and tourist satisfaction. In S. Witt., & L. Moutinho. (Eds.), *Tourism Marketing and Management Handbook* (pp. 279-284). Hemel Hempstead: Prentice-Hall.
- Gotlieb, J. B., Grewal, D., & Brown, S. W. (1994). Consumer satisfaction and perceived quality: Complementary or divergent constructs? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(6), 875-885.
- Goulding, C. (2002). *Grounded Theory: A Practical Guide for Management, Business and Market Researchers*. London: Sage Publications.
- Greene, J.C., & Caracelli, V.J. (Eds). (1997). *Advances in Mixed-Method Evaluation: The Challenges and Benefits of Integrating Diverse Paradigms (New Directions for Evaluation, No. 74)*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gu, Z. (2004). Macau gaming: Copying the Las Vegas style or creating a Macao model? *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 9(1), 89-96.
- Guba, E.G., & Lincoln, Y.S. (1989). *Fourth Generation Evaluation*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.
- Gunn, C. (1988). *Tourism Planning*. New York: Taylor and Francis.
- Gustafsson, A., & Johnson, M.D. (2003). *Competing in a Service Economy: How to Create a Competitive Advantage through Service Development and Innovation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis with Readings* (4<sup>th</sup> Edition). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Haley, R. I., & Case, P. B. (1979). Testing thirteen attitude scales for agreement and brand discrimination. *Journal of Marketing*, 43(4), 20-32.
- Hall, C.M., & Zeppel, H. (1990). History, architecture, environment: Cultural heritage and tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29 (2), 54-55.

- Hallowell, R. (1996). The relationship of customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and profitability: An empirical study. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 7 (4), 27-42.
- Harrison, P., & Shaw, R. (2004). Consumer satisfaction and post-purchase intentions: An exploratory study of museum visitors. *International Journal of Arts Management*, 6(2), 23-32.
- Haywood, M. (1988). Responsible and responsive tourism planning in the community. *Tourism Management*, 9 (2), 105-118.
- Healey, P. (1998). Collaborative planning in a stakeholder society. *The Town Planning Review*, 69(1), 1-21.
- Heath, H., & Cowley, S. (2004). Developing a grounded theory approach: a comparison of Glaser and Strauss. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 41(2), 141-150.
- 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. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 9(1/2), 57-80.
- Hewison, R. (1987). *The Heritage Industry: Britain in a Climate of Decline*. London: Methuen.
- Higgs, B., Polonsky, M. J., & Hollick, M. (2005). Measuring expectations: Forecast vs. ideal expectations. Does it really matter? *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 12 (1), 49-64.
- Hinkin, T. R., Tracey, J. B., & Enz, C. A. (1997). Scale construction: Developing reliable and valid measurement instruments. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 21(1), 100-120.
- Hjalager, A., & Richards, G. (2002). Tourism and gastronomy. *Hospitality Management*, 19(2), 109-117.
- Hong Kong Tourism Board. (2009). Annual Report. Retrieved 28 March, 2010, from <http://www.discoverhongkong.com/eng/about-hktb/annual-report.html>
- Houston, S. (2001). Beyond social constructionism: Critical realism and social work. *British Journal of Social Work*, 31(6), 845-861.
- Hoyle, R. (1995). *Structural Equation Modelling: Concepts, Issues, and Applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- 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.

Hsu, C.H.C., Cai, L.A., & Wong, K.K.F. (2007). A model of senior tourism motivations—Anecdotes from Beijing and Shanghai. *Tourism Management*, 28(5), 1262-1273.

Hsu, C.H.C., & Zheng, G. (2010). Ride on the gaming boom: How can Hong Kong, Macao and Zhuhai join hands to develop tourism in the region? *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 15(1), 57-77.

Hu, L.T., & Bentler, P.M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure modelling: Sensitivity to underparameterized model misspecification. *Psychological Methods*, 3(4), 424-453.

Hughes, H. (2000). *Arts, Entertainment and Tourism*. Oxford: Butterworth - Heinemann.

Hughes, K. (1991). Tourist satisfaction: A guided cultural tour in North Queensland. *Australian Psychologist*, 26(3), 166-171.

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

Hulland, J., Chow, Y. H., & Lam, S. (1996). Use of causal models in marketing research: A review. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 13(2), 181-197.

Hurst, F. (1994). En route surveys. In J.R.B. Ritchie., & C.R. Goeldner. (Eds.), *Travel and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Mangers and Researchers* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition) (pp. 453-471). New York: Wiley.

Hurley, R.F., & Estelami, H. (1998). Alternative indexes for monitoring customer perceptions of service quality: A comparative evaluation in a retail context. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(3), 209-221.

ICOMOS (International Council on Monuments and Sites). (1993). *Tourism at World Heritage Cultural Sites: The Site Manager's Handbook* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition.). Madrid: World Tourism Organisation.

IFT. (2007). Institute For Tourism Studies. *Study on Projected Manpower Needs of the Hotel and Gaming Industries in Macao, 2006-2009*. Unpublished report. Macao: Institute For Tourism Studies.

Inskeep, E. (1991). *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Jackson, D. L. (2003). Revisiting sample size and number of parameter estimates: Some support for the N:q hypothesis. *Structural Equation Modelling*, 10(1), 128-141.

Jamal, T.B., & Getz, D. (1995). Collaboration theory and community tourism planning. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(1), 186-204.

- Jamal, T.B., & Getz, D. (1997). Visioning for sustainable tourism development: Community-based collaborations. In P.E. Murphy. (Ed.), *Quality Management in Urban Tourism* (pp.199-220). Chichester: Wiley.
- Jansen-Verbeke, M. (1991). Leisure shopping: A magic concept for the tourism industry? *Tourism Management*, 12(1), 9-14.
- Johns, N., Lee-Ross, D., & Ingram, H. (1997). A study of service quality in small hotels and guesthouses. *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(4), 351-63.
- Johnson, R.B. (1995). Qualitative research in education. *SRATE Journal*, 4(1), 3-7.
- Johnson, R.B., & Christensen, L.B. (2000). *Education Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Johnson, R.B., & Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Johnson, R.B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L.A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1, 112-133.
- Jöreskog, K.G. (1971). Simultaneous factor analysis in several populations. *Psychometrika*, 36(4), 409-426.
- Jöreskog, K.G. (1993). Testing structural equation models. In K.A. Bollen., & J.S. Long. (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models* (pp.294-316). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Jöreskog, K.G., & Sörbom, D. (1986). *LISREL VI: Analysis of Linear Structural Relationships by Maximum Likelihood, Instrumental Variables and Least Squares Methods*. Mooresville, IN: Scientific Software.
- Jöreskog, K.G. & Sörbom, D. (2001). *LISREL VIII: User's Guide*. Lincolnwood, IL: Scientific Software.
- Kandampully, J. (2000). The impact of demand fluctuation on the quality of service: A tourism industry example. *Managing Service Quality*, 10(1), 10-19.
- Kelloway, E.K. (1998). *Using LISREL for Structural Equation Modeling: A Researcher's Guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Kerstetter, D.L., Confer, J.J., & Graefe, A.R. (2001). An exploration of the specialization concept within the context of heritage tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 39(3), 267-274.
- Kieren, D., & Morse, J. M. (1992). Preparation factors and menstrual attitudes of pre-and postmenarcheal girls. *Journal of Sex Education and Therapy*, 18, 155-174.

- Kim, S., & Littrell, M. A. (1999). Predicting souvenir purchase intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(2), 153-162.
- Kim, Y.G., Eves, A., & Scarles, C. (2009). Building a model of local food consumption on trips and holidays: A grounded theory approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), 423-431.
- King, B., Pizam, A., & Milman, A. (1993). Social Impacts of Tourism: Host Perception. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(4), 650-665.
- Kinnunen, U., Feldt, T., Geurts, S., & Pulkkinen, L. (2006). Types of work-family interface: Well-being correlates of negative and positive spillover between work and family. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, 47(2), 149-162.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modelling* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Kneafsey, M. (1994). The cultural tourist: Patron saint of Ireland? In U. Kockel. (Ed.), *Culture, Tourism and Development: The Case of Ireland* (pp. 103-116). Liverpool: Liverpool University press.
- Knutson, B., Stevens, P., & Patton, M. (1995). DINESERV: Measuring service quality in quick service, casual/theme, and fine dining restaurants. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 3(2), 35-44.
- Kozak, M. (2001). Repeaters' behaviour at two distinct destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(3), 785-808.
- Kozak, M., & Beaman, J. (2006). Relationship between satisfaction and future behaviour. *Tourism Analysis*, 11(6), 397-409.
- Kozak, M., Huang, T.C., & Beaman, J. (2003). A systematic approach to non-repeat and repeat travel: With measurement and destination loyalty concept implications. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 12(4), 19-38.
- Kozak, M., & Rimmington, M. (2000). Tourist satisfaction with Mallorca, Spain, as an off-season holiday destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(3), 260-269.
- Lam, C.C., & Vong, T.N. (2009). Macao: The gambling paradise—Profiling the roles and motives of customers. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 5(4), 388-400.
- Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H.C. (2006). Predicting behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination. *Tourism Management*, 27(4), 589-599.
- Laws, E. (1995). *Tourist Destination Management: Issues Analysis and Policies*. New York: Routledge.
- Laws, E. (1998). Conceptualising visitor satisfaction management in heritage settings: An exploratory blueprinting analysis of Leeds Castle, Kent. *Tourism Management*, 19(6), 545-554.

- Laws, E. (2001). The analysis of quality for heritage site visitors. In S. Drummond., & I. Yeoman. (Eds.), *Quality Issues in Heritage Visitor Attractions* (pp.61-77). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Laws, E. (2002). *The Design Analysis and Improvement of Tourist Services*. Champaign, IL: Sagamore.
- Lazarus, R.S. (1991). *Emotion and Adaptation*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lee, C., Lee, Y. & Lee, B. (2005). Korea's destination image formed by the 2002 World Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(4), 839-858.
- Lee, C.K., Kang, S.K., Long, P., & Reisinger, Y. (2010). Residents' perceptions of casino impacts: A comparative study. *Tourism Management*, 31(2), 189-201.
- Lee, H., Lee, Y., & Yoo, D. (2000). The determinants of perceived service quality and its relationship with satisfaction. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 14(3), 217-31.
- Lee, S.Y., Petrick, J.F., & Crompton, J. (2007). The roles of quality and intermediary constructs in determining festival attendees' behavioural intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(4), 402-412.
- Leedy, P., & Ormrod, J. (2001). *Practical Research* (7<sup>th</sup> Edition.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice-Hall.
- Leininger, M. (1994). Evaluation criteria and critique of quantitative studies. In J. Morse. (Ed.), *Critical Issues in Qualitative Research Method* (pp.95-115). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Lepp, A. (2007). Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 876-885.
- Li, M., Wu, B., & Cai, L. (2008). Tourism development of World Heritage Sites in China: A geographic perspective. *Tourism Management*, 29(2), 308-319.
- Light, D. (1991). The development of heritage interpretation in Britain. *Swansea Geographer*, 28, 1-13.
- Light, D. (1995). Visitors' use of interpretive media at heritage sites. *Leisure Studies*, 14 (2), 132-149.
- Light, D., Prentice, C., Ashworth, G. J., & Larkham, J. (1994). Who consumers the heritage product? Implications for European tourism. In G.J. Ashworth. & J. Larkham. (Eds.), *Building New Heritage: Tourism, Culture and Identity in the New Europe* (pp.90-116). London: Routledge.
- Little, R.J.A., & Rubin, D.B. (1987). *Statistical Analysis with Missing Data*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.



- Littrell, M.A., Baizerman, S., Kean, R., Gahring, S., Niemeyer, S., Reilly, R., & Stout, J. (1994). Souvenirs and tourism styles. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33(1), 3-11.
- Llosa, S., Chandon, J., & Orsingher, C. (1998). An empirical study of SERVQUAL's dimensionality. *The Service Industries Journal*, 18(2), 16-44.
- Llusar, J.C.B., Zornoza, C.C., & Tena, A.B.E. (2001). Measuring the relationship between firm perceived quality and customer satisfaction and its influence on purchase intentions. *Total Quality Management*, 12(6), 719-734.
- Lopez, E.M. (1980). The effects of leadership style on satisfaction levels of tour quality. *Journal of Travel Research*, 18(4), 20-23.
- Lopez, E.M. (1981). The effect of tour leaders' training on travellers' satisfaction with tour quality. *Journal of Travel Research*, 19(4), 23-26.
- López, J., & Potter, G. (2005). *After postmodernism: An introduction to critical realism*. Burns & Oates.
- MacCannell, D. (1976). *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*. New York: Schocken Books.
- MacKay, K.J., & Crompton, J. L. (1998). A conceptual model of consumer evaluation of recreation service quality. *Leisure Studies*, 7(1), 41-49.
- Maddox, R.N. (1985). Measuring satisfaction with tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 23(3), 2-5.
- Manson, S.M. (1997). Ethnographic methods, cultural context, and mental illness: Bridging different ways of knowing and experience. *Ethos*, 25(2), 249-258.
- Martin, B.S., Bridges, W.C., & Vallière, W. (2004). Research note: Are cultural heritage visitors really different from other visitors? *Tourism Analysis*, 9(1/2), 129-134.
- Martin, D. (2007). Management learning exercise and trainer's note for building grounded theory in tourism behaviour. *Journal of Business Research*, 60 (7), 742-748.
- Masberg, B.A., & Silverman, L.H. (1996). Visitor experiences at heritage sites: A phenomenological approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 34(4), 20-25.
- Maslow, A. (1971). *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature*. New York: The Viking Press.
- Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Mays, N., & Pope, C. (2000). Qualitative research in health care: Assessing quality in qualitative research. *British Medical Journal*, 320(7226), 50-52

- Mazursky, D. (1989). Past experience and future tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(3), 333-44.
- McArthur, S., & Hall, C. M. (Eds.). (1996). *Heritage Management in Australia and New Zealand: The Human Dimension*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McDougall, G. H.G., & Munro, H. (1994). Scaling and attitude measurement in travel and tourism research. In J.R.B. Ritchie., & C.R. Goeldner. (Eds.), *Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality Research: A Handbook for Managers and Researchers* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition.) (pp.115-130). New York: Wiley.
- McEvoy, P., & Colgan, S., & Richards, D. (2003). Critical realism: A way forward for evaluation research in nursing? *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 43(4), 411-420.
- McGill, A.L., & Iacobucci, D. (1992). The role of post-experience comparison standards in the evaluation of unfamiliar services. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 19, 570-578.
- McIntosh, A. J. (1999). Into the tourist's mind: Understanding the value of the heritage experience. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 8(1), 41-63.
- McIntosh, A. J., & Prentice, R.C. (1999). Affirming authenticity: Consuming cultural heritage. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(3), 589-612.
- McKercher, B., & du Cros, H. (2002). *Cultural tourism: Partnership between tourism and cultural heritage management*. Haworth Press, Binghamton, NY.
- McKercher, B., & du Cros, H. (2003). Testing a Cultural Tourism Typology. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 5(1), 45-58.
- Mehmetoglu, M., & Altinay, L. (2006). Examination of grounded theory analysis with an application to hospitality research. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25 (1), 12-33.
- Mingers, J. (2004). Realising information systems: Critical realism as an underpinning philosophy for information systems. *Information and Organisation*, 14(2), 87-103.
- Mellen, S.R., & Okada, S.S. (2006). *HVS International Global Hospitality Report: Forecasting Market-wide Gaming Revenue (win) for the Macau Special Administrative Region*. Mineola, NY: HVS International.
- MGTO. (2008). Macau Government Tourist Office. *General Information*. Retrieved 20 September, 2009, from [http://www.macautourism.gov.mo/english/info\\_en.html](http://www.macautourism.gov.mo/english/info_en.html)
- Middleton, V., & Hawkins, R. (1998). *Sustainable Tourism: A Marketing Perspective*. London: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Mill, R.C., & Morrison, A.M. (1992). *The Tourism System: An Introductory Text* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs.

Millar, S. (1989). Heritage management for heritage tourism. *Tourism Management*, 10(1), 9-14.

Miu, C., & Miu, B. C. (2004). Cultural significance: The identity of Macao. In D. Lung. (Ed.), *The Conservation of Urban Heritage: Macao Vision* (pp 53-70). Macao: Cultural Institute of Macao, Macao SAR Government.

Mohr, L.A., & Bitner, M. J. (1995). The role of employee effort in satisfaction with service transactions. *Journal of Business Research*, 32(3), 239-252.

Mok, C., Armstrong, R. W., & Go, F.M. (1995). Taiwanese travellers' perception of leisure destination of leisure destination attributes. *Australian Journal of Hospitality Management*, 2(1), 17-22.

Molloy, L. (1993). Natural heritage interpretation in New Zealand. In S. Olsson., & R. Saunders. (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Open to Interpretation Conference* (pp.15 – 20).

Melbourne: Interpretation Association of Australia.

Morse, J.M. (2003). Principles of mixed methods and multimethod research design. In A. Tashakkori., & C. Teddlie. (Eds), *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioural Research* (pp.3-50). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Moscardo, G. (1996). Mindful visitors: Heritage and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 376-397.

Moscardo, G. (1999). *Making Visitors Mindful: Principles for Creating Sustainable Visitor Experiences through Effective Communication*. Champaign, IL: Sagamore.

Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (1998). *Tourism and Sustainability: New Tourism in the Third World*. London: Routledge.

Murphy, P.E. (1983). Perceptions and attitudes of decision making groups in tourism centres. *Journal of Travel Research*, 21(3), 8-12.

Murphy, P.E. (1985). *Tourism: A Community Approach*. New York: Routledge.

Mutch, A. (2005). Critical realism, agency and discourse: moving the debate forward. *Organization*, 12(5), 781–786.

MWHE3. (2005). *The Historic Centre of Macao*. Retrieved 24 September, 2008, from <http://www.macauheritage.net/Education/CycloDE.asp?id=69>

Nash, R.D. (2006). *Community Participation and Collaboration in Catchment Management: A Multi-Disciplinary Approach to Citizen Involvement in Decision-Making Processes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of the Sunshine Coast, Queensland, Australia.

- Nimrod, G. (2008). Retirement and tourism themes in retirees' Narratives. *Annals of tourism Research*, 35(4), 859-878.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nunnally, J.C., & Bernstein, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nuryanti, W. (1996). Heritage and postmodern tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(2), 249-260.
- Nusiar, K., & Hua, N. (2010). Comparative assessment of structural equation modeling and multiple regression research methodologies: E-commerce context. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 314-324.
- Obenour, W., Patterson, M., Pedersen, P., & Pearson, L. (2006). Conceptualisation of a meaning-based research approach for tourism service experiences. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 34-41.
- Oh, H. (1999). Service quality, customer satisfaction, and customer value: A holistic perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 18(1), 67-82.
- Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decision. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 17(4), 460-469.
- Oliver, R.L. (1981). Measurement and evaluation of satisfaction processes in retail settings. *Journal of Retailing*, 57(3), 25-48.
- Oliver, R. L. (1993). A conceptual model of service quality and service satisfaction: compatible goals, different concepts. *Advances in Services Marketing and Management*, 2, 65-85.
- Oliver, R. L. (1996). *Satisfaction: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer*. New York: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.
- Oliver, R. L., & Desarbo, W. S. (1988). Response determinants in satisfaction judgments. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(4), 495-507.
- Oliver, R. L., Rust, R. T., & Varki, S. (1997). Customer delight: Foundations, findings and managerial insight. *Journal of Retailing*, 73(3), 311-336.
- Olsen, S.O. (2002). Comparative evaluation and the relationship between quality, satisfaction and repurchase loyalty. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30(3), 240-249.
- Olshavsky, R.W. (1985). Perceived quality in consumer decision making: An integrated theoretical perspective. In J.Jacoby., & J. Olson. (Eds.), *Perceived Quality* (pp. 3-29). Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

- Ostrom, A., & Iacobucci, D. (1995). Consumer Trade-Offs and the Evaluation of Services. *Journal of Marketing*, 59 (1), 17-28.
- Otto, J. E., & Richie, J. R. B. (1995). Exploring the quality of the service experience: A theoretical and empirical analysis. *Advances in Services Marketing and Management*, 4, 37-61.
- Otto, J. E., & Richie, J. R. B. (2000). The service experience in tourism. In C, Ryan., & S. Page. (Eds.), *Tourism Management: Towards the New Millennium* (pp. 404-419). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science Ltd.
- Palmer, A., & Bejou, D. (1995). Tourism destination marketing alliance. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22(3), 616-629.
- Pandit, N. (1995). *Towards a Grounded Theory of Corporate Turnaround: A Case Study Approach*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Manchester, Manchester, United Kingdom.
- Papathanassis, A., & Knolle, F. (in press). Exploring the adoption and processing of online holiday reviews: A grounded theory approach. *Tourism management*, first published on 15 December 2009 doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2009.12.005
- Parasuraman, A., Berry, L.L., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1991). Understanding customer expectations of service. *Sloan Management Review*, 32(3), 39-48.
- Parasuraman, A., Berry, L.L., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1994). Reassessment of expectations as a comparison standard in measuring service quality: Implications for further research. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(1), 111-124.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A., & Berry, L.L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, 49(4), 41-50.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A., & Berry, L.L. (1988). SERVQUAL: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 64(1), 12-40.
- Patterson, P. G., & Spreng, R. A. (1997). Modelling the relationship between perceived value, satisfaction and repurchase intentions in a Business-to-Business, services context: An empirical examination. *The International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8 (5), 415-432.
- Patton, Q. M. (1980). *Qualitative Evaluation Methods*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Patton, Q. M. (1990). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Pearce, P.L. (1982a). *The Social Psychology of Tourist Behaviour*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

- Pearce, P.L. (1982b). Perceived changes in holiday destinations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(2), 145-164.
- Pearce, P.L. (1982c). Tourists and their hosts: Some social and psychological effects of inter-cultural contacts. In S. Bochner. (Ed.), *Cultures in Contact: Studies in Cross-Cultural Interaction* (pp.192-221). New York: Pergamon Press.
- Pearce, P.L. (1984). Tourist-guide interaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 11(1), 129-146.
- Pearce, P.L. (1991). The social and psychological effects of tourists-hosts contact. In S. Bochner. (Ed.), *Cultures in Contact: Studies in Cross-Cultural Interaction* (pp.192-221). New York: Pergamon Press.
- Pearce, P. L. (2005). *Tourist Behaviour: Themes and Conceptual Schemes*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Pearce, P.L., & Moscardo, G.M. (1984). Making sense of tourists' complaints. *International Journal of Tourism Management*, 5(1), 20-23.
- Pearce, P.L., & Moscardo, G.M. (1986). The concept of authenticity in tourists' experiences. *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Sociology*, 22(1), 121-132.
- Peter, J.P. (1979). Reliability: A review of psychometric basics and recent marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16 (1), 6-17.
- Peter, J.P. (1981). Construct validity: A review of basic issues and marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (2), 133-145.
- Peterson, W. (1994). Why did they become Christians? Yang Tingjun, Li Jizao and Xu Guangqi. *Review of Culture*, 2(21), 95-110.
- Petrick, J.F. (2004). The roles of quality, perceived value and satisfaction in predicting cruise passengers' behavioural intentions. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(4), 397-407.
- Petrick, J.F., & Backman, S.J. (2002). An examination of the construct of perceived value for the prediction of golf travelers' intentions to revisit, *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(1), 38-45.
- Pickett, W., Dostaler, S., Craig, W., Janssen, I., Simpson, K., Shelley, S.D., & Boyce, W.F. (2006). Associations between risk behavior and injury and the protective roles of social environments: An analysis of 7235 Canadian school children. *Injury Prevention*, 12, 87-92.
- Pidgeon, N. (1996). Grounded theory: theoretical background. In J.T.E. Richardson. (Ed.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods* (pp.75-85). Leicester: BPS Books.

- Pinheiro, F.V. (2006). Macao's rehabilitation projects of public spaces and UNESCO World Heritage recognition. In University of Macao. (Ed.), *The Proceedings of 2<sup>nd</sup> Cross-Strait Conference on Public Administration: Policy Challenges in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century*. University of Macao. People's Republic of China.
- Pizam, A. (1994). Monitoring customer satisfaction. In B. David., & A. Lockwood. (Eds.), *Food and Beverage Management: A Selection of Readings* (pp.231-247). Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Robson, C. (2007). *How to Do a Research Project: A Guide for Undergraduate Students*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2001a). Clarifying heritage tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(4), 1047-1049.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2001b). Tourism sub groups: Do they exist? *Tourism Today*, 1(1), 14-23.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2001c). The meanings of heritage sites for tourists: The Case of Massada. *Tourism Analysis*, 9 (1/2), 15-22.
- Poria, Y., Butler, R., & Airey, D. (2004). Links between tourists, heritage, and reasons for visiting heritage sites. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(1), 19-28.
- Prakash, V. (1984). Validity and reliability of the confirmation of expectations paradigm as a determinant of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 12(4), 63-76.
- Pratschke, J. (2003). Realistic models? Critical realism and statistical models in the social sciences. *Philosophica*, 71, 13-38.
- Prentice, R. (1993a). *Tourism and Heritage Attractions*. London: Routledge.
- Prentice, R. (1993b). Heritage: A key sector of the 'new' tourism. *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, 5, 309-324.
- Prentice, R., Guerin, S., & McGugan, S. (1998). Visitor learning at a heritage attraction: A case study of *discovery* as a media product. *Tourism Management*, 19(1), 5-23.
- Prentice, R., Witt, S., & Hamer, C. (1993). The experience of industrial heritage: The case of black gold. *Built Environment*, 19(2), 137-146.
- Prentice, R., Witt, S., & Hamer, C. (1998). Tourism as experience: The case of heritage parks. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25 (1), 1-24.
- Prideaux, B. (2002). Creating rural heritage visitor attractions: The Queensland heritage trails project. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(4), 313-323.
- Pritchard, M.P., & Havitz, M. E. (2006). Research note: Ratios of tourist experience: It

was the best of times, it was the worst of times. *Tourism Analysis*, 10, 291-297.

Punch, K.F. (1998). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (1999). A cultural analysis of Japanese tourists: Challenges for tourism marketers. *European Journal of Marketing*, 33(11/12), 1203-1227.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. (2003). *Cross-Cultural Behaviour in Tourism, Concepts and Analysis*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Reisinger, Y., & Waryszak, R. (1995). Japanese tourists' perceptions of their tour guides: Australian experience. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 1(3), 281-288.

Richards, G. (Ed.). (1996). *Cultural Tourism in Europe*. Wallingford: CAB International.

Richards, G. (1999). European Cultural Tourism: Patterns and Prospects. In D. Dodd., & A. van Hemel. (Eds.), *Planning Cultural Tourism in Europe: A Presentation of Theories and Cases* (pp.16-32). Amsterdam: Boekman Foundation and Ministry of Education, Culture and Science.

Richards, G. (2001). The market of cultural attractions. In G. Richards. (Ed.), *Cultural Attractions and European Tourism*. Wallingford: CAB International.

Richards, G. (2007). Introduction: Global trends in cultural tourism. In G. Richards. (Ed.), *Cultural Tourism: Global and Local Perspectives* (pp 1-20). New York: The Haworth Press.

Riley, R. W., & Love, L.L. (2000). The state of qualitative tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(1), 164-187.

Ritchie, J. R.B. (1988). Consensus policy formulation in tourism: Measuring resident views via survey research. *Tourism Management*, 9(3), 199-212.

Ritchie, J.R.B. (1993). Crafting a destination vision. Putting the concept of resident-responsive tourism into practice. *Tourism Management*, 14(5), 379-389.

Ritchie, J.R.B., & Crouch, G.I. (2003). *The Competitive Destination: A Sustainable Tourism Perspective*. Wallingford: CABI Publishing.

Ritchie, J.R.B., & Spencer, L. (1994). Qualitative data analysis for applied policy research. In A. Bryman., & R.G. Burgess. (Eds.), *Analyzing Qualitative Data* (pp.173-194). London: Routledge.

Ritchie, J.R.B., & Zins, M. (1978). Culture as a determinant of the attractiveness of a tourist region. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 5(2), 252-267.



- Robinson, M., Evans, N., & P. Callaghan. (Eds.). (1996). *Proceedings of the Tourism and Culture: Towards the 21st Century Conference*. Newcastle: The Centre for Travel and Tourism, University of Northumbria with Business Education Publishers.
- Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research* (2nd edition). Oxford: Blackwell
- Roest, H., & Pieters, R. (1997). The nomological net of perceived service quality. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(4), 336-51.
- Room, R., Turner, N. E., & Ialomiteanu, A. (1999). Community effects of the opening of the Niagara casino. *Addiction*, 94(10), 1449-1466.
- Ross, G.F. (1993). Destination evaluation and vacation preferences. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 20(3), 477-489.
- Ross, E.L.D., & Iso-Ahola, S.E. (1991). Sightseeing tourists' motivation and satisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 18(2), 226-237.
- Rossmann, G.B., & Wilson, B.L. (1985). Numbers and words: Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single large scale evaluation study. *Evaluation Review*, 9, 627-643.
- Roth, P.L. (1994). Missing data: A conceptual review for applied psychologists. *Personnel Psychology*, 47(3), 537-560.
- Russell, J.A., & Pratt, G. (1980). A description of the affective quality attributed to environments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(2), 311-322.
- Russo, A.P., & van der Borg, J. (2002). Planning considerations for cultural tourism: A case study of four European cities. *Tourism Management*, 23(6), 631-637.
- Rust, R.T., & Oliver, R.L. (1994). Service quality: Insights and managerial implications from the frontier. In R.T. Rust., & R.L. Oliver. (Eds), *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice*. California: Sage Publications.
- Rust, R.T., Zahorik, A.J. & Keiningham, T.L. (1995). Return on quality (ROQ): Making service quality financially accountable. *Journal of Marketing*, 59 (2), 58-70.
- Ryan, C. (1995). *Researching Tourist Satisfaction: Issues, Concepts, Problems*. London: Routledge.
- Ryan, C. (Ed.). (1997). *The Tourist Experience: A New Introduction*. London: Cassell.
- Ryan, C., & Dewar, K. (1995). Evaluating the communication process between interpreter and visitor. *Tourism Management*, 16(4), 295-303.
- Ryan, C, & Mo, X. (2001). Chinese visitors to New Zealand – Demographics and perceptions. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 8, 13-27.

Saleh, F., & Ryan, C. (1991). Analyzing service quality in the hospitality industry using the SERVQUAL model. *The Service Industries Journal*, 11(3),324-343.

Sautter, E.T., & Leisen, B. (1999). Managing stakeholders – A tourism planning model. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), 312-328.

Schumacker, R.E., & Lomax, R.G. (1996). *A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modelling*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Schwarz, N., Knauper, B., Hippler, H., Noelle-Neumann, E., & Clark, L. (1991). Rating scales: Numeric values may change the meaning of scale labels. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 55(4), 570-582.

Shackley, M. (1998). *Visitor Management: Case Studies from World Heritage Sites*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Sharpley, R. (1994). *Tourism, Tourists, and Society*. Cambridgeshire: ELM Publications.

Shirai, M., & Meyer, R. (1997). Learning and the cognitive algebra of price expectations. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 6(4), 365-368.

Shostack, G. L. (1977). Breaking free from product marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 41(2), 73-80.

Shulman, A. (1973). A comparison of two scales on extremity response bias. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 37(3), 407-412..

Silberberg, T. (1995). Cultural tourism and business opportunities for museums and heritage sites. *Tourism Management*, 16(5), 361-365.

Singapore Tourism Board (2009). Visitor Arrivals. Retrieved 4 January, 2010, from <https://app.stb.gov.sg/asp/index.asp>

Sirakaya, E., Teye, V., & Sonmez, S. (2002). Understanding residents' support for tourism development in the central region of Ghana. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(1), 57-67.

SMG. (2008). Macao Meteorological and Geophysical Bureau. *Air Quality*. Retrieved 4 January, 2010, from [http://www.smg.gov.mo/www/ccaa/iqa/daily/fe\\_iqa\\_index\\_latest.htm](http://www.smg.gov.mo/www/ccaa/iqa/daily/fe_iqa_index_latest.htm)

Smith, S. L. J. (1995). *Tourism Analysis: A Handbook*. Harlow: Longman.

Social Research Association. (2003). *Ethical Guidelines*. Nottingham: Nottingham Trent University.

Solomon, M.R. (2002). *Consumer Behaviour*. Singapore: Prentice-Hall.

Spreng, R.A., Mackenzie, S.B. & Olshavsky, R.W. (1996). A re-examination of the determinants of consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(3), 15-32.

Steckler, A., McLeroy, K.R., Goodman, R.M., Bird, S.T., & McCormick, L. (1992). Toward integrating qualitative and quantitative methods: An introduction. *Health Education Quarterly*, 19(1), 1-8.

Steiger, J.H. (2001). Driving fast in reverse: The relationship between software development, theory, and education in structural equation modelling. *Journal of the American Statistical Association*, 96, 331-338.

Stevens, T.R. (1989). The visitor-Who cares? Interpretation and consumer relations. In D. Uzzell. (Ed.), *Heritage Interpretation* (Vol. 2) (pp.103-107). London: Belhaven Press.

Stevens, T.R. (1991). Visitor attractions: Their management and contribution to tourism. In C.P. Cooper. (Ed.), *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, Vol. 3 (pp.106-113). London: Belhaven Press.

Strauss, A. L. (1987). *Qualitative Analysis for Social Scientists*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Strauss, A.L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques* (2<sup>nd</sup> edition.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Strauss, A.L., & Corbin, J. (1990). *Basic of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Suddaby, R. (2006). From the editors: what grounded theory is not. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49 (4), 633-642.

Swanson, K.K., & Horridge, P.E. (2004). A structural model for souvenir consumption, travel activity, and tourist demographics. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(4), 372-380.

Swarbrooke, J. (1995). *The Development and Management of Visitor Attractions*. Oxford, England: Butterworth Heinemann.

Szucs, F.K., Daniels, M.J., & McGuire, F.A. (2002). Motivations of elder hostel participants in selected United States and European educational travel programs. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 9(1/2), 21-34.

Tahana, N., & Oppermann, M. (1998). Maori cultural performances and tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 23(1), 23-30.

Tam, J.L.M. (2000). The effects of service quality, perceived value and customer satisfaction on behavioral intentions. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, 6(4), 31-43.

Tan, J. (2010). Grounded theory in practice: Issues and discussion for new qualitative researchers. *Journal of Documentation*, 66(1), 93-112.

- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioural Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Taylor, K. (2004). Cultural heritage management: A possible role for charters and principles in Asia. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 10(5), 417-433.
- Taylor, S. A., & Baker, T. L. (1994). An assessment of the relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction in the formation of consumers' purchase intentions. *Journal of Retailing*, 70(2), 163-178.
- Teas, R.K. (1993). Expectations, performance evaluation and consumer's expectations of quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(4), 18-34.
- Teas, R.K. (1994). Expectations as a comparative standard in measuring service quality: An assessment and re-evaluation. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(1), 132-138.
- Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2003). Major issues and controversies in the use of mixed methods in the social and behavioural sciences. In A. Tashakkori., & C. Teddlie. (Eds.), *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social & Behavioural Research* (pp.3-50). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Terwee, S.J.S. (1990). *Hermeneutics in Psychology and Psychoanalysis*. Berlin: Springer.
- Teye, V., Sonmez, S.F., & Sirakaya, E. (2002). Residents' attitudes towards tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(3), 668-688.
- The National Trust. (1999). *Getting Started: How to Succeed in Heritage Tourism*. The National Trust.
- Thomas, G., & Fames, D. (2006). Reinventing grounded theory: Some questions about theory, grounded and discovery. *British Educational Research Journal*, 32(6), 767-795.
- Thrane, C. (2002). Music quality, satisfaction, and behavioural intentions within a Jazz Festival Context. *Event Management*, 7(3), 143-50.
- Tian-Cole, S., Crompton, J.L., & Wilson, V. L. (2002). An empirical investigation of the relationships between service quality, satisfaction and behavioural intentions among visitors to a wildlife refuge. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 34(1), 1-24.
- Tibe, J., & Snaith, T. (1998). From SERVQUAL to HOLSAT: Holiday satisfaction in Varadero, Cuba. *Tourism Management*, 19(1), 25-34.
- Tighe, A.J. (1985). Cultural tourism in the USA. *Tourism Management*, 6(4), 234-237.
- Tilden, F. (1977). *Interpreting our Heritage* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition). Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.

- Timothy, D. J., & Boyd, S. (2003). *Heritage Tourism*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Tirole, J. (1997). *The Theory of Industrial Organization*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- Truong, T.H. (2002). *Holiday satisfaction of Australian travelers in Vietnam: An application of the HOLSAT model*. Unpublished Master Dissertation. Melbourne, Australia: RMIT University.
- Truong, T.H., & King, B. (2009). An evaluation of satisfaction levels among Chinese Tourists in Vietnam. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11(6), 521-535.
- Tse, D.K., & Wilton, P.C. (1988). Models of consumer satisfaction formation: An extension. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25(2), 204-212.
- Tsai, H. (2006). *Casino industry in Asia Pacific: Development, operation and impact* (by Cathy H.C. Hsu) (Book review). *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1148-1149.
- Tucker, L.R., & Lewis, C. (1973). A reliability coefficient for maximum likelihood factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 38(1), 1-10.
- Um, S., & Crompton, J.L. (1990). Attitude determinants in tourism destination choice. *Annals of Tourism Research* 17(3), 432-448.
- UNESCO. (2008). *World Heritage*. Retrieved 4 January, 2010, from <http://whc.unesco.org/en/list>
- Urry, J. (1990). *The Tourist Gaze*. London: Sage Publications.
- Uysal, M., & Jurowski, C. (1993). An empirical testing of the push and pull factors of tourist motivations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 21 (4), 844-846.
- Uzzell, D. (1989). Introduction: The visitor experience. In D. Uzzell. (Ed.), *Heritage Interpretation* (Vol. 2) (pp.192-202). London: Belhaven Press.
- Vaske, J., Donnelly, M., & Heberlein, T. (1980). Perception of crowding and resource quality by early and more recent visitors. *Leisure Sciences*, 3(4), 367-81.
- van Harseel, J. (1994). *Tourism: An Exploration* (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition). Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Veal, A.J. (1992). *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism: A Practical Guide*. Harlow: Prentice Hall.
- Veal, A.J. (1997). *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism: A Practical Guide* (2<sup>nd</sup> Edition). London: Prentice Hall.
- Waitt, G. (2000). Consuming heritage: Perceived historical authenticity. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 27(4), 835-862.

- Wall, G. (2009). Tourism development: Towards sustainable outcomes. In F.L. Girard., & P. Nijkamp. (Eds.), *Cultural Tourism and Sustainable Local Development* (pp. 31-46). Surrey, Ashagte.
- Wan, Y.K.P. (2010). Exploratory assessment of the Macao casino dealers' job perceptions. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29 (1), 62-71.
- Wan, Y.K.P., & Kong, W.H. (2008). An assessment of the business environment for small tourism ventures development in the gaming city of Macao. *Journal of China Tourism Research*, 4(3/4), 297-318.
- Wan, Y.K.P., Pinheiro, F.V., & Korenaga, M. (2007): Planning for heritage conservation in Macao. *Planning and Development*, 22(1), pp.17-26.
- Waters, I. (1994). *Entertainment, Arts and Cultural Services*. London: Prentice Hall.
- Weaver, D.B., & Lawton, L.J. (2001). Resident perceptions in the urban-rural fringe. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(2), 439-458.
- Weiermair, K. (2000). Tourists' perceptions towards and satisfaction with service quality in the cross-cultural service encounter: Implications for hospitality and tourism management. *Managing Service Quality*, 10(6), 397-409.
- Westbrook, R. A., & Newman, J. W. (1978). An analysis of shopper dissatisfaction for major household appliances. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15(3), 456-466.
- White, C., & Yu, Y. T. (2005). Satisfaction emotions and consumer behavioral intentions. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 19(6/7), 411-420.
- Wiener, L.W. (1980). Cultural resources: An old asset—A new market for tourism. *Journal of Cultural Economics*, 4(1), 1-7.
- William, C., & Buswell, J. (2003). *Service Quality in Leisure and Tourism*. Wallingford, UK: CABI Publishing.
- Willig, C. (2001). *Introducing qualitative research in psychology. Adventures in theory and method*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Withey, L. (1998). *Grand Tours and Cook's Tours: A History of Leisure Travel 1750 to 1915*. London: Aurum Press.
- Woodruff, R. B., Cadotte, E. R., & Jenkins, R. L. (1983). Modelling consumer satisfaction processes using experience-based norms. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20(3), 296-304.
- Woodside, A.G., & King, R. I. (2001). An updated model of travel and tourism purchase-consumption systems. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 10(1), 3-27.
- Woodside, A.G., & Lysonski, S. (1989). A general model of traveler destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, 27(4), 8-14.

Woodside, A.G., MacDonald, R., & Burford, M. (2004). Grounded theory of leisure travel. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 17(1), 7-39.

World Heritage Committee (2005). *World Heritage 29 COM*. Paris: UNESCO World Heritage Centre.

World Tourism Organisation. (1999). *Tourism Satellite Account (TSA): The Conceptual Framework*. Madrid: World Tourism Organisation.

World Travel and Tourism Council. (2004). *Travel and Tourism Forging Ahead: The 2004 Travel and Tourism Economic Research*. London: World Travel and Tourism Council.

Wright, B.A., Duray, N., & Goodale, T.L. (1992). Assessing perceptions of recreation centre service quality: An application of recent advancements in service quality research. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 10(3), 33-37.

Wu, B., Tang, J., Zhao, F., Qiu, F., & Fang, F. (1997). A study on destination choice behaviour of Chinese urban residents. (in Chinese). *Acta Geographica Sinica*, 52(2), 97-103.

Xu, J.B. & Chan, A. (2010). A conceptual framework of hotel experience and customer-based brand equity: Some research questions and implications. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(2), 174-193.

Yale, P. (1991). *From Tourist Attractions to Heritage Tourism*. Huntingdon: ELM Publications.

Yan, G., So, S., Morrison, A. M., & Sun, Y. (2008). Activity segmentation of the international heritage tourism market to Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 12(4), 333-347.

Yi, Y. (1990). A critical review of consumer satisfaction. In V.A. Zeithaml. (Ed.), *Review of Marketing* (pp.68-123). Chicago: American Marketing Association.

Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: A structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 45-56.

Yuan, J., & Jang, S. (2008). The effects of quality and satisfaction on awareness and behavioural intentions: Exploring the role of a Wine Festival. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(3), 279-288.

Yüksel, F., Bramwell, B., & Yüksel, A. (1999). Stakeholder interviews and tourism planning at Pamukkale, Turkey. *Tourism Management*, 20(3), 351-360.

Yüksel, A. & Yüksel, F. (2001). Measurement and management issues in customer satisfaction research: Review, critique and research agenda: Part one. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 10(4), 47-80.

- Žabkar, V., Brenčič, M. M., & Dmitrović, T. (2010). Modelling perceived quality, visitor satisfaction and behavioural intentions at the destination level. *Tourism Management*, 31 (4), 537-546.
- Zaichkowsky, J.L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 12(3), 341-352.
- Zeithaml, V.A. (1985). The new demographics and market fragmentation. *Journal of Marketing*, 49 (3), 64-75.
- Zeithaml, V.A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of marketing*, 52(3), 2-22.
- Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L., & Parasuraman, A. (1988). Communication and control processes in the delivery of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 52(2), 35-48.
- Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L., & Parasuraman, A. (1990). *Delivering Service Quality: Balancing Consumer Perceptions and Expectations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Zeithaml, V.A., Berry, L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 60(2), 31-46.
- Zeppel, H., & Hall, C. (1992). Arts and heritage tourism. In B. Weiler, & C. Hall. (Eds.), *Special Interest Tourism* (pp.47-68). London: Belhaven Press.
- Zhang, H. Q., & Lam, T. (1999). An analysis of Mainland Chinese visitors' motivations to visit Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, 20(5), 587-594.
- Zhang, H.Q., & Chow, I. (2004). Application of importance-performance model in tour guides' performance: Evidence from mainland Chinese outbound visitors in Hong Kong. *Tourism Management*, 25(1), 81-91.
- Zhou, L., King, B., & Turner, L. (1998). The China outbound market: An evaluation of key constraints and opportunities. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 4(2), 109-119.



## Appendix A

### Interview questions in Study 1

Interview questions in Study 1 were organised in three categories as follows:

#### (1) Background information regarding cultural heritage tourism in Macao

- What do you think is the cultural heritage tourism development in Macao? Or what is the role of cultural heritage tourism development in Macao?
- What is your opinion on quality of cultural heritage tourism? (Quality of cultural heritage tourism itself, quality of experiences and quality of management of cultural heritage tourism)
- How do you see the future development of cultural heritage tourism? What areas of improvement should be implemented?
- What do you think is the behaviour/attitude of local residents or tourists towards cultural heritage tourism?

#### (2) Presentation of cultural heritage attractions in Macao

- Authenticity (What you think of the level of authenticity of the cultural heritage attractions show to local residents and travellers?)
- Use of guides (What do you think of the adequacy of the use of guides for people to understand the cultural heritage attractions?)
- Interpretation (What do you think of the ways of explaining to people the significance of the place or object?)
- Other issues (Are there any other issues related to presentation of cultural heritage attractions that you can think of?)

#### (3) Identification of quality attributes

- What do you think is significant in the cultural heritage places? And why?
- What attributes are important/ should be processed in quality cultural heritage products/sites?

## Appendix B

### The profile of respondents in Study 1

Interview Date	Interviewees
26 Feb 2007	<b>Respondent 1</b> Vice-President of Cultural Affairs Bureau <sup>1</sup>
2 March 2007	<b>Respondent 2</b> Chairman of Macau Hotel Association and General Manager of Hotel Lisboa <sup>1</sup>
6 March 2007	<b>Respondent 3</b> Head of Special Project Division of Cultural Affairs Bureau <sup>2</sup>
9 March 2007	<b>Respondent 4</b> Vice-President of Neighbourhood Association Committee of Tourism Development <sup>1</sup>
9 March 2007	<b>Respondent 5</b> Architect of Cultural Affairs Bureau <sup>3</sup>
20 March 2007	<b>Respondent 6</b> Deputy of Legislative Assembly Macau, Chief Member of New Macau Association and Union for Democracy Development, Macau <sup>3</sup>
23 March 2007	<b>Respondent 7</b> Senior Executive of Research and Planning Department (Macau Government Tourist Office) <sup>3</sup>
23 March 2007	<b>Respondent 8</b> President of Macau Tourist Guide Association <sup>1</sup>
26 March 2007	<b>Respondent 9</b> Architect and Planner <sup>3</sup>
27 March 2007	<b>Respondent 10</b> Department Head of Technical Support of Civil and Municipal Affairs Bureau <sup>2</sup>
30 March 2007	<b>Respondent 11</b> President of Wynn Resort (Macau), S.A <sup>1</sup>
9 April 2007	<b>Respondent 12</b> Representative of Macao Art Museum <sup>2</sup>

Notes: <sup>1</sup>, first list of prospective interviewees, <sup>2</sup> are the representatives of the first list of prospective interviewees, <sup>3</sup> are the second list of prospective interviewees.

## Appendix C: Questionnaire of Study 2 (English Version)

Interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Date of Time: \_\_\_\_\_ Reject Rate: \_\_\_\_\_  
**Good afternoon/evening. We are students from the Institute For Tourism Studies and are currently conducting a survey regarding cultural heritage tourism in Macao. It will only take a few minutes and your cooperation is much appreciated.**

**Screening questions:**

- Are you a Macao resident? *(If yes, terminate the interview)*
- Have you got the experience in cultural heritage in Macao? *(If no, terminate the interview)*

### **Part I: Experience in Quality Cultural Heritage Tourism**

The following questions ask you to give a mark from 1 to 5 for the overall experience towards visiting Macao's cultural heritage (with **5 being AGREE** and **1 being DISAGREE**). Please circle the appropriate number for each statement.

	Disagree			Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The overall experience towards visiting Macao's cultural heritage is good.					

### **Part II: Perceived Quality**

The following questions ask you to give a mark from 1 to 5 for a range of perceived quality and importance of quality attributes (with **5 being AGREE** and **1 being VERY DISAGREE**). Please circle the appropriate number for each statement.

	Disagree			Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The treatment received from the cultural heritage' staff.					
2. The cultural heritages' staff willingness to look after visitors.					
3. The installations (such as signages) in the cultural heritage.					
4. The informative panels are positively created in the cultural heritage.					
5. The atmosphere is positively created in the cultural heritage.					
6. I consider the visit to the cultural heritage to have been a good educational or instructive experience					
7. I consider the exhibition of the objects and materials in the cultural heritage to be excellent.					
8. I consider the cultural heritage resources are authentic.					
9. I consider the cultural heritage resources are presented through good interpretation.					

### **Part III: Satisfaction with Cultural Heritage in Macao**

The following questions ask you to give a mark from 1 to 5 for a range of satisfaction of the trip, with **5 being AGREE** and **1 being DISAGREE**. Please circle the appropriate number for each statement.

	Disagree			Agree	
	1	2	3	4	5
1. This is one of the best destinations I could have visited.					
2. I am pleased with my decision to visit the cultural heritage in Macao.					
3. I have really had a good time; I have had fun in Macao.					
4. Macao is a city of cultural heritage.					
5. The overall satisfaction towards visiting Macao's cultural heritage					

#### **Part IV: Behavioural Intentions towards Cultural Heritage in Macao**

The following questions ask you to give a mark from 1 to 5 for a range of future behaviours, with **5 being AGREE** and **1 being DISAGREE**. Please circle the appropriate number for each statement.

	Disagree			Agree	
1. I will recommend someone to visit Macao.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I will say positive things about the cultural heritage in Macao.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have bought a book or guide for more information.	1	2	3	4	5
4. If there were a shop, I would buy a souvenir. / I have already bought a souvenir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I will visit Macao again because of cultural heritage.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I will visit Macao again because of other attractions.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I will visit the neighboring destinations of Macao (Please specify: _____)	1	2	3	4	5
8. I will stay longer in Macao.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I will not come back to Macao.	1	2	3	4	5

#### **Part V: Authenticity Index**

The following questions ask you to give a mark from 1 to 5 for a range of authenticity, with **5 being AUTHENTIC** and **1 being INAUTHENTIC**. Please circle the appropriate number for each statement.

	Inauthentic			Authentic	
1. Displays	1	2	3	4	5
2. Photographs	1	2	3	4	5
3. Historic restoration	1	2	3	4	5
4. Historic reenactments	1	2	3	4	5
5. Architecture	1	2	3	4	5
6. Video	1	2	3	4	5
7. Interpretive signs	1	2	3	4	5

#### **Part VI: The Performance of Guides in Cultural Heritage Attractions**

The following questions ask you to give a mark from 1 to 5 for a range of performance of guides in cultural heritage tourism, with **5 being AGREE** and **1 being DISAGREE**. Please circle the appropriate number for each statement.

	Disagree			Agree	
1. Expression of personal opinions (neither too passive nor aggressive)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Knowledge of the attractions	1	2	3	4	5
3. Honest and trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5
4. Inform safety regulations	1	2	3	4	5
5. Good presentation skills	1	2	3	4	5
6. Well trained	1	2	3	4	5
7. Respect visitors	1	2	3	4	5
8. Friendly	1	2	3	4	5
9. Always available for help	1	2	3	4	5
10. Pay attention to visitors' needs	1	2	3	4	5
11. Sense of humor	1	2	3	4	5
12. Encouragements or agreements (encourages audience to interact)	1	2	3	4	5

**Part VII: Educational Benefit Gained by Travellers**

The following questions ask you to give a mark from 1 to 5 for a range of authenticity, with 5 being AGREE and 1 being DISAGREE. Please circle the appropriate number for each statement.

	Disagree			Agree	
1. Be close to the cultural heritage	1	2	3	4	5
2. Learn about the culture	1	2	3	4	5
3. Develop my knowledge of cultural heritage	1	2	3	4	5
4. Learn about history	1	2	3	4	5
5. Learn more traditions	1	2	3	4	5
6. Experience the culture	1	2	3	4	5

**Part VIII: Activities in Macao (Can choose more than one choice)**

- 1. Museums
- 2. Religious sites (temples and churches)
- 3. Festival and special events
- 4. Historic sites
- 5. Living culture
- 6. Others: \_\_\_\_\_

**Part IX: The suggestions for Other Kinds of Tourism Development in Macao (Can choose more than one choice)**

- 1. Improve outdoor/recreation facilities
- 2. Develop more activities/things to do
- 3. Better information for tourists
- 4. Entertainment
- 5. Improve transportation/facilities/ roads
- 6. More tourism related facilities
- 7. Improve levels of service to tourists
- 8. More folk/ethnic events and facilities
- 9. Others: \_\_\_\_\_

**Part X: Open-ended Questions**

1. What images or characteristics come to mind when you think of Macao as a cultural heritage destination (use five words)?  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. How would you describe the atmosphere or mood while visiting Macao (use five words)?  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. List three cultural heritage sites that you can think of Macao?  
\_\_\_\_\_

**Part XI: General Information of This Trip**

Is it the first time you visit Macao?

Yes  No, how many times (not include this visit)? \_\_\_\_\_time(s)

What is your primary purpose for the visiting?

Cultural Heritage  Gaming  Entertainment  Others: \_\_\_\_\_

Did you know the UNESCO's World Heritage sites before you came to Macao?  Yes  No

Length of Stay in Macao: \_\_\_\_\_

How many days have you devoted to visiting cultural heritage sites while visiting Macao?

\_\_\_\_\_  
Group size (include yourself): \_\_\_\_\_

Total expenditure in this trip: \_\_\_\_\_

How often do you travel every year? \_\_\_\_\_

**Part XII: Demographic Data**

**Sex**

Male

Female

**Occupation**

Senior management

Professionals

White-collar worker

Blue-collar worker

Students

Unemployed

Self-employed

Others, please specify \_\_\_\_\_

Monthly Income (USD) \_\_\_\_\_

Age \_\_\_\_\_

**Educational Level**

Primary school or below

High school or vocational training

Bachelor degree or above

**Nationality**

Hong Kong

Mainland China

Taiwan

Japan

Other, please specify: \_\_\_\_\_

**~END~**

## Appendix D: Questionnaire of Study 2 (Chinese Version)

訪問者:\_\_\_\_\_ 訪問日期:\_\_\_\_\_ 訪問時間:\_\_\_\_\_ 拒絕率:\_\_\_\_\_

早上/下午好! 我們是澳門旅遊學院學生, 現正進行一個關於文化遺產旅遊之研究。此問卷只須數分鐘, 謝謝你的參與。

### 篩選問題:

- 你是否澳門居民? (若是, 請終止問卷調查)
- 你是否曾感受澳門的文化遺產? (若否, 請終止問卷調查)

### 第一部份: 對澳門文化遺產的總體經驗

請指出對澳門文化遺產的總體經驗之同意程度, 5 是同意和 1 是不同意, 請圈出適當的答案。

	不同意				同意
1. 對文化遺產的總體經驗。	1	2	3	4	5

### 第二部份: 對澳門文化遺產的認知質素

請指出對下列關於澳門文化遺產的認知質素之同意程度, 5 是同意和 1 是不同意, 請圈出適當的答案。

	不同意				同意
1. 在參觀文化遺產所受到員工之待遇。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 文化遺產內員工的服務意願。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 文化遺產內的設備(如指示牌)。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 文化遺產內所提供有關教育意義的資料。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 文化遺產內的氣份環境。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 我認為參觀文化遺產是教育或增進知識的經驗。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 展示出來的文化遺產之質素。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 文化遺產的真實性。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 文化遺產的詮釋展示技巧。	1	2	3	4	5

### 第三部份: 對澳門文化遺產之滿意度

請指出對澳門文化遺產的滿意度之同意程度, 5 是同意和 1 是不同意, 請圈出適當的答案。

	不同意				同意
1. 這是我所遊覽過其中一個最好的旅遊目的地。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我很開心決定到澳門遊覽文化遺產。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我已經在澳門得到愉快和有趣的經驗。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 澳門是文化遺產城市。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 對文化遺產的總體滿意度。	1	2	3	4	5

#### 第四部份: 遊覽澳門的文化遺產後之行爲意向

請指出對遊覽澳門的文化遺產後的行爲意向之同意程度，5 是同意和 1 是不同意，請圈出適當的答案。

	不同意				同意
1. 我會推薦其他人到澳門遊覽。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 我將會對澳門的文化遺產作出正面的意見。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 我已經買了相關書籍和指引。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 如果有店舖的話，我將會買相關紀念品/我已經買了相關紀念品。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 因為澳門的文化遺產，我會再遊覽澳門。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 因為澳門的其他景點，我會再遊覽澳門。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 我將會遊覽澳門鄰近地區 (請指出: _____)	1	2	3	4	5
8. 我將會延長逗留時間。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 我不會再來澳門。	1	2	3	4	5

#### 第五部份: 真實性指數

請對真實性指數作出評價，5 是真實和 1 是不真實，請圈出適當的答案。

	不真實				真實
1. 展示品	1	2	3	4	5
2. 相片	1	2	3	4	5
3. 歷史文物修復	1	2	3	4	5
4. 歷史文化再重現	1	2	3	4	5
5. 建築	1	2	3	4	5
6. 影像	1	2	3	4	5
7. 詮譯技巧	1	2	3	4	5

#### 第六部份: 文化遺產景點的導賞質素

請指出文化遺產景點的導賞質素之同意程度，5 是同意和 1 是不同意，請圈出適當的答案。

	不同意				同意
1. 表達個人意見方面(過於主觀或客觀)	1	2	3	4	5
2. 對景點的知識程度	1	2	3	4	5
3. 誠實度和可信度	1	2	3	4	5
4. 安全知識的資料	1	2	3	4	5
5. 展示文化遺產技巧	1	2	3	4	5
6. 有良好培訓	1	2	3	4	5
7. 尊重旅客	1	2	3	4	5
8. 友善	1	2	3	4	5
9. 樂意提供協助	1	2	3	4	5
10. 注意旅客需要	1	2	3	4	5
11. 幽默	1	2	3	4	5
12. 鼓勵和同意 (鼓勵旅客與其互動)	1	2	3	4	5



### 第七部份: 旅客從文化遺產所得到的教育性益處

請指出旅客從文化遺產所得到的教育性益處，5 是同意和 1 是不同意，請圈出適當的答案。

	不同意				同意
1. 與文化遺產有近距離接觸	1	2	3	4	5
2. 認識文化	1	2	3	4	5
3. 增加對文化遺產之知識	1	2	3	4	5
4. 認識歷史	1	2	3	4	5
5. 學習傳統文化	1	2	3	4	5
6. 感受文化	1	2	3	4	5

### 第八部份: 留澳之活動(可複選)

- 1. 博物館
- 2. 宗教景點 (廟宇和教堂)
- 3. 節日與慶典
- 4. 歷史景點
- 5. 現存文化
- 6. 其他: \_\_\_\_\_

### 第九部份: 對澳門旅遊發展之意見 (可複選)

- 1. 改善戶外/休閒設施
- 2. 發展多項活動/景點
- 3. 為旅客增供更多的資訊
- 4. 娛樂
- 5. 改善交通/相關設施/道路
- 6. 增加與旅遊相關的設施
- 7. 改善對旅客之服務質素
- 8. 增加民間節日活動
- 9. 其他: \_\_\_\_\_

### 第十部份: 開放式問題

1. 當你想起澳門是文化遺產目的地時，你會聯想甚麼形象或特式(請用五個形容詞)?

---

2. 當你遊澳時，你會期望甚麼經驗、氣氛和情緒(請用五個形容詞)?

---

3. 請舉例三個你所想到的澳門文化遺產?

---

## 第十一部份: 今次旅程資料

你是否第一次到澳門旅遊?

是  否, 共多少次 (不包括這次旅遊)? \_\_\_\_\_次

你今次遊澳的主要目的是甚麼?

文化遺產  博彩  娛樂  其他: \_\_\_\_\_

在你來澳之前, 請問你是否認識澳門世遺景點?  是  否

在澳門逗留時間: \_\_\_\_\_

遊覽文化遺產景點的天數: \_\_\_\_\_

今次同行人數(包括自己): \_\_\_\_\_

今次留澳消費金額: \_\_\_\_\_

每年旅遊次數: \_\_\_\_\_

## 第十二部份: 個人資料

### 性別

男性

女性

### 職業

高級管理階層

專業人士

白領

藍領

學生

待業人士

自願人士

其他, 請指出 \_\_\_\_\_

薪金(美金): \_\_\_\_\_

年齡: \_\_\_\_\_

### 教育程度

小學或以下

中學或職業學校

大專或以上

### 國籍

香港

中國大陸

台灣

日本

其他, 請指出: \_\_\_\_\_

~完~