บันทึกข้อความ

ส่วนงาน กองนโยบาย ยุทธศาสตร์ และแผน สำนักงานอธิการบดี **โทร.** ๒๐๖๗

ที่ มอ ๐๐๓.๓/๖๕-๗๐๙๔ **วันที่** ๓๐ สิงหาคม ๒๕๖๕

เรื่อง การขอกำหนดอัตรารองรับพนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยประเภทวิชาการ ตำแหน่งคณาจารย์ประจำที่เกษียณอายุ ปีงบประมาณ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๗ (อยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ ณ วันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๖)

เรียน รองอธิการบดีวิทยาเขต/ คณบดี/ ผู้อำนวยการ ส่วนงานวิชาการ

ตามประกาศมหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ เรื่อง หลักเกณฑ์และวิธีการให้พนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยประเภทวิชาการ ตำแหน่งคณาจารย์ประจำที่เกษียณอายุอยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๑ ข้อ ๔ กำหนดว่า “ให้ส่วนงานพิจารณาให้พนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยที่ปฏิบัติงานในส่วนงานนั้น ๆ ที่เกษียณอายุอยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ ดังนี้

(๑) เป็นกรณีที่มีเหตุผลและความจำเป็นของส่วนงานและเพื่อประโยชน์ของมหาวิทยาลัย มิใช่สิทธิของพนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยที่จะขออยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ

(๒) พิจารณาจากภาระงานของส่วนงานเป็นสำคัญซึ่งงานนั้น ๆ มีความจำเป็นและขาดแคลน ต้องมีผู้ปฏิบัติงานที่มีความรู้ความสามารถและมีประสบการณ์อย่างต่อเนื่องประกอบกับคุณสมบัติ ภาระงานและผลงานทางวิชาการ

(๓) ส่วนงานจะต้องมีอัตรารองรับสำหรับการให้อยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ”

ดังนั้น หากส่วนงานวิชาการประสงค์จะขอกำหนดอัตรารองรับพนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยประเภทวิชาการ ตำแหน่งคณาจารย์ประจำ ที่เกษียณอายุราชการ (วันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๖) เพื่ออยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อประจำปีงบประมาณ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๗ (วันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๖) โดยขอให้ส่วนงานวิชาการดำเนินการตามแบบฟอร์มที่กำหนดพร้อมให้ส่วนงานโดยคณะกรรมการประจำส่วนงานพิจารณากำหนดภาระงานให้ผู้เกษียณอายุอยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ โดยขอให้เสนอมหาวิทยาลัยพิจารณา ภายในวันที่ ๓๐ กันยายน ๒๕๖๕

อนึ่ง บุคคลที่ได้รับอนุมัติการกำหนดอัตรารองรับพนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยประเภทวิชาการ ตำแหน่งคณาจารย์ประจำที่เกษียณอายุอยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ ณ วันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๕ เรียบร้อยแล้ว ไม่ต้องนำเสนอมหาวิทยาลัยอนุมัติอีก (ตามหนังสือ ๐๐๓.๓/๖๔-๐๗๖๑ ลงวันที่ ๑๘ พฤศจิกายน ๒๕๖๔)

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดทราบและพิจารณาดำเนินการต่อไป

(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พงค์เทพ สุธีรวุฒิ)
รองอธิการบดีฝ่ายวางแผนและนโยบายสาธารณะ

<u>แบบฟอร์ม</u>การขอกำหนดอัตรารองรับพนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยประเภทวิชาการ
ตำแหน่งคณาจารย์ประจำที่เกษียณอายุ ปีงบประมาณ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๗
(อยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ ณ วันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๖)

ตำแหน่ง _____ **เลขที่** _____

ชื่อ – สกุล _____

เกษียณอายุราชการ ปีงบประมาณ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๗ (ออกวันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๖)

๑) เหตุผลความจำเป็น

- ด้านการเรียนการสอน

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- ด้านการวิจัย

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- ด้านการบริการวิชาการ

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- ด้านอื่น ๆ (ถ้ามี)

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๒) ภาระงานที่คาดว่าจะมอบหมายให้

- ด้านการเรียนการสอน

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- ด้านการวิจัย

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- ด้านการบริการวิชาการ

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_____

- ด้านอื่น ๆ (ถ้ามี)

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ส่วนงาน
วิทยาเขตหาดใหญ่
คณะการจัดการสิ่งแวดล้อม
คณะการแพทย์แผนไทย
คณะทรัพยากรธรรมชาติ
คณะทันตแพทยศาสตร์
คณะเทคนิคการแพทย์
คณะนิติศาสตร์
คณะพยาบาลศาสตร์
คณะแพทยศาสตร์
คณะเภสัชศาสตร์
คณะวิทยาการจัดการ
คณะวิทยาศาสตร์
คณะวิศวกรรมศาสตร์
คณะศิลปศาสตร์
คณะเศรษฐศาสตร์
คณะสัตวแพทยศาสตร์
คณะอุตสาหกรรมเกษตร
บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย
วิทยาลัยนานาชาติ วิทยาเขตหาดใหญ่
สถาบันนโยบายสาธารณะ
สถาบันสันติศึกษา
สถาบันฮาลาล
วิทยาเขตปัตตานี
คณะพยาบาลศาสตร์ วิทยาเขตปัตตานี
คณะมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์
คณะรัฐศาสตร์
คณะวิทยาการสื่อสาร
คณะวิทยาการอิสลาม
คณะวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี
คณะศิลปกรรมศาสตร์
คณะศึกษาศาสตร์
สถาบันวัฒนธรรมศึกษากัลยาณิวัฒนา

ส่วนงาน
วิทยาเขตภูเก็ต
คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว
คณะเทคโนโลยีและสิ่งแวดล้อม
คณะวิเทศศึกษา
วิทยาลัยการคอมพิวเตอร์
วิทยาเขตสุราษฎร์ธานี
คณะวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยีอุตสาหกรรม
คณะศิลปศาสตร์และวิทยาการจัดการ
โครงการจัดตั้งคณะนวัตกรรมการเกษตรและประมง
วิทยาลัยนานาชาติ วิทยาเขตสุราษฎร์ธานี
วิทยาเขตตรัง
คณะพาณิชยศาสตร์และการจัดการ
คณะสถาปัตยกรรมศาสตร์

หลักเกณฑ์การให้พนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยอยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ พ.ศ.2563

01 คุณสมบัติ

1. เกษียณอายุตั้งแต่ 1 ต.ค.63
2. อายุไม่กิน 65 ปี
3. ตำแหน่งศาสตราจารย์ หรือ
4. รองศาสตราจารย์ วุฒิปริญญาเอก หรือ ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ วุฒิปริญญาเอก ซึ่งได้รับการแต่งตั้งให้ได้รงตำแหน่ง รองศาสตราจารย์ ก่อนวันสิ้นปีงบประมาณที่เกษียณอายุ

   กรณีรองศาสตราจารย์

   ☑ เป็น อ. คุมวิทยานิพนธ์ นศ.ปริญญาเอก หรือ
   ☑ เป็น อ. ผู้รับผิดชอบหลักสูตรบัณฑิตศึกษา หรือ
   ☑ เป็นพี่เลี้ยงบ่มเพาะนักวิจัย ถ่ายทอดความรู้ให้กับนักวิจัยใหม่
5. มีผลการประเมิน TOR ตามที่ส่วนงานกำหนด
6. มีผลงานทางวิชาการ (ได้รับการเผยแพร่ตามที่ ก.พ.อ.กำหนด) ย้อนหลัง 3 ปี จนถึงวันสิ้นปีงบประมาณของปีที่เกษียณอายุ ได้แก่
   - งานวิจัย
   - ผลงานทางวิชาการในลักษณะอื่น
   - ผลงานวิชาการับใช้สังคม
   - ตำรา
   - หนังสือ

การอยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ

- คราวละ 1 ปี
- อายุไม่เกิน 65 ปี
- ดำรงตำแหน่งหรือปฏิบัติหน้าที่ในตำแหน่งประเภทผู้บริหารไม่ได้

เงินเดือน เงินประจำตำแหน่ง/ค่าตอบแทน

- อัตราเงินเดือน ไม่เกินเงินเดือนสุดท้ายก่อนที่ผู้นั้นจะเกษียณ และไม่เกินจำนวนที่ได้รับจัดสรรจากสำนักงบประมาณ
- เงินประจำตำแหน่ง หรือค่าตอบแทนตามหลักเกณฑ์ของพนักงานมหาวิทยาลัย

02 มีภาระงานและผลการปฏิบัติงาน

อย่างน้อย 2 ข้อ ใน 4 ข้อ ดังนี้

1. **ทุนวิจัย** (หาทุนและได้รับทุนวิจัย เฉลี่ย/ปี)
   - สาขาวิทยาศาสตร์สุขภาพและวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี ไม่น้อยกว่า 2 ล้านบาท
   - สาขามนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ ไม่น้อยกว่า 1 ล้านบาท
2. **ผลงานวิจัยตีพิมพ์** (เฉลี่ยปีละไม่น้อยกว่า 2 เรื่อง)
   - สาขาวิทยาศาสตร์สุขภาพและวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี ตีพิมพ์ Web of Science (เฉพาะ SCIE /SSCI /AHCI)
   - สาขามนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์ ตีพิมพ์ Scopus หรือฐานข้อมูลนานาชาติตามที่ ก.พ.อ.กำหนด
3. ***Mentor* หรือผู้นำทีมวิจัย** (ปีละอย่างน้อย 2 คน)
   1. อาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ หรือ อาจารย์ในสาขา หรือ
   2. นศ.ระดับบัณฑิตศึกษา หรือ
   3. ผู้นำทีมวิจัย หรืออาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงทีมวิจัย
4. **ภาระงานที่เป็นประโยชน์ต่อส่วนงานมหาวิทยาลัย และสังคม** (ในแต่ละปี) ดังนี้
   1.ภารกิจที่มีความสำคัญหลักในการพัฒนางานของส่วนงานหรือมหาวิทยาลัย หรือ
   2.การไปปฏิบัติงานในภาคอุตสาหกรรม/ภาคธุรกิจ/ภาคประชาสังคม /การปฏิบัติงานอื่นๆ หรือ
   3.การได้รับเชิญเป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญ หรือผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิไปร่วมกิจกรรมทางวิชาการในประเทศหรือต่างประเทศ หรือ
   4. การได้ร้บเชิญไปเสนอผลงานทางวิชาการ หรือบรรยายทางวิชาการ ในประเทศหรือต่างประเทศ หรือ
   5.การได้ร้บเชิญเป็นที่ปรึกษาเฉพาะด้านในองค์กรวิชาการหรือวิชาชีพ

03 การดำเนินการของส่วนงาน

1. เสนอขอกำหนดอัตรากำลังและงบประมาณล่วงหน้าอย่างน้อย 2 ปี ก่อนที่พนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยจะเกษียณอายุ
2. กำหนดภาระงาน เพื่อให้พนักงานปฏิบัติและใช้เป็น TOR สำหรับการประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงานประจำปี ดังนี้
   2.1 ภาระงาน อย่างน้อย 2 ข้อ ใน 4 ข้อ ดังนี้
      (1) ทุนวิจัย
      (2) ผลงานวิจัยตีพิมพ์
      (3) Mentor หรือ ผู้นำทีมวิจัย
      (4) ภาระงานที่เป็นประโยชน์ต่อส่วนงานมหาวิทยาลัยและสังคมในแต่ละปี
   2.2 ภาระงานอื่น ตามที่ส่วนงานกำหนด

NAWAPORN 12 /03/63

แบบฟอร์มการขอกำหนดอัตรารองรับพนักงานมหาวิทยาลัยประเภทวิชาการ
ตำแหน่งคณาจารย์ประจำที่เกษียณอายุ ปีงบประมาณ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๗
(อยู่ปฏิบัติงานต่อ ณ วันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๖)

ตำแหน่ง รองศาสตราจารย์ เลขที่ 1174
ชื่อ - สกุล รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ปรารถนา กาลเนาวกุล
เกษียณอายุราชการปีงบประมาณ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๗ (ออกวันที่ ๑ ตุลาคม ๒๕๖๗)

๑) เหตุผลความจำเป็น

- ด้านการสอน

ตามที่มหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ได้เปิดหลักสูตรใหม่ระดับบัณฑิตศึกษาด้านการท่องเที่ยว จำนวนสองหลักสูตร ประกอบด้วยหลักสูตรบริหารธุรกิจมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาการจัดการการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวแบบบูรณาการ (หลักสูตรนานาชาติ) และหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาการจัดการการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวแบบบูรณาการ (หลักสูตรนานาชาติ) โดยทั้งสองหลักสูตรเป็นหลักกลางสังกัดบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย และบัณฑิตวิทยาลัยได้มอบหมายให้คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวเป็นผู้รับผิดชอบในการบริหารจัดการหลักสูตรดังกล่าว ทั้งนี้มหาวิทยาลัยมีบุคลากรที่มีคุณสมบัติเพียงพอในการสอนและเป็นที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอกจำนวนจำกัด ดังนั้นเพื่อเป็นการสร้างความเข้มแข็งของหลักสูตรและช่วยให้หลักสูตรดำเนินไปได้ด้วยความเรียบร้อย คณะฯ มีความจำเป็นต้องมีผู้ที่มีประสบการณ์ด้านการบริหารจัดการหลักสูตรและมีประสบการณ์ตีพิมพ์ระดับนานาชาติด้านการท่องเที่ยวเพื่อช่วยในการบริหารจัดการหลักสูตร การเรียนการสอนและการเป็นที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์เพื่อสร้างความเข้มแข็งของหลักสูตรให้มีคุณภาพเป็นที่ยอมรับในระดับสากล

- ด้านการวิจัย

คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว มีความมุ่งมั่นในการผลิตงานวิจัยและตีพิมพ์ระดับนานาชาติ จึงมีความจำเป็นในการรักษาบุคลากรที่มีศักยภาพและประสบการณ์การทำงานวิจัยและตีพิมพ์ระดับนานาชาติ เพื่อช่วยคณะฯ ในการพัฒนาองค์ความรู้ผ่านกระบวนการวิจัยที่เชื่อมโยงศาสตร์ด้านอื่น ๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการท่องเที่ยว เช่น ภาษาและวัฒนธรรม เพื่อยกระดับองค์ความรู้และการตีพิมพ์ด้านการท่องเที่ยวในระดับสากลของคณะฯ และนำไปสู่การยอมรับทางวิชาการในระดับสากล

- ด้านบริการวิชาการ

-

- ด้านอื่น ๆ

คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวจัดการเรียนการสอนโดยหลักสูตรนานาชาติในทุกระดับ แต่ประสบปัญหาทักษะภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาจำนวนมากที่รับเข้าศึกษายังขาดความเข้มแข็งของทักษะ

ภาษาอังกฤษเชิงวิชาการและยังคงต้องได้รับการพัฒนาทักษะภาษาอังกฤษตลอดระยะเวลาการเรียนของหลักสูตรเพื่อให้สามารถยกระดับทักษะภาษาอังกฤษให้เพียงพอในการเรียนได้อย่างมีคุณภาพตลอดจนสำเร็จการศึกษาเป็นบัณฑิตที่มีคุณสมบัติตามที่หลักสูตรกำหนดและตรงตามคาดหวังของผู้ใช้บัณฑิต ดังนั้นคณะฯ จึงมีความจำเป็นในการเร่งพัฒนาทักษะภาษาอังกฤษเชิงวิชาการของนักศึกษาในทุกระดับชั้นทั้งปริญญาตรี โท และเอก เพื่อเป็นเครื่องมือที่สำคัญในการเรียนหลักสูตรนานาชาติ

นอกจากนี้ คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวมีความมุ่งมั่นในการสร้างบทบาทที่สำคัญในเวทีวิชาการในระดับนานาชาติ โดยที่ผ่านมา คณะฯ ได้มีบทบาทสำคัญในการบริหารองค์กรวิชาการด้านการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวที่มีชื่อเสียงมากที่สุดในภูมิภาคเอเชียแปซิฟิกคือ Asia Pacific Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education (APacCHRIE) โดยที่ APacCHRIE ได้คัดเลือกและแต่งตั้งให้ รศ.ดร.ปรารถนา กาลเนาวกุล ดำรงตำแหน่งเป็นผู้บริหารขององค์กรดังกล่าวในตำแหน่ง Area Consultant II: ASEAN คณะฯ มีความจำเป็นต้องรักษาตำแหน่งและบทบาทที่สำคัญในวงการวิชาการระดับนานาชาติเพื่อเป็นกลไกสำคัญในการสร้างความร่วมมือและการเป็นที่ยอมรับทางวิชาการกับนักวิจัยและมหาวิทยาลัยชั้นนำด้านการท่องเที่ยวในระดับนานาชาติและนำไปสู่การได้รับการจัดอันดับใน QS University World Rankings ในสาขา Hospitality and Leisure Management

๒) ภาระงานที่คาดว่าจะมอบหมายให้

- ด้านการสอน
  ๑. เป็นที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์นักศึกษาระดับบัณฑิตศึกษา

- ด้านการวิจัย
  ๑. เป็นผู้นำทีมวิจัยดำเนินการโครงการวิจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการจัดการการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวโดยมีอาจารย์ในคณะฯ อย่างน้อย ๒ คน เป็นผู้ร่วมโครงการ

- ด้านการบริการวิชาการ
  -

- ด้านอื่น ๆ (ถ้ามี)
  ๑. เป็นกรรมการบริหารหลักสูตรบริหารธุรกิจมหาบัณฑิต สาขาการจัดการการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวแบบบูรณาการ และหลักสูตรปรัชญาดุษฎีบัณฑิต สาขาการจัดการการบริการและการท่องเที่ยวแบบบูรณาการ โดยเน้นการสร้างความเข้มแข็งของหลักสูตร สร้างความเป็นนานาชาติให้มีคุณภาพเป็นที่ยอมรับในระดับสากล
  ๒. เป็นกรรมการบริหาร/ที่ปรึกษาองค์กรวิชาการระดับนานาชาติ เช่น Asia Pacific Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (APacCHRIE)
  ๓. พัฒนาภาษาอังกฤษเชิงวิชาการของนักศึกษาคณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว

บันทึกข้อความ

ส่วนงาน คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว **โทร** ๖๘๐๔

ที่ ม.อ. ๓๐๒/๖๕-๐๗๕๗ วันที่ ๑๕ กันยายน ๒๕๖๕

เรื่อง การแต่งตั้งอาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว

เรียน รองอธิการบดีฝ่ายทรัพยากรบุคคลและพัฒนาคุณภาพ

ตามที่คณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว ได้จ้างอาจารย์ใหม่ จำนวน ๑ ราย คือ นายวันนริศา วัฏฏ์ และเพื่อให้เป็นไปตามประกาศมหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ เรื่อง หลักเกณฑ์ การยกย่อง เชิดชูเกียรติ พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ มหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๐ ลงวันที่ ๑๘ กันยายน ๒๕๖๐ นั้น ในการนี้ คณะฯ จึงได้แต่งตั้งอาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ ดังนี้

ลำดับ	อาจารย์ใหม่	อาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่
๑	นายวันนริศา วัฏฏ์ ตำแหน่งอาจารย์ เลขที่ G๑๕๖ พนักงานเงินรายได้ เริ่มปฏิบัติงานตั้งแต่วันที่ ๑๒ กรกฎาคม ๒๕๖๔	รศ.ดร.ปรารถนา กาลเนาวกุล

จึงเรียนมาเพื่อโปรดทราบและพิจารณาดำเนินการต่อไป จะเป็นพระคุณยิ่ง

(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.พรพิษณุ พรหมศิวะพัลลภ)
คณบดีคณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว

คำสั่งคณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว
ที่ ๒๙/๒๕๖๕
เรื่อง แต่งตั้งอาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่

.....

เพื่อให้เป็นไปตามประกาศมหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ เรื่อง หลักเกณฑ์ การยกย่องเชิดชูเกียรติ พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ มหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๐ ลงวันที่ ๑๘ กันยายน ๒๕๖๐ อาศัยอำนาจตามความในมาตรา ๔๔ แห่งพระราชบัญญัติมหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ พ.ศ. ๒๕๕๙ จึงขอแต่งตั้งอาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ จำนวน ๑ ราย ดังนี้

ลำดับ	อาจารย์ใหม่	อาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่
๑	นายวันนริศา วัฏฏ์	รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ปรารถนา กาลเนาวกุล

ทั้งนี้ ตั้งแต่วันที่ ๑๒ กันยายน ๒๕๖๕ เป็นต้นไป

สั่ง ณ วันที่ ๑๕ กันยายน ๒๕๖๕

(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. พรพิษณุ พรหมศิวะพัลลภ)
คณบดีคณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว

(สำเนา)

คำสั่งคณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว
ที่ ๒๙/๒๕๖๕
เรื่อง แต่งตั้งอาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่

.....

เพื่อให้เป็นไปตามประกาศมหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ เรื่อง หลักเกณฑ์ การยกย่องเชิดชูเกียรติ พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ มหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ พ.ศ. ๒๕๖๐ ลงวันที่ ๑๘ กันยายน ๒๕๖๐ อาศัยอำนาจตามความในมาตรา ๔๔ แห่งพระราชบัญญัติมหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ พ.ศ. ๒๕๕๙ จึงขอแต่งตั้งอาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่ จำนวน ๑ ราย ดังนี้

ลำดับ	อาจารย์ใหม่	อาจารย์พี่เลี้ยงอาจารย์ใหม่
๑	นายวันนริศา วัฏฏ์	รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ปรารถนา กาลเนาวกุล

ทั้งนี้ ตั้งแต่วันที่ ๑๒ กันยายน ๒๕๖๕ เป็นต้นไป

สั่ง ณ วันที่ ๑๕ กันยายน ๒๕๖๕

(ลงชื่อ) พรพิษณุ พรหมศิวะพัลลภ
(ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. พรพิษณุ พรหมศิวะพัลลภ)
คณบดีคณะการบริการและการท่องเที่ยว

สำเนาถูกต้อง

(นางสาวนิตยา ประทีป ณ ถลาง)
เจ้าหน้าที่บริหารงานทั่วไปชำนาญการ

นิตยา/ร่าง/พิมพ์/ทาน

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Factors Influencing Tourists' Destination Food Consumption and Satisfaction: A Cross-Cultural Analysis

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Abstract: Destination food consumption has become an important source of destination competitiveness. However, what drives local food consumption by tourists and whether it is consistent across different nationalities remain unknown. This study examined the influence of key factors, including demographic factors, food neophobia, food familiarity, food image, and importance of local food on destination food preference, consumption, and satisfaction across two culturally different nationalities, based on a survey of Chinese and Australian tourists at the end of their holiday in Phuket, Thailand. Based on data systematically collected from 411 Chinese and 406 Australian tourists, several important findings are reported. A number of significant differences in local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction levels among different demographic groups in each sample nationality were identified. In particular, local food image and food neophobia had the most consistent and influential effects on local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction across the two sample groups. The academic and practical implications of the study are discussed.

Keywords: Food neophobia, food familiarity, food image, food consumption, food satisfaction, Chinese tourists, Australian tourists

Food tourism has become a topic of interest in tourism academia. This rise in research interest is due to increasing recognition of gastronomy as a key attraction in itself and as an important component of the attraction of different tourist destinations. Local food consumption has come to be regarded as a vital part of the tourist experience as it provides novelty and unique cultural learning opportunities. Many destinations, such as Thailand, Korea, Malaysia, and Hong Kong, are now promoting local cuisine as an important aspect of tourism.

Despite a strong surge in food tourism research, the lack of articles published relating to tourists' local food consumption is surprising, given the economic significance of food consumption at tourist destinations (Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019). There have been a small number of prior studies researching tourist food consumption and the factors influencing local food consumption (Kim et al., 2009; Mak et al., 2012; Torres, 2002). More recently, Zhang et al. (2018) used the theory of planned behavior to investigate the reasons for domestic tourists choosing local food for consumption during holidays, but it is doubtful that the findings would apply to international tourists who may be less familiar with local food. Previous studies have provided some knowledge about local food consumption by tourists, although they have generally either been qualitatively investigated (Kim et al., 2009)

or conceptually argued (Mak et al., 2012). Hence, there is an opportunity for further empirical and quantitative examination of the determinant aspects of local food consumption by foreign tourists. In addition, key issues presented in the literature remain to be further investigated whether the effects of such determinants are confirmed empirically and whether they are consistent across different groups of international tourists from contrasting cultural backgrounds. Based on these key research questions, this paper aims to fill these research gaps by conducting a quantitative and comparative study of independent Chinese and Australian tourists vacationing in the Thai city of Phuket, famous as a beach destination and awarded the title of the *City of Gastronomy* by UNESCO. The two nationalities were chosen due to their cultural differences, based on Hofstede's (2011) national cultural framework. It has often been argued that food consumption behavior is significantly dependent on culture (Chang et al., 2010; Mak et al., 2012; Nicolaou et al., 2009). Thus, this paper will provide cross-cultural analysis to address this issue. Furthermore, these two nationalities are considered to be among the top tourist-market sources in Phuket. Understanding what drives tourist local food consumption and satisfaction, and whether this holds true across different tourist group would provide significant insights relevant to destination marketing and management.

Therefore, the objectives of this study are twofold. Firstly, it sought to investigate the factors influencing local food consumption. Secondly, it aimed to conduct a comparative analysis to establish whether the effects are robust and consistent across the two culturally distinctive tourist groups, namely Chinese and Australian tourists. The results presented in this study will contribute to fulfill the research gaps by offering empirical quantitive tests on factors influencing destination food consumption and satisfaction, as well as verifying whether these effects are consistent across different nationalities of tourists.

From the growing literature relating to destination food research, a small number of studies were identified, which have attempted to investigate the factors influencing tourists' food consumption at different destinations. For example, Kim et al. (2009) developed a local food consumption model based on the results of in-depth interviews with 20 tourists, which suggested that food consumption is influenced by three main factors. The first factor related to the motivation of tourists to consume local food. The second factor included demographic variables, such as gender, age, and nationality. The third factor was identified as a physiological factor, which includes food neophilia and neophobia. Further, Mak et al. (2012) investigated the factors that affect tourists' food consumption, identifying five factors, comprising cultural/nationality and religious factors, socio-demographic factors, motivational factors, food-related personality traits (including food neophobia and variety seeking), and past experience/exposure or food familiarity. Similarly, a more recent study by Sengel et al. (2015) suggested that the factors that affect food consumption include demographic, motivational, and psychological factors. In addition, food image perception has been identified as another key factor that affects destination food consumption (Choe & Kim, 2018; Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019).

This paper will focus on key factors identified in the above literature review that may influence aspects of local food consumption with food image, food neophobia, and food familiarity being selected as the key influencing factors for inclusion in the scope of the study. In addition, the level of destination food experience expected by tourists was an additional and new influencing factor included in the study, as this may also influence the degree of food consumption at a destination (Chen & Huang, 2016; Kivela & Crotts, 2005).

Review of Literature

Demographic Factors

Demographic factors have been identified in the literature as key to explaining destination food consumption. The influence of demographic factors, including gender, age, and educational background, on tourists' local consumption at a destination was illustrated by Kim et al. (2009). In that study, women were found to be more interested in sampling local food than men, and the study also revealed that older and better-educated tourists considered local food to be more of a tourist attraction during their holiday. Similar findings were confirmed by Sengel et al. (2015), who provided evidence to support the notion that female tourists are keener to try unfamiliar food during their holiday as compared to male tourists.

In addition, nationality and cultural background have also been found to affect food consumption

among tourists (Torres, 2002). Cohen and Avieli (2004) suggested that Asian tourists are less willing to try local food than Western tourists during their holiday abroad. A possible reason for this phenomenon was offered by Tse and Crotts (2005), who referred to Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Western tourists are generally associated with low avoidance cultures and more risk-seeking behavior; thus, they are more willing to try new food at a holiday destination. The literature review suggests that there are differences in aspects of food consumption based on demographic factors.

Food Neophobia

The term "food neophobia" was introduced by Pliner and Hobden (1992) and referred to an individual's personality trait involving a reluctance to try unfamiliar food due to the fear of possible harm resulting from its consumption. This, in turn, influences food perception and attitude, preference, and consumption. According to Pliner and Salvy (2006), people with food neophobia may have negative perceptions of and concerns toward novel foods and, thus, will prefer familiar over novel foods. The degree of food neophobia tends to vary based on individual differences. Paupério et al. (2014) cited various sources to explain that food neophobia tends to decline with age and higher education. This might be because individuals have more dining experiences and opportunities to be exposed to various types of new foods (Dovey et al., 2008; Tuorila et al., 2001).

Pliner and Hobden (1992) developed a psychometric tool designed to assess the unwillingness of people to consume novel foods, called the Food Neophobia Scale (FNS). The scale consists of 10 items, which test the degree of peoples' reluctance to consume new food. According to Pliner and Hobden (1992), people who have more neophobia-typical characteristics appear to find that unfamiliar foods taste worse to them than do people who are less neophobic. Hence, neophobic people are generally less prepared to choose unfamiliar foods.

Furthermore, the FNS scale has been widely used in a variety of research settings, and the results from its use provide support for the notion of the negative effect of food neophobia on food image and consumption. For instance, Choe and Cho (2011) showed that the willingness of Koreans to try non-traditional foods declined among most neophobic participants as their reluctance to eat and avoidance of novel food tended to be higher than non-neophobic participants. La Barbera, Verneau, Amato and Grunert (2018) adopted the FNS to investigate Westerners' willingness to consume insects with their results, confirming the role of food neophobia. Participants who scored high in food neophobia were found to be less willing to consume insects due to their perception of insects being unusual and novel food. Also, Barrena and Sanchez (2013) empirically demonstrated a greater degree of reluctance in trying new food among neophobic participants, who also displayed a more complex choice process in novel food selection.

Similar effects of food neophobia on food consumption and perception can be found in several other studies in different research settings, such as the effects of childhood food neophobia on dietary variety (Falciglia et al., 2000), and food neophobia and cultural diversity (Flight et al., 2003). Within the context of tourism, the negative effect of food neophobia on tourists' local food consumption was demonstrated by Kim et al. (2009; 2013) and Ji et al. (2016). In addition, Mak et al. (2017) also found that food neophobia and novelty-seeking affected the motivational factor concerning tourist food consumption. However, little is known about whether such effects are applicable across different nationalities in the context of tourism.

Therefore, based on the review of the literature, there is evidence to suggest that food neophobia has a negative influence on aspects of food consumption

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Food Familiarity

According to Mak et al. (2012), tourists' food consumption is influenced by prior food exposure or the degree to which they are familiar with the food. Those authors found that past experience of food leads to a tendency to repeat exposure and, thus, familiarity with the food and subsequently contributes to the development of positive food memories. Experience can be created through past visits to a particular destination or ethnic food consumption in their home country through the globalization of major cuisines such as Thai cuisine (the focus of the present study), which has become available in many parts of the world (Richards, 2002). Therefore, local food familiarity acquired through past visits and other exposure has been identified in the literature as a factor influencing food preference and consumption (Ryu & Jang, 2006).

In addition, Seo et al. (2013) provided empirical evidence to support the above argument within the

tourism context. Their research among international tourists visiting Korea confirmed the positive influence of food familiarity on local food image as well as the intention to consume local food. Those authors distinguished informational familiarity and experiential familiarity and were able to confirm the stronger influence of the latter in enhancing positive local food image. Also, the effects of customer familiarity on satisfaction and repurchase intention have been established in the restaurant context by Söderlund (2002). That author provided evidence to suggest that customers with a high familiarity with a restaurant tend to have higher levels of satisfaction and loyalty than low familiarity customers. Likewise, Ha and Jang (2010) confirmed the link between customers' familiarity and the perceived value at a restaurant, with utility value playing a more important role than the hedonic value in influencing behavioral intentions among high familiarity restaurant customers. Based on the existing discussion in the literature, food familiarity can be concluded to have a positive influence on aspects of local food consumption.

Food Image

There is limited discussion of the effects of destination food image on aspects of destination food consumption among tourists. The existing literature, however, suggests that food image positively influences consumption. Seo et al. (2017) found that destination food image positively influenced the local food preference and consumption intention of people on holiday in Korea. In addition, a more comprehensive investigation of the relationship between destination food image and food consumption was recently offered by Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2019). The authors examined the dimensions of destination food image and how these affect tourists' local food consumption and preference. Five destination food image dimensions were identified in the study—restaurant service, food taste, health and hygiene, variety and eating manners, and unique cultural experience—but food taste image was the only dimension found to consistently and substantially influence the food preference and consumption of international tourists.

Moreover, other studies have considered the effects of destination food image on other aspects of food consumption among international tourists at tourist destinations. According to Choe and Kim (2018), the relationship between food image and food satisfaction depends on the value generated by food consumption, which, in turn, accounts for positive food image and consumption intention. In addition, Ling et al. (2010) confirmed the influence of food image on food satisfaction and positive local food behavior and consumption in their study of local food consumption among international tourists in Malaysia. Hence, the conclusion can be drawn from the literature that food image has a positive influence on aspects of local food consumption.

Importance of Local Food Experience at a Destination

Food consumption has become an essential tourism activity for both the leisure and business tourist sectors (Kivela & Crotts, 2005). Tasting local food is a significant part of the tourist experience as it offers tourists novelty and enjoyment during their holiday (Tikkanen, 2007). According to Kivela and Crotts (2005), food consumption while dining out at a destination can provide tourists with a pleasurable sensory experience and is considered a pull factor. Not only is eating the local cuisine an important form of tourist entertainment, but local food also represents the local culture and thus brings tourists closer to the destination's culture, people, and way of life (Lee & Arcodia, 2011). In effect, local food is considered to be an attraction that can offer tourists a unique experience and an opportunity to sample the local culture through dining experiences (Kivela & Crotts). Also, Chen and Huang (2016) investigated the importance of food to tourists in Chongqing, China during the three stages of their holiday, namely the pre-travel stage, the during-travel stage, and the post-travel stage. Their findings suggested that a tourist's food experience at a destination is a multi-phase phenomenon. Local food experience may be less important during the pre-travel stage, but may increase in the during- and after-travel stages based on real food experiences at the destination.

For many tourists, the local food experience at their destination has become an integral part of a holiday abroad (Chen & Huang, 2016; Kivela & Crotts, 2005). The extent to which tourists look forward to eating local food at their destination may affect their food preference, consumption, and the satisfaction they gain from food consumption. According to Kivela and Crotts (2005), the importance of culinary experience when traveling was found to have a negative influence on

the rating of Hong Kong as a gastronomic destination. This may suggest that tourists who are particular about what they eat at a destination would also have higher culinary expectations, which could affect their levels of destination food preference, consumption, and satisfaction. Nevertheless, no confirmation of this notion currently exists in the literature.

In addition, the level of importance of the local food experience from each trip may vary among individual tourists and each trip they make. To some, local food consumption may constitute an integral part of the holiday. This activity may not be considered by other tourists as being as important as other key leisure activities at the destination, depending on their leisure preferences. Furthermore, the attractiveness of local cuisine may alter from one destination to another and may create different expectations and importance levels of the food experience at different destinations. Although no prior research has investigated the effect of the importance of the local food experience at a destination on food consumption, the existing literature suggests that this variable may affect aspects of food consumption. Nevertheless, further investigation is required to determine the nature and extent of such a possible influence. Based on the literature review detailed in this section, two research questions for the study emerged:

1. Are there any differences in destination food preference, food consumption, and food satisfaction between two culturally contrasting nationalities, namely Chinese and Australian tourists, as well as within other key demographic factors?

2. What are the effects of food neophobia, food familiarity, food image, and the importance of the local food experience on destination food preference, consumption, and satisfaction?

In addition, the following hypotheses were derived from the literature:

H1: There are differences in aspects of food consumption based on demographic factors.
H1a: There are differences in food preference levels based on demographic factors.
H1b: There are differences in food consumption levels based on demographic factors.
H1c: There are differences in food satisfaction levels based on demographic factors.

H2: Food neophobia has a negative influence on aspects of food consumption.
H2a: Food neophobia has a negative influence on local food preference.
H2b: Food neophobia has a negative influence on local food consumption.
H2c: Food neophobia has a negative influence on local food satisfaction.

H3: Food familiarity has a positive influence on aspects of local food consumption.
H3a: Food familiarity has a positive influence on local food preference.
H3b: Food familiarity has a positive influence on local food consumption.
H3c: Food familiarity has a positive influence on local food satisfaction.

H4: Food image has a positive influence on aspects of local food consumption.
H4a: Food image has a positive influence on local food preference.
H4b: Food image has a positive influence on local food consumption.
H4c: Food image has a positive influence on local food satisfaction.

H5: The importance of local food experience at a destination is related to aspects of food consumption.
H5a: The importance of local food experience at a destination is related to local food preference.
H5b: The importance of local food experience at a destination is related to local food consumption.
H5c: The importance of local food experience at a destination is related to local food satisfaction.

The remainder of the paper will seek to answer these research questions and test the hypotheses proposed.

Conceptual Framework and Methods

Based on the hypotheses derived in the previous section of the paper, a conceptual framework depicted the proposed influence of five key variables, including demographic factors, food neophobia, food familiarity, food image, and the importance of local food on food consumption factors can be presented in Figure 1.

To test the proposed conceptual framework and hypotheses, this research utilized a quantitative approach involving a face-to-face survey on independent Chinese and Australian tourists at Phuket International Airport. Details of the instrument, sampling, and data collection procedures are explained as follows:

Instrument

The questionnaire used in the survey was developed based on previous literature relating to tourist food consumption and comprised of four parts. The first part asked respondents about their travel experience and the degree of familiarity with Thai food. The second part consisted of the Pliner and Hobden (1992) FNS. Destination food image perception, preference, consumption, and satisfaction were dealt with in the third part, and the last part included questions relating to the demographic profile of the respondents. The instrument was reviewed by three academic experts in the field of study and then pre-tested with 30 tourists to ensure the clarity of the questions. The questionnaire was prepared in English for the Australian sample and in Chinese for the Chinese respondents. It was originally drafted in English and then translated into Chinese by a team of professional translators, then checked using the back-translation method.

Measures

(1) Food Neophobia

The measurement of food neophobia was based on the 10 items of the FNS developed by Pliner and Hobden (1992), all of which were measured on a five-point Likert scale and assessed the reluctance of tourists to consume unfamiliar food. The Cronbach's alpha value of the 10-item section was calculated and demonstrated a satisfactory level of 0.80. As a result, the scores of the 10 items from the participants' responses were summed to form a single variable.

(2) Food Familiarity

The measurement of familiarity was adapted from Kivela and Crotts (2005) using a five-point semantic differential scale (Not at all – Extremely) as proxies for familiarity. Two items asked about the respondent's level of familiarity with Thai food before taking the trip to Phuket and their knowledge about Thai food before visiting Phuket. The Cronbach's alpha value of the two items together was found to be 0.89, and thus the mean score was computed to form a single variable.

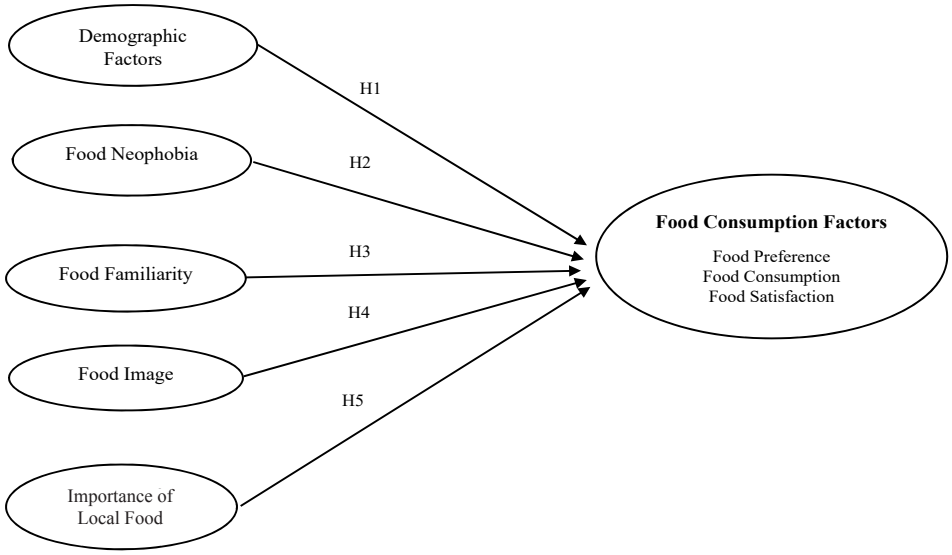

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

(3) Food Image

The food image measure consisted of four items, which were adapted from Lertputtarak (2012), Duttagupta (2013), and Ling et al. (2010), all of which employed a five-point Likert scale. These items consisted of "Thai food is a popular cuisine in the world," "Thai food is tasty," "Thai food gives cultural experience," and "Thai food is visually appealing." An acceptable Cronbach's alpha value of 0.77 was found for this measure and, thus, the responses to the four items were summed to create the food image variable.

(4) Importance of Local Food Experience at the Destination

Two items adapted from Kivela and Crotts (2005) were used as proxies to measure the importance of food experience at a destination, including the importance of the food experience during a holiday abroad in general and the importance of the food experience in Phuket on the current trip. An acceptable Cronbach's alpha internal consistency of 0.84 was reported for this construct.

(5) Food Preference

This variable was measured by two items, which were adapted from Torres (2002) and was also used by Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2019). Based on a five-point Likert scale, the respondents were asked t o indicate the importance level of having access to Thai food and the level of preference for having Thai food while on holiday in Phuket. The Cronbach's alpha value of the two items together was 0.82, indicating a satisfactory internal consistency for this variable.

(6) Food Consumption

A single measurement adapted from Torres (2002) was used to capture the level of food consumption of the respondents, who were asked to estimate the consumption of local food as a percentage of their total food consumption during their holiday in Phuket. This measure was also used by Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2019).

(7) Food Satisfaction

Five items adapted from Ling et al. (2010) and Kivela and Crotts (2005) were used to measure food satisfaction. The Cronbach's alpha value indicated a high level of internal consistency of 0.88, and the five items were combined to create the food satisfaction construct.

Sampling and Data Collection

The population for this research was defined as independent Chinese and Australian tourists who had spent at least two nights and had consumed Thai food during their current holiday. The reason for this criterion was to ensure that the respondents would have sufficient information about their Thai food experience to complete the survey. Only independent tourists were included, and tourists on package tours were excluded from the study because independent tourists generally have more opportunities to try local and authentic food as well as to interact with local people and restaurant staff in commercial settings. As explained in the introduction section, Chinese and Australian tourists were selected in this study because they are culturally different based on Hofstede's (2011) national cultural framework. Furthermore, these two nationalities are considered top tourist-market sources in Phuket.

Although the number of independent Chinese and Australian tourists was unknown, based on the statistics of international tourists visiting Phuket in 2016 (C9 Hotelworks, 2017), approximately 1,500,000 Chinese and 250,000 Australian tourists were reported. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) suggested a minimum sample size of 384 being adequate for a large population of 75,000 members or more. Therefore, a sample size of 400 respondents was planned for each nationality group for this research.

The survey was implemented at entrances to the departure lounges of Phuket International Airport in December 2017. Eight university students majoring in hotel and tourism management were trained to conduct the survey. The students were able to communicate well in both English and Chinese and had prior survey field-work experience.

As no sampling frame was available, random sampling was impractical in this study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). To minimize biases arising from regular convenience sampling, respondents were selected systematically, following similar procedures practiced by previous researchers (such as Rittichainuwat & Chakrabirty, 2009 and Amuquandoh, 2011). First, international flights leaving Phuket for China and Australia were randomly selected. Then, the trained students were allocated to each departure area of

Table 1

Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographic characteristics	Whole sample (n = 817)	Chinese (n = 411)	Australian (n = 406)
First visit to Thailand			
Yes	505 (61.8%)	300 (73.0%)	205 (50.5%)
No	312 (38.2%)	111 (27.0%)	201 (49.1%)
First visit to Phuket			
Yes	600 (73.4%)	349 (84.9%)	251 (61.8%)
No	217 (26.6%)	62 (15.1%)	155 (38.2%)
Gender			
Male	356 (43.6%)	149 (36.3%)	207 (51.0%)
Female	459 (56.2%)	260 (63.3%)	199 (49.0%)
Age			
(1) < 25 years old	284 (34.8%)	122 (29.7%)	162 (39.9%)
(2) 25 - 45 years old	438 (53.6%)	268 (65.2%)	170 (41.9%)
(3) > 45 years old	95 (11.6%)	21 (5.1%)	74 (18.3%)
Monthly income			
(1) < 2,000 AUD/10,000 RMB	360 (45.0%)	262 (64.9%)	98 (24.8%)
(2) 2,000 AUD/10,000 RMB - 5,000 AUD/30,000 RMB	263 (33.0%)	105 (26.0%)	158 (40.0%)
(3) > 5,000 AUD/30,000 RMB	177 (22.1%)	37 (9.2%)	140 (35.3%)
Education			
(1) < Bachelor's degree	314 (38.9%)	97 (23.6%)	217 (54.7%)
(2) Bachelor's degree	375 (46.5%)	233 (56.8%)	142 (35.8%)
(3) > Bachelor's degree	118 (14.7%)	80 (19.5%)	38 (9.6%)

the selected flight to approach every third passenger arriving at the gate of the departure area. Screening questions, including whether the respondent was Chinese/Australian, had consumed Thai food during their stay and had spent at least two evenings in Phuket, were asked. As an incentive for survey participation, the respondents were given a small gift upon the completion of the survey.

In total, 837 respondents completed the survey. However, only 817 questionnaires were included in the study as 20 questionnaires were discarded due to either excessive missing values or failing to meet the data collection criteria, such as traveling with a package tour instead of being an independent tourist. The 817 valid participants consisted of 411 (50.3 %) Chinese respondents and 406 (49.7 %) Australian tourists. The number and proportion of the samples were consistent with previous studies using these two nationalities in Phuket (Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019; Promsivapallop & Jarumaneerat, 2018).

Results

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic profile of the respondents is reported in Table 1. It is clear that a lower proportion of the Chinese respondents had previously visited Thailand (27.0 %) and Phuket (15.1 %) as compared to the Australian tourists (49.1 % and 38.2 %, respectively). The table also shows a lower proportion of male respondents for the Chinese sample (36.3 %) than the Australian sample in which males accounted

for 51.0 %. The largest portion of both samples was between 25 and 45 years of age, although the Australian sample consisted of relatively similar numbers between falling into the younger (< 25) and medium-aged (25–45) groups. Whereas the majority of Chinese respondents earned a a monthly income of less than 2,000 AUD (10,000 RMB), most of the Australian respondents had medium and higher incomes. In addition, it should be noted that more than 75 % of the Chinese sample held a bachelor's degree or higher, whereas almost 55% of the Australian tourists held educational qualifications lower than a bachelor's degree.

Factors Influencing Local Food Preference, Consumption, and Satisfaction

The first part of this section tests hypothesis 1 to examine whether there are differences in aspects of food consumption based on demographic factors. The demographic factors under investigation, expressed as dichotomous variables, consisted of past visit experience to Thailand and Phuket, and gender. Other demographic factors that were measured using categorical scales consisted of age, monthly income, and education. To allow the interpretation of the results to be more meaningful and practical, the scale of each of these factors was collapsed to form three categories, as shown in Table 2. Tests of mean differences using t-tests for the dichotomous variables and ANOVA for the three categorical scaled variables of the demographic factors were implemented on the two data sets consisting of the Chinese sample and the Australian sample. The Gabriel post hoc test was used to identify mean differences in paired variables between the two groups in the ANOVAs because there were differences in the sample size in the two groups (Pallant, 2013).

Based on the results of the tests of mean differences reported in Table 2, partial support for the hypotheses can be observed as food preference, food consumption, and food satisfaction were found to vary with respect to some of the demographic factors. The analyses are reported for each data set below.

(1) The Chinese Sample

Within the Chinese sample, past visit experiences to Thailand and Phuket proved to have no relationships with food preference, consumption, and satisfaction with Thai food as no differences were detected in the t-test results (Table 2). In terms of gender, Thai food consumption was the only factor, among the three variables studied, which was found to show a difference between males and females ($t = -2.06$, $p < 0.05$), with more female Chinese respondents (65.34 %) consume Thai food than male Chinese respondents (59.84 %).

In addition, only age was confirmed by the ANOVA results to influence food preference ($F = 7.12$, $p < 0.05$). The results suggest that Chinese tourists younger than 25 years of age (mean = 3.42) showed a lower preference. However, results revealed a relationship between monthly income and food preference ($F = 5.60$, $p < 0.05$) and the post hoc test indicated that the low-income group (mean = 3.59) had a lower preference for Thai food than the medium income group (mean = 3.97). Moreover, the ANOVAs indicated consistent differences among the educational groups in the mean values of Thai food preference ($F = 9.23$, $p < 0.01$), consumption ($F = 6.76$, $p < 0.05$), and satisfaction ($F = 6.93$, $p < 0.05$). Post hoc tests confirmed that Chinese tourists holding a bachelor's degree or above had a higher preference for, consumption of, and satisfaction with Thai food than those who had lower qualifications.

(2) The Australian Sample

Based on the t-test results (Table 2), past visit experiences to Thailand were found to influence all three outcome variables studied. Respondents who had past visit experience of Thailand were found to have significantly higher levels of preference for Thai food than those who had no previous visit experience ($t = 1.99$, $p < 0.05$, means = 4.44 and 4.30, respectively), Thai food consumption ($t = 2.70$, $p < 0.05$, 67.33 % and 60.55 %, respectively), and satisfaction with Thai food ($t = 2.42$, $p < 0.05$, means = 4.20 and 4.04, respectively). In addition, the Australian respondents who had previously visited Phuket also indicated a significantly higher level of food consumption than those who were visiting Phuket for the first time ($t = 2.49$, $p < 0.05$, 67.80 % and 61.47 %, respectively).

Although no differences were detected in groups based on gender and education level, significant differences were identified in groups based on age and monthly income. According to the ANOVA results, all the variables were found to show differences in different age groups, with Thai food preference

Table 2

ANOVA and T-Test Results Comparing Means in Thai Food Preference, Consumption, and Satisfaction by Nationality

Factor	Chinese (n = 411)			Australian (n = 406)		
	Food preference	**Food consumption**	**Food satisfaction**	**Food preference**	**Food consumption**	**Food satisfaction**
First visit to Thailand						
Yes	3.83	59.95	3.89	4.44	67.33	4.20
No	3.68	64.60	3.83	4.30	60.50	4.04
	$t = 1.34$	$t = -1.60$	$t = 0.87$	$t = 1.99$*	$t = 2.70$*	$t = 2.42$*
First visit to Phuket						
Yes	3.90	58.06	3.89	4.44	67.80	4.19
No	3.69	64.29	3.84	4.32	61.47	4.08
	$t = 1.54$	$t = -1.74$	$t = 0.65$	$t = 1.54$	$t = 2.49$*	$t = 1.77$
Gender						
Male	3.63	59.84	3.82	4.33	64.12	4.06
Female	3.77	65.34	3.86	4.40	63.64	4.18
	$t = -1.28$	$t = -2.06$*	$t = -0.68$	$t = -0.99$	$t = 0.19$	$t = -1.88$
Age						
(1) < 25 years old	3.42	60.65	3.74	4.28	58.27	4.02
(2) 25 - 45 years old	3.85	64.83	3.90	4.37	64.14	4.13
(3) > 45 years old	3.75	60.00	3.78	4.56	75.58	4.32
	$F = 7.12$*, 1 < 2	$F = 1.25$	$F = 2.71$	$F = 3.91$*, 1 < 3	$F = 12.15$**, 1 < 3, 2 < 3	$F = 5.26$*, 1 < 3
Monthly income						
(1) < 2,000 AUD/10,000 RMB	3.59	63.01	3.81	4.20	55.14	4.04
(2) 2,000 AUD/10,000 RMB - 5,000 AUD/30,000 RMB	3.97	63.06	3.90	4.39	63.56	4.08
(3) > 5,000 AUD/30,000 RMB	3.92	65.81	3.94	4.47	70.14	4.24
	$F = 5.60$*, 1 < 2	$F = 0.19$	$F = 1.24$	$F = 4.47$*, 1 < 3	$F = 10.26$**, 1 < 2, 1 < 3	$F = 1.20$
Education						
(1) < Bachelor's degree	3.34	55.34	3.64	4.33	62.35	4.07
(2) Bachelor's degree	3.79	64.55	3.91	4.42	66.91	4.20
(3) > Bachelor's degree	3.96	69.05	3.90	4.45	60.32	4.12
	$F = 9.23$**, 1 < 2, 1 < 3	$F = 6.76$*, 1 < 2, 1 < 3	$F = 6.93$*, 1 < 2, 1 < 3	$F = 0.85$	$F = 1.74$	$F = 1.76$

($F = 3.91, p < 0.05$), consumption ($F = 12.15, p < 0.01$), and satisfaction ($F = 5.26$, $p < 0.05$) all significantly different. Post hoc tests indicated similar patterns of difference, with the younger Australian respondents having lower mean values for Thai food preference, consumption, and satisfaction than the older groups. In terms of Thai food preference, the respondents who were less than 25 years of age were found to have a lower preference for Thai food (mean = 4.28) than those older than 45 years of age (mean = 4.56). More substantial differences were observed in the post hoc tests for Thai food consumption with the older segment (75.58 %) consuming more Thai food than the medium age (64.14 %) and the younger age (58.27 %) segments. Moreover, those older than 45 years of age were found to be more satisfied with Thai food (mean = 4.32) than those younger than 25 years of age (mean = 4.02).

The ANOVA results also showed that income is another variable that significantly influences Thai food preference ($F = 4.47$, $p < 0.5$) and consumption ($F = 12.15$, $p < 0.01$), but not satisfaction ($F = 5.26$, $p > 0.05$). Similar patterns to those found for age were also observed for income with post hoc tests revealing lower levels of preference for the lower-income group (mean = 4.20) as compared to the higher-income group (mean = 4.47) and the consumption of Thai food in the lower-income group (mean = 55.14) as compared to the medium and higher-income groups (means = 63.56 and 70.14 respectively).

The second part of this section deals with the testing of hypotheses H2 - H5, based on a series of multiple regression analyses. The four hypotheses deal with the impacts of food neophobia (H2), food familiarity (H3), food image (H4), and the importance of local food in Phuket (H5) as predictor variables, with food preference, consumption, and satisfaction as the dependent variables. The same multiple regression models were implemented for the two groups of tourists based on their nationalities. The multiple regression assumptions were all based on Pallant (2013), and the linearity, normality of scale, absence of multi-collinearity and outliers, and the number of case observations were examined and were of no concern in any of the regression models.

Tables 3–5 report the results of the three different multiple regression models, showing the results separately for the Chinese and Australian respondents. The first model (Table 3) includes food neophobia, local food image, local food familiarity, and the importance of local food as predictor variables, with the degree of local food preference as the dependent variable. The model was significant for both nationalities with 41.5 % and 40.9 % of the total variances being explained for the Chinese sample (adjusted $R^2 = 0.415$, $F = 68.36$, $p < 0.01$) and the Australian sample (adjusted $R^2 = 0.409$, $F = 67.14$, $p < 0.01$) respectively.

Three of the predictor variables were found in all but one case to significantly explain local food preference, providing support for hypotheses H2a, H4a, and across the two data sets, with hypothesis H3a supported by only the Australian data set. The predictor variables that consistently showed an association with food preference were food neophobia, local food image, and the importance of local food at the destination. Food neophobia had a negative influence on local food preference for both the Chinese data set ($\beta = -0.19$, $t = -4.47$, $p < 0.01$) and the Australian data set ($\beta = -0.26$, $t = -6.00$, $p < 0.01$). Local food image was also confirmed to have a positive impact on local food preference in both data sets. It was noted that this predictor variable clearly provided the strongest effect in the models with $\beta = 0.49$ ($t = 11.54$, $p < 0.01$) for the Chinese tourists and $\beta = 0.32$ ($t = 7.08$, $p < 0.01$) for the Australian tourists. Furthermore, the positive effect of familiarity with local food was also confirmed in both data sets ($\beta = 0.15$, $t = 3.46$, $p < 0.01$ for Chinese tourists and $\beta = 0.22$, $t = 5.03$, $p < 0.01$ for the Australian tourists). On the other hand, the effect of the familiarity of the local food variable was confirmed only in the Australian data set with a small influence of $\beta = 0.11$, $t = 2.60$, and $p < 0.05$. No confirmation of this effect was found in the Chinese data set ($\beta = 0.05$, $t = 1.10$, $p > 0.05$).

The second set of multiple regressions (Table 4) was performed to examine the impacts of the same predictor variables on local food consumption as the dependent variable for the two nationality groups of respondents. The models were again statistically significant but provided less predictive power than the food preference model (adjusted $R^2 = 0.229$, $F = 29.44$, $p < 0.01$ for the Chinese data set, and adjusted $R^2 = 0.293$, $F = 40.75$, $p < 0.01$ for the Australian data set). Despite the lower predictive power of the model, the contribution of all four predictor variables was statistically significant in explaining the variation within the two data sets. In addition, all the independent

Table 3

Factors Influencing Local Food Preference

Factors	Local food preference							
	Chinese tourists				Australian tourists			
	β	*t*	Std Errors	*p*	β	*t*	Std Errors	*p*
Constant		1.14	0.46	0.26		6.24	0.34	0.00
Local food image	0.49	11.54	0.07	0.00	0.32	7.08	0.06	0.00
Food neophobia	-0.19	-4.47	0.09	0.00	-0.26	-6.00	0.05	0.00
Familiarity with local food	0.05	1.10	0.04	0.27	0.11	2.60	0.03	0.01
Importance of local food	0.15	3.46	0.06	0.00	0.22	5.03	0.04	0.00
Adjusted R^2	0.415				0.409			
F	68.36				67.14			
p	0.00				0.00			
df	4/376				4/379			
Durbin-Watson	1.88				1.90			

Table 4

Factors Influencing Local Food Consumption

Factors	Local food consumption							
	Chinese tourists				Australian tourists			
	β	*t*	Std Errors	*p*	β	*t*	Std Errors	*p*
Constant		0.63	13.07	0.53		1.62	12.80	0.11
Local food image	0.23	4.65	2.10	0.00	0.16	3.23	2.38	0.00
Food neophobia	-0.17	-3.34	2.53	0.00	-0.29	-6.08	1.93	0.00
Familiarity with local food	0.11	2.29	1.12	0.02	0.17	3.65	1.11	0.00
Importance of local food	0.23	4.68	1.59	0.00	0.18	3.88	1.47	0.00
Adjusted R^2	0.229				0.293			
F	29.44				40.75			
p	0.00				0.00			
df	4/379				4/380			
Durbin-Watson	1.86				1.90			

variables under investigation correctly supported the hypothesized relationships H2b, H3b, H4b, and H5b. Although local food image (β = 0.23, t = 4.65, $p < 0.01$) and the importance of local food at the destination (β = 0.23, t = 4.68, $p < 0.01$) provided the highest contribution to the model of the Chinese tourists, the negative effect of food neophobia (β = -0.29, t = -6.08, $p < 0.01$) was the strongest predictor for the Australian tourists.

The third set of multiple regressions related to local food satisfaction as the outcome variable. The results are reported in Table 5, and again, it can be seen that

Table 5

Factors Influencing Local Food Satisfaction

Factors	Local food satisfaction							
	Chinese tourists				Australian tourists			
	β	*t*	Std Errors	*p*	β	*t*	Std Errors	*p*
Constant		7.54	0.27	0.00		7.66	0.30	0.00
Local food image	0.55	13.00	0.04	0.00	0.26	5.57	0.06	0.00
Food neophobia	-0.20	-4.57	0.05	0.00	-0.26	-5.88	0.05	0.00
Familiarity with local food	0.01	0.32	0.02	0.75	0.10	2.33	0.03	0.02
Importance of local food	0.08	1.92	0.03	0.06	0.26	5.98	0.04	0.00
Adjusted R^2	0.435				0.379			
F	75.23				59.50			
p	0.00				0.00			
df	4/381				4/379			
Durbin-Watson	2.08				1.79			

the models are statistically significant in both data sets, explaining 43.5 % ($F = 75.23, p < 0.01$) and 37.9 % ($F = 59.50, p < 0.01$) of the total variances for the Chinese and Australian respondents respectively. However, despite the moderately high level of the adjusted R^2 in both models, only two predictor variables significantly explained local food satisfaction for the Chinese data set, local food image ($\beta = 0.55$, $t = 13.00$, $p < 0.01$) and food neophobia ($\beta = -0.20$, $t = -4.57$, $p < 0.01$). The predictive power of local food image on local food satisfaction was, however, observed to be substantial.

On the other hand, all four predictor variables were confirmed to contribute to the explanation of the local food satisfaction of the Australian sample. Local food image ($\beta = 0.26$, $t = 5.57$, $p < 0.01$), food neophobia ($\beta = -0.26$, $t = -5.88$, $p < 0.01$), and the importance of local food ($\beta = 0.26$, $t = 5.98$, $p < 0.01$) were observed to exert an equally significant level of influence on food satisfaction with food neophobia showing the only negative effect. The effect of familiarity with local food was also noted to be statistically significant but at a lower of significance in the model ($\beta = 0.10$, $t = 2.33$, $p < 0.05$). Thus there was support for hypotheses H2c and H4c with only limited support for hypotheses H3c and H5c.

Discussion

Several key issues have emerged from the hypothesis test results (Table 6) for discussion. Firstly, the influence of different demographic factors on local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction in each nationality tends to confirm previous findings, such as those of Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2019) and Promsivapallop and Jarumaneerat (2018) of that there are differences in this area between Chinese and Australian tourists. Although the findings in relation to aspects of the food consumption of the Chinese sample vary mainly based on their education, within the Australian sample, the influence of previous visit experience to Thailand, age, and, to some extent, income was more important. This new insight adds to the existing body of knowledge in this field of study. Concerning the Chinese sample, female tourists were found to consume more local food than male tourists. In addition, younger and lower-income tourists were found to have lower preference levels for local food than the middle-age and middle-income groups. Moreover, it can be concluded that within the sample of Chinese tourists, those with higher education levels had higher levels of local food preference, consumption,

Table 6

Summary of Hypothesis Test Results

Hypothesis	Chinese	Australian
H1a: There are differences in food preference levels based on demographic factors.	Partial support - age, income, and education	Partial support - previous visit to Thailand, age, and income
H1b: There are differences in food consumption levels based on demographic factors.	Partial support - gender and education	Partial support - previous visit to Thailand, previous visit to Phuket, age, and income
H1c: There are differences in food satisfaction levels based on demographic factors.	Partial support - education	Partial support - previous visit to Thailand, and age
H2a: Food neophobia has a negative influence on local food preference.	(-)***	(-)***
H2b: Food neophobia has a negative influence on local food consumption.	(-)***	(-)***
H2c: Food neophobia has a negative influence on local food satisfaction.	(-)***	(-)***
H3a: Food familiarity has a positive influence on local food preference.		(+)**
H3b: Food familiarity has a positive influence on local food consumption.	(+)*	(+)**
H3c: Food familiarity has a positive influence on local food satisfaction.		(+)*
H4a: Food image has a positive influence on local food preference.	(+)***	(+)***
H4b: Food image has a positive influence on local food consumption.	(+)***	(+)***
H4c: Food image has a positive influence on local food satisfaction.	(+)***	(+)***
H5a: Importance of local food at destination has relationship with local food preference.	(+)***	(+)***
H5b: Importance of local food at destination has relationship with local food consumption.	(+)***	(+)***
H5c: Importance of local food at destination has relationship with local food satisfaction.		(+)***

and satisfaction. On the other hand, the sample of Australian tourists with higher levels of local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction could be characterized as those who had previously visited Thailand, were older, and earned higher incomes.

In addition, the overall conclusion that can be drawn from the study across the two nationalities in respect of the effect of demographic factors is that the preference for, consumption of, and satisfaction with Thai food are likely to increase with past visit experience, and higher incomes, education, and age. In other words, more experienced and sophisticated tourists tend to prefer, consume more, and be more satisfied with local food than less experienced and less sophisticated tourists. A possible explanation for this observation is that more experienced and sophisticated tourists tend to be more willing to engage in more novel and risk-taking activities (Tse & Crotts, 2005; Ryu & Jang, 2006) and local food consumption during a holiday abroad can, to some extent, be considered as a form of novel and risk-taking behavior (Tikkanen, 2007). Further, Wądołowska et al. (2008) suggested that more sophisticated tourists who are likely to have higher levels of income and education are generally more interested in and satisfied with local food consumption. This group of tourists is likely to consider dining out

during their holiday abroad as an opportunity to relate to local culture and as a novel experience. Dining out and trying new cuisines is generally part of the lifestyle of this group of tourists both at home and while on holiday abroad, which reflects their sense of taste. Therefore, more experienced tourists may have had more previous opportunities to be exposed to Thai food either in their home country or during past visits to Thailand, thus creating greater familiarity with Thai food, which can be linked to the explanation of food exposure and familiarity noted above.

Gender was found by Sengel et al. (2015) to be a key demographic factor that influences aspects of local food consumption. In contrast, the results of this study indicate that gender did not play an important role in influencing any of the aspects of local food consumption among the sample. This was particularly the case for the Australian sample, with the male and female Australian tourists behaving similarly in respect of local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction. Nevertheless, the findings in this study in respect of the Chinese sample regarding gender supports the finding of Sengel et al.'s (2015) study because more female Chinese tourists consumed local food than male tourists. However, no differences were found in the food preference and satisfaction of the Chinese group based on gender. This might be because food arrangements in traditional families in China are normally considered to be the responsibility of females. Therefore, compared to male tourists, female Chinese tourists may tend to be more willing to try unfamiliar and novel food than the food they cook at home. This finding, however, contradicts other previous studies, such as that of Kivela and Crotts (2005), who found that male tourists tend to be more interested and involved in local food consumption than female tourists. This might be the case for Western tourists based on Kivela and Crotts' study, but it may not apply to Asian tourists like the Chinese tourists in this study of whom the females may have considered tasting local food as more of an attraction than male tourists.

Another important implication involves the finding of different sets of demographic factors that are associated with aspects of local food consumption for each nationality. These findings are in line with Kivela and Crotts' (2005) suggestion that tourists of different nationalities have different perspectives on local food experience at tourist destinations. According to previous studies (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Tse & Crotts, 2005), tourists from Asian cultures, such as the Chinese tourists in this study, tend to avoid local food consumption but Western tourists, such as the Australian tourists, in this case, are more willing to try unfamiliar food. By this reasoning, local food consumption should not be studied based on general tourists because the background differences inherent in different nationalities may make such a general approach to this issue misleading. Although the results obtained from the study of general tourists may be useful, it may lack applicability to specific groups of tourists who have unique characteristics and backgrounds. Differences between Chinese and Australian tourists were highlighted in the study by Promsivapallop and Jarumaneerat (2018), which lends support to the results of this study.

In addition, the findings generally confirm the relationships proposed in Hypotheses 2–5. Two key factors—local food image and food neophobia—provide the most consistent and influential effects on local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction across the two sample groups. This implies that the tourists' levels of preference for, consumption of, and satisfaction with local food depend largely on these two factors. Hypotheses 2 and 4 were robustly supported in this study as the results from the two different data sets were consistent across the different nationalities comprising them. The positive influence of food image on the dependent variables is consistent with previous studies (Lertputtarak, 2012; Ling et al., 2010; Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019; Seo et al., 2017). It should be further noted that the influence of food image on food preference and satisfaction was greater in the Chinese sample than in the Australian sample. This demonstrates that food image perception is particularly important for Chinese tourists.

The confirmation of the negative influence of food neophobia on local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction in this study should be particularly noted. The influence of this factor was found to be relatively consistent across the Chinese and Australian samples, and the levels of food neophobia were similar between these two nationalities. Therefore, food neophobia played an important role in determining the food consumption behavior of both tourist groups, and it is interesting to note that the levels of food neophobia and its influence were similar for the different

nationalities of tourists. It can thus be implied that this is a general phenomenon for tourist groups regardless of their nationality, and tourists who have high levels of food neophobia will be hesitant to try new food irrespective of their nationality, as found in previous studies (Barrena & Sanchez, 2013; Ji et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2009; 2013; Pliner & Salvy, 2006). Moreover, the negative effects of food neophobia apply to Thai food despite its global popularity. This may influence tourists who have high levels of food neophobia to choose to stay in global-chain hotels and consume the same kinds of food that they consume in their home country instead of trying the local food at their destination (Torres, 2002).

Some additional interesting points can be observed from the findings. Food familiarity and the importance of local food were found to have less effect on the dependent variables studied, and the results were inconsistent across the two groups of tourists. Interestingly, these two variables were revealed to have a significant positive influence on all the dependent variables for the Australian data set. However, significant effects were discovered only for food familiarity on food consumption and for the importance of local food on food preference and food consumption in the Chinese data set. It is also important to note the different levels of explanatory power of the predictor variables on each dependent variable. According to the findings, the explanatory power of the independent variables on local food consumption was much less than on local food preference and satisfaction. This suggests that local food consumption is a more complex construct to explain and predict than local food preference and satisfaction. This observation is in line with the findings of Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2019), who discovered that local food consumption is explained by food image factors at a much lower level than food preference. This might be because actual food consumption at the destination could be further influenced by many other factors, such as the accessibility of the local food, the availability and variety of food options at the destination, presentation, price, and the hygiene of local food.

Conclusion

This study sought to assess the influence of demographic factors, food neophobia, food familiarity, food image, and the importance of local food on destination food preference, consumption, and satisfaction. As the findings showed, there were many significant differences in local food preference, consumption, and satisfaction levels among different demographic groups in each nationality sample, offering only partial support for Hypothesis 1.

This study provides insights into the effect of demographic factors relating to the two tourist markets investigated on the preference for, consumption of, and satisfaction with Thai food. The findings show that certain demographically defined segments have higher levels of preference, consumption, and satisfaction, including the higher educated Chinese tourists, the older Australian tourists, and those making repeat visits. This finding helps destination marketers to direct gastronomy tourism marketing efforts toward the right groups of tourists based on these demographic factors. Furthermore, as discovered in this study, different nationalities can be segmented differently based on different demographic factors, and destination marketers should keep this in mind in customizing the promotion of Thai food as a tourism product to different and relevant target markets in each country.

In addition, destination marketers should take the negative effect of food neophobia into account and should provide knowledge and information to neophobic tourists about local food to increase their familiarity with the food and reduce its novelty to those tourists. On the other hand, marketers might target highly neophobic tourists to promote new local dishes as a way for them to experience novelty, the unique culture, and the way of life of the destination. At the macro level, governments such as the Thai government, which see the potential of the local food as a tourist attraction, should promote their food as an important aspect of tourism. This might reduce the potential of neophobic food perceptions of certain groups of tourists who are highly neophobic. In effect, it may increase their willingness to try local food at the destination.

As food image and food neophobia are the two most important predictors of the outcome variables under study, destination marketers need to make efforts to help improve the image of the local food,

which may potentially reduce food neophobia. An important element of local food image is the hygiene of local food, which, according to Promsivapallop and Kannavakun (2019), is considered to be detrimental to the image of Thai food. If tourists perceive local food as unhygienic, this may contribute to some tourists' food neophobia, and they will be hesitant to try local food. Therefore, improving hygiene could enhance food image and potentially reduce food neophobia among tourists who are less familiar with local food. Furthermore, the promotion of Thai food in overseas markets should also be increased as this can raise awareness of Thai food and food familiarity and may be able to reduce food neophobia and encourage more local food consumption among visitors to Thailand.

In addition, it would be of interest to use these two main factors to profile and classify tourists based on their food image perceptions and food neophobia, which could help increase the understanding of different groups of tourists and their characteristics based on these factors. It would also be interesting to compare such tourist classifications across different cultures and nationalities. Such studies could potentially show whether the findings of this study regarding the equal levels of food neophobia and its influence on local food consumption among the two nationalities studied, applies more widely to other nationalities.

This study has several limitations, and its results should be interpreted with caution. Firstly, only two nationalities were included in this study; thus, its results may not be generalizable to other groups of international tourists. Secondly, as food in different regions of the same country tends to be different, the results of this investigation of tourists' attitudes towards Thai food in Phuket cannot necessarily be generalized to Thai food elsewhere in the country. Therefore, future food tourism research in Thailand should be extended to include other important tourist destinations in all regions of the country in addition to Phuket, as well as including a wider selection of tourist nationalities.

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Conflict of interest

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Ethical clearance:

This study was approved by the institution.

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Food Image and Loyalty Intentions: Chinese Tourists' Destination Food Satisfaction

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Food Image and Loyalty Intentions: Chinese Tourists' Destination Food Satisfaction

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the multidimensional construct of food image, assessed the impact of destination food image on tourist loyalty intentions and investigated the mediating effect of food satisfaction on this relationship. A survey was conducted of 411 Chinese tourists who had visited Phuket. Results of Explanatory Factor Analysis revealed four dimensions including restaurant service, food safety and hygiene, variety and table manners, and food taste and popularity, among which, food taste and popularity was the most influential factor contributing to tourists' perceptions of Thai food image. Structural Equation Modeling confirmed the relationships between perceived destination food image, food satisfaction, and loyalty intentions. Additionally, a mediation model demonstrated that food satisfaction mediates the relationship between food image and loyalty intentions. Theoretical and managerial implications are discussed in the context of tourism marketing and destination management.

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关键词
目的地美食形象; 美食满意度; 忠诚度意向; 中国游客; 普吉岛

美食形象与忠诚度意向:中国游客对目的地美食之满意度

摘要

本文研究了美食形象的多维度变量, 评估了目的地美食形象对游客忠诚度意向的影响, 并研究了美食满意度对这种关系的中介作用。411位来普吉岛度假的中国游客参与了问卷调查。探索性因子分析法的结果确定了四个维度, 餐厅服务, 食品安全和卫生, 食品种类和餐桌礼仪, 以及食品口味和受欢迎程度。其中, 食品口味和受欢迎程度是影响游客对泰国美食形象的认知的最重要因素。结构方程模型确认了目的地美食形象感知, 美食满意度和忠诚度意向之间的关系。此外, 中介模型显示美食满意度可以调节美食形象和忠诚度意向之间的关系。本文在旅游营销和目的地管理的框架内讨论了理论和管理方面的启示

Introduction

Eating local food at a tourist destination amounts to more than just satisfying one's hunger, enjoying an unusual meal or drinking a glass of the heady fermented grape juice during a trip but is a way of involving oneself deeply in the culture and heritage of

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a destination and making the experience memorable in an unparalleled and personal way (Björk & Kauppinen-Räisänen, 2016; Tsai, 2016). Tourists' authentic experiences of eating locally produced food can not only revitalize cultural heritage (Di Giovine et al., 2017), but also increase destination tourism offerings (Telfer & Wall, 1996), improve destination food image (Choe & Kim, 2018), and offer a greater variety (Okumus et al., 2013) as well as rejuvenating the local economy (Privitera et al., 2018).

Therefore, it is not surprising that destination marketers and managers rely on locally distinctive foods in promoting the uniqueness of their destination (Sims, 2010) and create promotional food campaigns and events to keep an unrivaled profile distinguishing them from the rest (Lin et al., 2011). For example, Hong Kong (Hall & Gössling, 2016), Singapore (Brien, 2014), Turkey (Okumus & Cetin, 2015), and Australia (Guzel & Apaydin, 2016), and Peru (Nelson, 2016), have all promoted themselves as culinary destinations and projected positive food images as a means of enhancing the quality of tourists' overall experience and desire to return.

In keeping with the trend of global culinary tourism, the Thai government has sought to present a positive local food image to boost culinary tourism as a lucrative niche tourism market (Walter, 2017). Thai food is globally recognized and mostly owes its fame to its exotic flavor, interesting range of textures, health benefits, and its rich aroma (Li, 2018; Listamaze.com, 2018) and became popular in the late 1960 s with the growth of the tourism industry in Thailand (Padoongpatt, 2017). Whether chili-hot or gently bland, Thai food is one of the major tourist attractions that motivates visitors to travel from far away to visit or revisit Thailand (Singsomboon, 2015). The high potential of Thai cuisine as a tourism product has allowed the Thai government to conduct many campaigns promoting tourism such as *Amazing Thai Food* or *Discover Thainess* in an effort to tempt gastronomy tourists to put Thailand on their foodie maps (Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019). Moreover, the *Thai Kitchen of the World* campaign launched by the Thai government in 2004 offered loans to Thai nationals intending to open Thai restaurants overseas (Padoongpatt, 2017) and the large number of Thai restaurants abroad has raised global awareness of Thai food, thus attracting food lovers to enjoy authentic Thai cuisine in Thailand itself.

Phuket is one of the key tourism areas in Thailand, and in addition to the island's natural attractions, is highly regarded for its local cuisine, especially its seafood (Phuket7days.com, 2017). The Chinese ancestry of the people of Phuket and Portuguese and Dutch colonial legacies have all left distinctive impressions on Phuket's culinary culture, rituals, and the people's lifestyles (Krasae-in & Rodjanathum, 2018). There are at least 100 dishes amongst Phuket's local cuisine which have been adapted from Hokkien Chinese food (Pakdeewong, 2002). The combination of old eastern and western cuisines makes Phuket's local food quite unique and the city was designated as a UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy in 2015 (Krasae-in & Rodjanathum, 2018). This designation emphasizes the value of Phuket's local food in promoting tourism, particularly since it has experienced some difficulty in maintaining its status as a preferred travel destination in Thailand (Barnett, 2019; Johnson, 2019). Although several factors have contributed to this fall in its popularity, such as competition from emerging tourism destinations with lower prices and the strength of Thailand's currency, the current situation of tourism in Phuket is to a large extent that the result of falling numbers of Chinese tourists who in recent years have been the main source of tourists visiting Phuket (Chan, 2019).

In order to overcome the recent challenging situation and to survive in the fiercely competitive market environment, Phuket needs to increase its share of the huge outbound Chinese tourist market, and destination managers need to add value to Phuket by promoting its local food as an unrivaled tourism product (Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Du Rand & Heath, 2009). Local food has become a more significant aspect of promoting tourism destinations (Kim et al., 2009) and achieving sustainable tourism competitiveness (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). Phuket's local food has many features in common with Chinese food and this is an asset in attracting Chinese travelers since Chinese food is the dominant food preference of Chinese tourists in any international tourism destination (Chang et al., 2010). Hence, the similarities between the food cultures of Phuket and China are essential to understanding the food concerns, preferences, and behavioral intentions of Chinese tourists. More specifically, being aware of what factors increase Chinese tourist loyalty intentions provides valuable information for Phuket tourism marketers and managers since retaining repeat tourists is more profitable and less expensive than capturing new ones (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Um et al., 2006).

It is widely understood that the consuming destination local food significantly influences tourist satisfaction (Babolian Hendijani, 2016; Rusli & Pujiwioto, 2016; Zhang et al., 2019) and loyalty intentions (Ji et al., 2016; Vujko et al., 2017). Additionally, the gastronomic experience for travelers linked to local food constitutes essential element of destination food image (DFI) which is the major topic in tourism scholarly research due to its importance for destination marketing and branding (Lai et al., 2019). Recent reviews of the literature indicate that considerable progress has been made in research into links of DFI with its theoretical consequences including food satisfaction (Chi et al., 2013; Gani et al., 2017; Chi et al., 2019; Ab Karim et al., 2011; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019) and destination loyalty intentions (Chi et al., 2019; Tsai & Wang, 2017). The DFI literature also well supported the role of tourist food satisfaction as the imperative indicator of destination loyalty intentions (Chi et al., 2013; Ji et al., 2016; Khuong & Van Nga, 2018; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019). Moreover, the foregoing direct relationship between DFI and destination loyalty intentions could also be theoretically mediated by food satisfaction as the paradigm of destination image → tourist satisfaction → destination loyalty intentions has been empirically supported within the destination image literature (Al-Ansi & Han, 2019; Jeong & Kim, 2019; Kanwel et al., 2019). However, integrating the effects of DFI on food satisfaction and destination loyalty intentions is an important development in consumer and tourism research and is seen near the front of the line in the field of hospitality and tourism (Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019).

Despite this trend/need, no one to the best of our knowledge has conducted a robust conceptual model detailed the effects of Thai food image on the post-trip evaluation behaviors of Chinese tourists visiting Phuket. This research need could be attributable, in part, to the fact that the DFI literature is still seen to have some spaces for theoretical improvements. Most specifically, there exists a lack of theoretical underpinning in the DFI studies making a better understanding of the decision-making process that voyagers go through to perform post-trip evaluation behaviors. In this regard, Stimulus-Organism -Response (S-O-R) theory (Jacoby, 2002) adopted from psychology discipline is comprehensive enough to be applied in the studies of consumer behavior (Fiore & Kim, 2007). Moreover, there is an urgent need for more empirical studies to establish the validity of the multidimensional construct of food image to gain an accurate insight into

the underlying components of food image that influence Chinese tourists' food satisfaction. Therefore, the contribution of this study is twofold. First, it examines the multidimensional construct of food image and identifies the dimensions that have a greater or lesser influence on food satisfaction among Chinese tourists. Second, it tends to assess the utility of SOR theory to explain the ways in which perceived local food image affects food satisfaction and loyalty intentions.

Literature review

Theoretical underpinning

The current study's theoretical framework is supported by Stimulus-Organism-Response (S-O-R) theory (Jacoby, 2002). The central premise of the theory is, a stimulus from environments affects one's cognitive and affective reactions (organism) which in turn influence his/her behavioral outcomes including intentional and actual behavior (response). Further, an organism can mediate the effect of stimulus on response (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Accordingly, the exogenous stimulus in this study, food image, is expected to affect customer food satisfaction which consequently influences customer's loyalty intentions. Moreover, food satisfaction triggered by food image plays a mediating role that significantly affects customer's loyalty intentions (intention to recommend and revisit intention).

Destination food image

The set of one's emotions, attitudes, ideas, and beliefs affects one's image of a product and that image has more influence on human behavior than objective truth (Martineau, 1958). However, a product image cannot be defined simply through a single aspect but is constructed from both cognitive and affective aspects (Dichter, 1985). While the cognitive image refers to the sum of one's beliefs and attitudes toward a product's attributes and is an antecedent of the affective image (Holbrook, 1987), it is the affective image which represents one's emotions and feelings about the product (Stern & Krakover, 1993). Recently, destination image has received considerable attention in the tourism literature (Bruwer et al., 2018; Kim, 2018; Papadimitriou et al., 2018). Destination image psychologically represents one's perceptions and feelings about a destination (Crompton, 1979). In the light of Crompton's definition of destination image, tourism scholars have argued that, although destination image is a multidimensional construct including cognitive and affective images, affective appraisal of a destination depends to a great extent on cognitive evaluations (Lin et al., 2007; Luque-Martinez et al., 2007) and cognitive images remain more stable over time (King et al., 2015). Previous studies have also addressed the concept of food image and the role that food and culinary traditions play in the formation of destination image (Zain et al., 2018). However, very few tourism-related studies have investigated destination food image by simultaneously studying both cognitive and affective food images and it is possible that destination food image is based at least in part on cognition (Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019).

Food image in tourism research has been conceptualized as a multidimensional construct (Lertputtarak, 2012; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014; Promsivapallop &

Kannaovakun, 2019; Seo & Yun, 2015). For example, Lertputtarak (2012) conceptualized food image as consisting of three facets: the food itself, the place where the food is offered, and the service style, and identified two key dimensions of the image of Thai cuisine, namely Thai food image and Thai restaurant image, thus neglecting the service aspect. Peštek and Činjarević (2014) mainly focused on the image of the overall cuisine and recognized four dimensions to the image of Bosnian food consisting of, food uniqueness and cultural heritage, food quality and price, nutrition and health benefits of the food, and the affective image of the food. Similarly, Seo and Yun (2015) paid less attention to the service experience in their study and suggested five dimensions of destination cognitive food image comprising food safety and quality, the attractiveness of food, the health benefits of the food, food culture, and unique culinary arts.

More recently, Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2019) associated Thai food image with five dimensions of restaurant service, food taste, health and hygiene, variety and table manners, and unique cultural experience. Their research was in the line with Lertputtarak's conceptualization of food image from its three facets (Lertputtarak, 2012). However, several studies coincide to assert that destination food image affects visitors' evaluation of destination local food during on-site experience (food satisfaction) and future loyalty intentions to the visited place (Chi et al., 2013; Chi et al., 2019; Kim, 2018; Liu et al., 2017; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014; Prayag et al., 2017; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019; Tsai & Wang, 2017). A number of studies coincide to assert that destination food image affects visitors' evaluation of destination local food during on-site experience (food satisfaction) and future loyalty intentions to the visited place (Chi et al., 2013; Gani et al., 2017; Chi et al., 2019; Ab Karim et al., 2011; Kim, 2018; Liu et al., 2017; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014; Prayag et al., 2017; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019; Tsai & Wang, 2017). In the sections that follow, these relationships are briefly discussed.

Destination food image and loyalty intention

Hawkins et al. (1995) defined customer loyalty as consumers' intentions or actual behaviors to continually buy the same certain products/services. Oliver (1997, p. 392) puts into words ultimate loyalty as 'fervently desires to re-buy a product/service, will have no other, and will pursue this quest against all odds and at all costs.' However, previous studies of consumer behavior have argued that loyalty is a multidimensional concept which includes attitudinal (commitment) and behavioral (repurchase) dimensions and that simultaneously measuring both dimensions increases the power of the loyalty construct (Baloglu, 2002). In the context of tourism, tourist loyalty is typically operationalized by three dimensions: behavioral, attitudinal, and a combination of both dimensions in which tourists' loyalty may lead to a willingness to repurchase revisit intention and to make positive recommendations to other people (Zhang et al., 2014).

Scholars have concluded that local food is one of the crucial elements in the formation of destination image (Zain et al., 2018) which positively influences tourists' intentions to revisit and spread positive *word-of-mouth* (WOM) (Kim, 2018; Liu et al., 2017; Prayag et al., 2017). Moreover, Chi et al. (2019) revealed how foreign tourists' perceived cognitive image of Vietnamese food was crucial in building revisit intentions, and the study conducted by Tsai and Wang (2017) similarly found that a favorable image of

Taiwanese food led tourist to revisit intention and a willingness to recommend Tainan as a food tourism destination to others. Finally, and of greatest relevance to the present study, Lertputtarak (2012) found that a good image of Thai food influences foreign tourists' intentions to revisit Pattaya city. In light of the above discussion, the present study proposed the following hypothesis:

H1. Destination food image positively influences loyalty intentions.

Destination food image and tourist food satisfaction

According to Oliver's Expectation-Confirmation Theory (ECT), customer satisfaction occurs when customer's expectations are met by the actual experience of the product/service (Oliver, 1980). ECT suggests that consumers involve in a sequential process to reach satisfaction. The process starts before purchasing when consumers make primary expectations of the product/service. After the product/service has been utilized, they form perceptions about the product/service performance and compare it with their original expectations. If the product/service performance meets prior expectations, the confirmation happens which results in satisfaction. On the similar count, S-O-R theory depicts that consumer satisfaction (response) is consumer's feelings concerning evaluation of product/service shortly after it has been utilized (organism) and whether it met his/her expectations (stimulus). Such similarity between ECT and S-O-R theory strengthens the better understanding of the current study's theoretical underpinning.

In the context of tourism, satisfaction is the psychological outcome of post-trip evaluations which emerge from comparisons between pre-trip expectations and actual service experiences (MacKay & Crompton, 1990); therefore, food satisfaction can be defined as a high level of delight induced by using or consuming destination food products and services. However, destination food image not only influences the destination choices of food lovers (Tsai & Wang, 2017) but also affects post-trip evaluations of, for instance, satisfaction with the local food (Chi et al., 2013; Gani et al., 2017; Chi et al., 2019; Ab Karim et al., 2011; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019). The studies conducted by Chi et al. (2013) and Gani et al. (2017) illustrated how a good impression of Malaysian food led to food satisfaction among international tourists. Similarly, Toudert and Bringas-Rábago (2019) confirmed the positive impact of a good image of American food on tourists' food satisfaction. The positive effect of food image on food satisfaction was also found by Chi et al. (2019) in respect of Vietnamese food; however, each dimension of food image may differently influence tourist food satisfaction (Ab Karim et al., 2011; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014). For instance, Ab Karim et al. (2011) found that dimensions of Portuguese cuisine image including 'quality and variety' (e.g. traditional menu, variety of food choices, and local ingredients) and 'authenticity' (e.g. diversity of cooking methods, unique flavors, and originality) were the most important contributors to tourist food satisfaction. Moreover, the research conducted by Peštek and Činjarević (2014) demonstrated that three dimensions of local cuisine image, namely 'food quality and price,' 'affective image of food,' and 'food uniqueness and cultural heritage' were the dimensions that highly contributed to the European tourists' overall food satisfaction. Based on the extant literature on food image and food satisfaction, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H2. Destination food image positively influences food satisfaction.

Food satisfaction and loyalty intentions

Customer satisfaction is essential for successful marketing because satisfied customers spend more, resulting in higher sales and hence profit (Gerson, 1993). Further, satisfied customers will talk about their successful purchases with their family and friends which creates a cost-effective way of advertising (Chi, 2018). Cronin and Taylor (1992) emphasized that satisfied customers develop more product loyalty and are more likely to make repeat purchases to reduce the risk associated with unfamiliar product/service offerings.

On the similar count, tourist satisfaction with a destination highly contributes to destination loyalty intentions (Eid et al., 2019; Yap et al., 2018). Most specifically, Khuong and Van Nga (2018) shed light on the concept of food satisfaction by identifying the significant and direct influence of foreign tourists' satisfaction with Vietnamese food on their intentions to spread positive WOM. Local Food satisfaction was shown to have a direct link to loyalty intentions which was consistent with the study of Chi et al. (2013). They found a similar relationship between foreign tourists' satisfaction with local food in Vietnam and revisit intentions. Similarly, the studies conducted by Toudert and Bringas-Rábago (2019) and Ji et al. (2016) well supported that tourists with satisfied gastronomic experiences tend to return or recommend gastronomic destinations to others. Therefore, in view of the findings outlined above, this study hypothesized that:

H3. Food satisfaction positively influences loyalty intentions.

Mediating effect of food satisfaction

Some previous studies have argued that while loyalty intentions can be explained by both tourist satisfaction and destination image, the relationship between destination image and loyalty intentions is indirect, and that tourist satisfaction acts as a mediating variable (Liu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017). For mainland Chinese tourists to Macau, Liu et al. (2017) found that travelers' favorable or unfavorable perceived destination image changed the level of their satisfaction, and that ultimately affected their future loyalty intentions and destination satisfaction, thus fully mediated the relationship between Chinese tourists' perceived image of Macau and their loyalty intentions. The mediation effect of tourist's satisfaction on relationship between destination image and tourist's loyalty intention can be further supported by S-O-R theory. This theory is widely applied in the consumer behavior research and posits that the one's negative or positive evaluation of on-site experience (satisfaction) can mediate the effect of environmental factor (e.g. food image) on his/her future intentional and actual behavior (Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). However, unlike the direct effect of destination food image on future loyalty intentions, no published theoretical and empirical study was traced by the authors of this paper, which examined the indirect effect of food image on loyalty intentions through food satisfaction. Therefore, based on the foregoing discussion, this study suggests that food image may affect tourists' loyalty intentions indirectly through food satisfaction and, the following hypothesis was framed:

H4. Destination food satisfaction mediates the relationship between food image and loyalty intentions.

Methodology

Construct development

To examine the research hypotheses, a self-administered questionnaire was developed to collect data. The measurement items were adopted and adapted from previous studies (Duttagupta, 2013; Kivela & Crotts, 2006; Lertputtarak, 2012; Ling et al., 2010). The questionnaire was comprised of items measuring cognitive food image, food satisfaction, and loyalty intentions, all of which were rated by the respondents based on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) to measure the research variables. The respondents' socio-economic characteristics were also in the questionnaire. The initial version of the questionnaire was vetted by a panel of experts in the fields of tourism and hospitality management and their feedback on the clarity and appropriateness of the items helped in the development of the final version. The questionnaire was also pre-tested with 30 foreign tourists for its accuracy and ease of understanding, and it was slightly changed based on the comments of the respondents. Further, the final revised version of the questionnaire was translated from English into Chinese and then checked by being translated back into English by two English-Chinese translators. Comparison between the back-translated questionnaire and the original one showed no major differences and thus assured the accuracy of the translation into Chinese. The Chinese version of the questionnaire was then used in the survey conducted pursuant to this study.

Pilot study to identify the dimensions of food image and organization of the questionnaire

A pilot study was conducted with a sample of 196 Chinese tourists and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). EFA was employed as proposed by Awang (2015), to determine the underlying dimensions of food image emerging from the responses to the items adopted from previous studies. Principle component extraction with Varimax rotation was applied. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test was used to measure the sampling accuracy and produced a coefficient of 0.85 and Bartlett's test was significant at the 0.001 level which confirmed that the sample was adequate to run EFA. In the line with the study of Andriotis et al. (2008), the cutoff point for the factor loadings was set at an absolute value of 0.45. Two attempts were made to extract the final results. At the first attempt, six items reporting cross-loading were discarded from further factor analysis. They were: *Thai food is visually appealing, Thai food is unique, There is a variety of restaurant types that offer Thai cuisine, Thai food gives a cultural experience, Thai food is exotic*, and *Restaurant staff at Thai restaurants have a unique serving style*. Based on the second EFA results, four dimensions with a minimum eigenvalue of 1.0 or higher were detected. These dimensions accounted for 61.55% of the total variance and consisted of restaurant service, food safety and health, food taste and popularity, and variety and eating habits. Notably, the research findings were in the line with Lertputtarak's study (Lertputtarak, 2012) who conceptualized food image from three facets of the food itself, place where the food is

offered, and the service style. The details are reported in the results section (Table 1). The 22 remaining food image items were then re-arranged according to which factor they reflected.

The final version of the questionnaire consisted of four sections. The first section consisted of the 22 items set out in Table 2 measuring the four dimensions of Thai food image which emerged from the EFA. Destination food satisfaction was measured in the second section by five items as follows: *Thai food contributed to the quality of my visiting experience, Thai food contributed to my eating pleasure, Eating Thai food added to my visiting enjoyment, The food experience in Phuket met my expectations*, and *I experienced the culture of Thailand through Thai food*. In the third section, a further

Table 1. Exploratory factor analysis of food image attributes (n = 196).

Factor	Loading	Eigen value	% of variance explained	Cronbach's alpha
Factor 1-Restaurant Service		**7.15**	**32.50**	**0.90**
Thai restaurants have a unique style of decoration and environment.	0.70			
Thai restaurants have comfortable eating surroundings.	0.74			
Thai restaurants offer value for money.	0.65			
Services by food providers are good.	0.84			
Food providers are friendly.	0.86			
Food spots are located in convenient places.	0.81			
There are a variety of local specialties.	0.70			
There is a lot of information available about local food.	0.71			
Factor 2- Food Safety and Health		**2.89**	**13.14**	**0.84**
Thai food is hygienic.	0.71			
Thai food is easily digestible.	0.73			
Thai food is safe to consume.	0.80			
Thai food is healthy.	0.78			
The Herbs used in Thai food are good for health.	0.65			
Ingredients used in Thai food are fresh.	0.60			
Factor 3- Food Taste and Popularity		**2.03**	**9.24**	**0.76**
Thai food is a popular cuisine throughout the world.	0.69			
Thai food is tasty.	0.77			
Thai food is rich in flavors.	0.67			
Thai food is hot and spicy.	0.56			
Thai food is aromatic.	0.73			
Factor 4- Variety and Table manners		**1.46**	**6.66**	**0.80**
Thai cuisine has attractive eating habits and table manners.	0.57			
Thai cuisine offers a variety of food.	0.82			
Thai cuisine uses a variety of cooking methods.	0.81			
Total			**61.55**	**0.89**

Table 2. Mean item scores grouped by variables (n = 411).

Variables	Mean	SD
LI	3.56	0.678
FS	3.68	0.702
FI	3.65	0.518
RS	3.47	0.527
FSH	3.41	0.573
FTP	3.22	0.559
VTM	3.80	0.724

Notes: Loyalty Intentions = LI; Food Satisfaction = FS; Food Image = FI; FSH = Food Safety and Health; FT = Food Taste and Popularity; VTM = Variety and Table Manners; RS = Restaurant Service.

five items measured loyalty intentions, comprising: *I will recommend Thai food to my friends and family, I have a good impression of Thai food, I strongly remember my food experience in Phuket*, I *will revisit Phuket for Thai food*, and *Based on my eating-out experience while visiting Phuket, I would rate Phuket as a gastronomy destination*. The fourth section of the questionnaire asked the respondents to report their demographic profiles. Therefore, the final version of questionnaire consisted of a total of 32 items measured by a 5-point Likert scale with items collecting demographic information, and all the items relating to the research constructs enjoyed satisfactory internal consistency.

Sampling and data collection

A number of previous studies were considered in determining the required sample size. According to Kline (2011), the proper sample size for data analysis using Structure Equation Modeling (SEM) depends on the model complexity and ranges from 30 upward for simple Confirmatory Factor Analysis whereas Wolf et al. (2013) recommend 450 for the determination of mediation-moderation effects. Therefore, a sample size in excess of 480 was used to construct a suitable model to test the hypotheses in this study. The questionnaires were distributed at the departure section of Phuket International Airport over 2 weeks during the New Year period of 2018. Independent Chinese tourists (i.e. those who were not part of a group tour) who were on vacation and had spent at least 2 days in Phuket were approached and invited to take part in the survey. If they agreed to participate, after having the study's objectives explained to them, they were asked to complete the questionnaire. The respondents had 18 years or above and had to have consumed Thai food in commercial eating places during their stay in order to guarantee that they were qualified to express their opinion about Thai food and evaluate other aspects of its consumption, and express their loyalty intentions. In total, 423 questionnaires were returned. Of these, a total of 411 questionnaires were retained and were utilized for data analysis.

Data analysis

Prior to the data analysis, the assumptions of multivariate normality such as the normality of the distribution, homoscedasticity, linearity, and multicollinearity were all verified as being satisfied using SPSS 20. Later, descriptive statistics relating to the respondents' demographic profiles and the study constructs were extracted. A covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) model was used to test the study's hypotheses (Ramayah et al., 2016). Unlike Partial Least Squares, CB-SEM imposes more restrictive assumptions about normality and requires a large sample size (Hair et al., 2014). Based on the two-stage approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was initially conducted in this study using AMOS, version 23, to assess the adequacy of the measurement model. The structural model reflecting the visual path diagrams between exogenous and endogenous constructs was verified in line with the study's theoretical considerations (Samah, 2016).

Results

Of the respondents, 63.6% were female (34.4% were male); 56.7% held a bachelor's degree, while 23.7% held a diploma or had completed high school; 87.6% were between the ages of 18 and 34; 65.5% had a monthly income of 2000 AUD or less; 15.1% had visited Phuket before but 73% of the respondents had never visited Thailand before. The average length of stay in Phuket was 4.72 days.

Based on the results derived from the EFA in the pilot study (see Table 1), the cognitive food image was conceptualized as a multidimensional construct and Table 2 shows the mean scores derived from the respondents for each food image dimension. As illustrated in Table 2, the sample of Chinese tourists did not have a high perception of the image of Thai food (mean = 3.65). However, they viewed the variety of Thai food and eating habits more favorably (Mean = 3.80) but were less impressed by the restaurant service (Mean = 3.47), and the food safety and hygiene (Mean = 3.41), with the food's taste and popularity being scored lowest (Mean = 3.22).

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to clarify which items loaded onto each construct and to establish the reliability and validity of the research constructs. To check the adequacy of model fit, widely used fit indices such as relative chi-square (<5.0), adjusted goodness-of-fit (AGFI >0.9), goodness-of-fit (GF I >0.9), comparative fit index (CFI >0.9), incremental fit index (IFI >0.9), and root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA <0.08) (Awang, 2015; Bentler, 1990; Hair et al., 2010) were adopted. Due to the large sample size (>200), a satisfactory threshold value of 0.4 for item loadings was adopted as proposed by Hair et al. (2010). However, only one item *of Thai food is hot and spicy* with a loading value of less than 0.4 was deleted. The standardized factor loadings of the 21 items retained were between 0.61 and 0.90.

The first CFA carried out in the main study, considered all the research variables as first-order constructs while in the second CFA, the food image construct was treated as a second-order construct with both food satisfaction and loyalty intentions being first-order constructs. The model fit indices of the CFAs are reported in Table 3 and indicated that the measurement model satisfied all requirements. The convergent and discriminate validity of the first-order and second-order models were assessed following the procedures proposed by Hair et al. (2010). To establish convergent validity, the Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were applied. AVEs greater than 0.5 were estimated and CRs for all the research constructs were above the recommended value of 0.7, thus confirming the adequacy of the convergent validity.

Table 3. Model fit indices of the data to the three models created.

Fit indexes	Measurement model first-order CFA	Measurement model using second-order CFA	Structural model
χ2	702.817	744.502	744.502
df	413	421	421
χ2 (df)	1.702	1.768	1.768
AGFI	0.884	0.879	0.879
GFI	0.903	0.898	0.898
IFI	0.965	0.961	0.961
CFI	0.964	0.960	0.960
RMSEA	0.041	0.043	0.043

The discriminant validity was determined by comparing the square root of the AVE for each individual construct with its corresponding correlations with other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The larger square roots of the AVE values in all cases confirmed the discriminant validity of the constructs (Table 4). Based on confidence that the measurement model was appropriate for the study sample, a structural model was established to test the research hypotheses. As shown in the final column of Table 3, the results of the fit indices confirmed the good fit of the data to the structural model. The standardized path coefficients obtained from the structural model indicated that food image ($\beta = 0.384$, $p < 0.001$) and food satisfaction ($\beta = 0.469$, $p < 0.001$) were positively related to loyalty intentions (Table 5). The R^2 indicated that 61.1% of the variance in loyalty intentions was explained by food image and food satisfaction and this finding, therefore, supported hypotheses H_1 and H_3. This was expected both theoretically and empirically and supports the results of previous research (Chi et al., 2013; Chi et al., 2019; Ji et al., 2016; Khuong & Van Nga, 2018; Lertputtarak, 2012; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019; Tsai & Wang, 2017). Similarly, food satisfaction was the stronger predictor of loyalty intentions compared to perceived food image.

Consistent with previous studies (Chi et al., 2013; Gani et al., 2017; Chi et al., 2019; Ab Karim et al., 2011; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014; Toudert & Bringas-Rábago, 2019), the structural model supported hypothesis H_2 proposing a positive relationship between food image and food satisfaction ($\beta = 0.682$, $p < 0.001$). The results also allowed the identification of the dimensions of destination food image that significantly contribute to food satisfaction, and while 'food taste and popularity' followed by 'food safety and health,' and 'restaurant service' were the most influential dimensions, no evidence was found that Thai food variety and Attractive eating habits contribute to the Chinese tourists' food satisfaction (Table 6). The results seem to contradict with the earlier studies (Ab Karim et al., 2011; Peštek & Činjarević, 2014). A variable may act as a mediator 'to the extent that it accounts for the relation between the predictor and the criterion' (Baron

Table 4. Results of convergent and discriminant validity.

	LI	FS	FI	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted
LI	**0.828**			0.916	0.685
FS	0.733	**0.839**		0.922	0.704
FI	0.706	0.686	**0.711**	0.803	0.506

Note: Square roots of AVEs shown diagonally in boldface.

Table 5. Results of hypothesis testing based on the structural model.

Hypothesis	Path	Beta	β	SE.	CR.	P	SUPPORTED
H1	FI→ LI	0.473	0.384	0.087	5.454	<0.001	YES
H2	FS→ LI	0.458	0.469	0.062	5.454	<0.001	YES
H3	FI→ FS	0.851	0.682	0.084	10.146	<0.001	YES

Table 6. Summary of influence of destination food image dimensions on food satisfaction.

Path	B	β	S.E.	C.R.	P
FSH→ FS	0.239	0.201	0.074	3.219	<0.001
FTP→ FS	0.451	0.374	0.082	5.504	<0.001
VTM→ FS	0.022	0.023	0.066	0.332	0.74
RS→ FS	0.245	0.187	0.076	3.227	<0.001

& Kenny, 1986, p. 1176). Following Baron and Kenny's Four-Step Procedure, direct and indirect mediating models were constructed to test the mediation effect of food satisfaction. In the direct model, a significant link must be established between the independent and dependent variables. However, this relationship was found significant between food image and loyalty intentions ($\beta = 0.702$, $p < 0.001$). In the second step, the independent variable of food image was significantly related to the mediating variable of food satisfaction ($\beta = 0.682$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, the mediator variable, food satisfaction, was correlated with loyalty intention as the dependent variable ($\beta = 0.732$, $p < 0.001$).

In the fourth step, food satisfaction was incorporated as a mediator into the model. In the indirect model, the value of the path coefficient linking food image to loyalty intention was reduced from 0.702 to 0.384 but was still significant once the indirect path via food satisfaction was introduced into the model. These results provided limited support for partial mediation (Awang, 2015). To assess whether the mediating effects are statistically significant, Preacher and Hayes (2008) bootstrapping method with bias-corrected, 95% confidence intervals, and 5000 iterations were applied to test the significance of the indirect effects. If the indirect effect is significant and the confidence interval does not include zero, mediation is supported. However, further analysis conducted by bootstrapping revealed a significant total effect of food image on loyalty intentions ($\beta = 0.702$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, the direct effect of food image on loyalty intentions was significant in the presence of food satisfaction ($\beta = 0.267$, $p < 0.001$) as well as through its indirect effect ($\beta = 0.248$, $p < 0.001$). It can, therefore, be concluded that the relationship between destination food image and loyalty intentions was partially mediated by food satisfaction thus supporting hypothesis H_4 (See Table 7).

Conclusion and discussion

Local food has become a key element in structuring today's tourist offerings, and it has received the most care and attention from destination management organizations who seek to diversify and boost destination attractions (Akdag et al., 2018). However, the research focusing on local food, particularly for some specific interests such as relationships linked destination food image to tourist food satisfaction and loyalty intentions, are still in their early stages. In the case of destination food image, the construct itself seems subject to a constant exploration as a multidimensional cognitive construct. Under these conditions, the suggestion of the study about the implications of a robust conceptual model detailed the effects of Thai food image on the post-trip evaluation behaviors of tourists including food satisfaction and loyalty intentions has findings with both theoretical and managerial implications.

In accordance with the results of forgoing studies in the literature and result sections, the relationships between destination food image and food satisfaction as well as food image and loyalty intentions were found conclusive underlining the importance of the image of local food in destination marketing and branding (Lai et al., 2019). However, unique or

Table 7. Results of hypothesis testing based on the indirect model.

Hypothesis	Path	Total effect	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Results
H4	**FI→FS→LI**	0.702 P < 0.001	0.267 P < 0.001	0.248 P < 0.001	Partially mediated

different from the existing literature, the impact of destination food image on Chinese travelers' intentions to return and recommend the visited destination was also found significant and positive through the mediating effect of food satisfaction. In summary, when Chinese tourists perceived a favorable image of Thai food, they were satisfied with their experiences of Thai food and were more likely to behave positively by, for instance, revisiting Phuket, rating Phuket as a gastronomy destination, or recommending Thai food to others. Therefore, in addition to promoting loyalty, Thai food image promoted Chinese tourists' satisfaction with Thai food and encouraged them to promote Thai food to others, as suggested by Ji et al. (2016). Chinese tourists' positive WOM generated through satisfactory gastronomic experience in Phuket may act as a strong motivator for their friends and relatives to also visit Phuket.

Under this perspective, it would be expected that government bodies and DMO try to maintain a competitive destination food image by strengthening Thai food itself, the places where Thai food is offered, and the service style to stimulate an ample food satisfactory experience for Chinese tourists enhancing their loyalty intentions, because as found in this study, a satisfactory gastronomy experience significantly transfers the effect of local food image on loyalty intentions. Indeed, efforts should be directed to further engage the image of Thai food and enhancing Chinses tourist food satisfaction in destination marketing strategies in order to facilitate the development of gastronomy tourism in Phuket in parallel with other niche tourism products.

From the theoretical perspective, this study contributes to the body of knowledge in several ways. First, applying a theory-based approach (S-O-R theory) adopted from the psychology discipline overcomes the lack of theoretical underpinning in the DFI literature. Second, applying SOR theory in the travel context is a significant endeavor in predicting tourists' loyalty intentions. Thus, thoroughly comprehending which of the SOR theory's elements matters, once tourists make decisions to revisit a destination or recommend it to others, represents a unique contribution of the study. It may contribute to the expansion of the SOR application in the field of hospitality and tourism as well. Third, this is the first study that applied SOR theory to integrate Thai food image, food satisfaction, and loyalty intentions in the context of Phuket into a single model and test it empirically with Chinese tourists who represent the world's largest inbound tourism market. The final theoretical contribution of the study was to develop the cognitive food image scale from the Chinese tourist perspective in the context of Phuket. Contrary to the proposed five dimensions by Promsivapallop and Kannaovakun (2019), the present study has identified four underlying Thai food image dimensions that found to adequately represent the views and perceptions of Chinese tourists traveling to Phuket with respect to their gastronomic experiences. These four dimensions were food taste and popularity, food safety and health, variety and eating habits, and restaurant service, among which, food taste and popularity was the most important factor contributing to tourists' food satisfaction, followed by food safety and health, and restaurant service. Interestingly, however, variety and eating habits had no significant effect on food satisfaction. These findings show that the model created to test the study's hypotheses contrast with the apparent findings based on the descriptive statistics indicating that the respondents had a more favorable impression of the variety of Thai food and Thai eating habits but were less impressed by the restaurant service and the food safety and hygiene, with the food's taste and popularity being scored lowest.

A possible explanation for the predominant effect of food taste and popularity on food satisfaction can be found in the culinary similarity (Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019) between the food in Phuket and Chinese food. The sample in this study consisted of Chinese tourists whose habitual food preferences would have many features in common with Phuket's local food (Pakdeewong, 2002). Therefore, Thai cuisine in Phuket blends similar tastes and ingredients to that of Chinese food, which is the dominant food preference of Chinese travelers in international destinations (Chang et al., 2010), and this, therefore, contributes more to the satisfaction with the food experience than any of the other dimensions related to place and service style. Additionally, independent Chinese tourists tend to have higher expectations than general Chinese tourists (Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2019) since they generally belong to a higher socio-economic class and may be more selective and demand a higher level of travel services compared to Chinese tourists traveling as members of groups (Choibamroong, 2017). Therefore, even though they may gain a favorable image of the food variety and eating habits, their expectations may still not be met by the performance of restaurants and other local food service providers in Phuket. Hence, Phuket should endeavor to enhance those dimensions that appear to least influence food satisfaction since that will also contribute to the presentation of a good image for Thai food. These findings also provide incentives for local food establishments to practice specific recipes for some truly great tasting food in compliance with Chinese tourists' food preferences accompanied by the higher standards of food health and hygiene in order to differentiate their products and services from their competitors.

In summary, the integrated model of perceived food image-food satisfaction-loyalty intentions is well supported by the current study. It is advantageous to comprehend the antecedents and consequences of food satisfaction and its importance as a factor in destination competition. However, the outcome of this study should be interpreted with caution since its results are subject to a number of limitations. First, the study focused only on Chinese tourists and this limits the generalizability of the results. In addition, local food in different regions within the same country tends to be different and the study's results may be limited to independent Chinese tourists who had consumed Thai food in the commercial eating places in Phuket and, although, this inclusion criterion ensured that the respondents had sufficient information to be able to express their opinions relating to their perceptions of Thai food image, those who did not consume Thai food may have other perceptions of the image of Thai food. Thus, future studies might usefully also include Chinese and other nationalities of tourists traveling both independently and on group tours in the sample studied as well as exploring the perceptions of travelers who do not consume Thai food during their visit.

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Residents' risk perceptions, willingness to accept international tourists, and self-protective behaviour during destination re-opening amidst the COVID-19 pandemic

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Residents' risk perceptions, willingness to accept international tourists, and self-protective behaviour during destination re-opening amidst the COVID-19 pandemic

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates factors influencing residents' risk perceptions of COVID-19 pandemic, their willingness to accept international tourists, and self-protective behaviour during destination re-opening during the pandemic. Drawing upon the concept of Protection Motivation Theory, and using a face-to-face quota sampling survey of 521 valid responses from residents in a world class tourist destination in Phuket, the structural equation modelling results prove the PMT model is powerful enough to explain risk perceptions of local residents in accepting international tourists when reopening a destination during the pandemic. Furthermore, this study confirms the negative influence of risk perception on intention to accept international tourists and the positive influence of risk perception on actual self-protective behaviour of residents. In addition, the role of risk perception as the mediator between PMT factors, willingness to accept international tourists, and self-protective behaviours is confirmed in this study. The article concludes by presenting academic and practical discussion and implications based on the findings.

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1. Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has had adverse effects on the tourism industry worldwide (Chen et al., 2021). With travel restrictions in place and concerns on growth, the lack of tourists has negative effects on all key stakeholders in the tourism industry (Jamal & Budke, 2020). These stakeholders include business operations and investors, employees, suppliers, and local communities at a destination. Tourism literature related to the COVID-19 pandemic has focused on discussing destination tourism effects, perceptions and attitudes of tourists towards biosecurity travel behaviour, and effects and survival strategies of business operators (Kim et al., 2022; Sigala, 2020), but in-depth understanding of how residents perceive international tourism during the pandemic is limited. Under normal tourism circumstances, scholarly attention has focused on risk perceptions of tourists because insights into this issue would substantially benefit the destination, business marketing, and management. However, during a pandemic, while tourists may freely choose to avoid destinations with high infection rates, residents must face outbreak risk associated with international tourists, making them relatively prone to health risks (Joo et al., 2021). Despite these concerns, current literature still lacks research in resident risk perceptions on international tourism amid pandemic (Qiu

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et al., 2020). The limited existing literature on residents' attitudes toward tourism during the pandemic focus on how the pandemic affects residents' tourism expectations (Couto et al., 2020), comparing residents' attitudes during and after the pandemic (Kamata, 2022), social costs of tourism during the pandemic (Qiu et al., 2020), and resident risk perceptions and emotional solidity (Joo et al., 2021). We need more theoretical studies on risk perceptions, willingness to accept international tourists, and self-protective behaviours of residents during the COVID-19 pandemic, which are currently lacking in the literature. This research should fill this research gap by investigating factors of the Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) that influence residents' risk perceptions for the intention to accept international tourists and resident self-protective behaviours as tourism destinations open amid the COVID-19 pandemic.

As the vaccines have become available, although with limited and uneven accessibility, issues of reopening destinations to international tourism have emerged. Many destinations such as Phuket in Thailand rely solely on tourism are in urgent need for destinations to reopen to recover and keep the economy afloat. However, growing concerns among residents, especially those whose families have health issues that make them more prone to infection and those who may not directly benefit from tourism may not welcome international tourists. This may subsequently create further host–guest relationship problems (Joo et al., 2021; Kamata, 2022). In addition, additional personal fears among local residents, like concerns about new waves of pandemic infections brought by the influx of international tourists, may lead to further economic and social problems. A clear understanding of these fears will be significant for destination managers and for preparation of destinations to safely reopen for international tourism (Kamata, 2022). In addition, the insights will promote host–guest relationships and subsequently contribute positively to the image and goodwill of destination (Kour et al., 2021; Ryu et al., 2020).

Most existing research focusing on how residents perceive and accept tourism during a pandemic tends to examine issues without using theoretical foundations. This study adopted Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) as the theoretical framework because it has been used extensively to investigate individual cognitive factors contributing to personal motivation to take protective action that reduces risks of respiratory infectious disease (Wang et al., 2021), which fits in the context of travel risk perceptions and risk protection (Jarumaneerat, 2022; Wang et al., 2019). Applying this theory to investigate residents risk perceptions in the tourism context has not been done. Most existing studies on resident attitudes toward tourism under normal conditions rely on the social exchange theory as the fundamental framework for explaining the attitudes and willingness of residents to accept international tourists after evaluating the costs and benefits tourism brings to a community (Nunkoo, 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2015). However, given the current pandemic and health threats, PMT seems more appropriate for exploring resident knowledge of perceived risk and behavioural intention, including self-protective behaviours with international tourists.

In addition, this research provides several academic contributions. First, it adds to the scarce literature on destination resident perceptions of international tourism, particularly during the pandemic, by filling a gap in the literature with information about resident risk perceptions and self-protection behaviours using PMT as the theoretical foundation. Second, as pointed out by Wang et al. (2019), most PMT literature on risk perception in tourism are deficient because they appear to provide only partial analysis of the PMT model. Furthermore, these previous PMT tourism studies tend to investigate either only risk perception or only behavioural intention without examining actual protective behaviours. The current study attempts to close these theoretical gaps by providing a more complete investigation into the topic by adopting the full PMT model, and including in the study risk perception, intention to accept international tourists, and actual self-protective behaviour. Third, it offers a further contribution to the body of knowledge by examining the mediating effects of risk perception in the links between PMT factors and willingness to accept international tourists as well as between those same factors and self-protective behaviour. In doing so, the study develops PMT measurements applicable to the destination reopening in the pandemic situation.

The aims of this study are two-fold: first, to examine the influence of PMT factors on residents' risk perception, residents' intention to accept international tourists, and residents' self-protective behaviours during the re-opening of a destination amidst the COVID-19 pandemic. Second, the study investigates the mediating role of risk perception in the relationships between the PMT factors, the intention to accept international tourists, and the actual behaviour of self-protection.

2. Literature review

2.1. Tourism risk perceptions of local residents

Local residents face the dilemma of needing economic recovery and fearing for their health because of pandemic outbreaks associated with international tourism during destination reopening (Kamata, 2022). Risk perception literature has been studied mostly from the perspective of tourists, not residents, focusing on risk perceptions of different groups of tourists, factors influencing risk perceptions, and how risk perceptions determine visit intention (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2017, 2018; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Scholars suggest that resident risk perceptions of international tourists during a pandemic and particularly when destinations are planning to reopen worldwide are key issues to tourism because the risks are substantial and unavoidable to residents (Qiu et al., 2020). Therefore, more scholarly attention is urgently required in this research area to reveal how destination management can cope during an outbreak.

Risk perceptions are commonly defined from the consumers' or tourists' perspective. According to Quintal et al. (2010) and Dowling and Staelin (1994), perceived risk refers to the perception of possible loss or harm due to uncertainty about consuming a product or service. It is not about the actual probability of negative consequences, denoting instead individual subjective anticipation of probable harm (Joo et al., 2021; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Generally, travel risk perceptions of tourists include health risk, safety risk, crime risk, false practice risk, mass risk, communication risk, and political risk (Promsivapallop & Kannaovakun, 2018). During a pandemic, tourists are reportedly particularly concerned about health-related threats, which are directly influenced by cognitive factors, affective factors, individual factors, and contextual factors (Godovykh et al., 2021). According to Turnšek et al. (2020), travel risk perceptions during a pandemic involves two key variables including susceptibility to health threat and severity of health threat. In addition, Zhan et al. (2020) offered a more comprehensive analysis of travel risk perceptions amidst a pandemic that includes health risk, financial risk, social risk, and performance risk.

Based on the current, limited literature (Couto et al., 2020; Joo et al., 2021; Kamata, 2022; Qiu et al., 2020), residents' risk perceptions of reopening destinations to international tourists during a pandemic include health threats due to the pandemic risk associated with tourists, economic concerns due to the pandemic risk associated with tourists, social life including disruption of normal life because of the extra care needed to reduce risk and ostracism in other provinces due to pandemic concerns of local people in areas not opened for international tourism, and destination reputation risk and host–guest relation conflicts.

2.2. Protection motivation theory

Rogers (1975) developed PMT to explain the motivation of individuals to protect themselves against a perceived health risk. The theory posits that people guard themselves against risk based on the perceived severity of a risk, the perceived probability of the occurrence of that risk, their vulnerability, the efficacy of recommended preventive behaviour, and perceived self-efficacy (Choi et al., 2019). In addition, PMT research has analyzed how protective behaviour depends on PMT factors like vulnerability, severity, efficacy, rewards, and response costs (Ruan et al., 2020; Xiao et al., 2014, 2016). More specifically, PMT assumes that two processes determine individuals' motivation or intention to self-protect from danger (i.e. COVID-19 in this study) (Wang et al., 2021). First,

coping appraisal depends on the evaluations of an individual as to whether they are confident their behaviour will be effective in reducing a health threat (i.e. perceived efficacy) and what the response costs are in engaging in a particular behaviour to mitigate a health threat from an infectious respiratory disease. Second, threat appraisal involves individuals' perceptions of the severity of a health threat and perceptions of vulnerability to the health threat, coupled with perceived rewards from a conduct that reduces the health threat.

PMT has been used extensively to explain tourists' health risk perceptions as well as protective practices against health risks during a holiday abroad (Wang et al., 2019) and travel risk reduction (Jarumaneerat, 2022) as well as in certain other service consumption contexts like restaurants (Choi et al., 2019; Yasami et al., 2020). The findings of PMT studies in the tourism setting normally confirm the relationships between the PMT factors like vulnerability, severity, efficacy, response costs, and rewards as determinant factors, and tourists' risk perceptions, self-protection behaviours, and future behavioural intention as outcome variables. To the best of our knowledge, no previous studies have used PMT to evaluate risk perceptions of residents and their self-protection behaviours in the context of tourism, especially during a pandemic.

PMT is useful for explaining risk perception and self-protection intention against threat in health and tourism context, but, as Wang et al. (2019) point out, previous PMT tourism risk perception studies have shortcomings. First, prior studies tend to use only parts of the PMT model, such as vulnerability (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998) and severity (Qi, Gibson, & Zheng, 2009), in their investigations, which may not provide a complete understanding of the phenomenon. Secondly, previous studies tend to make behavioural intention the outcome variable (Ruan et al., 2020), when actual behaviour should be considered instead. According to Wang et al. (2019), although behavioural intention tends to lead to actual behaviour, the uncertainties and complexities of the COVID-19 pandemic may affect that tendency. For this reason, we should extend any PMT investigation to better show actual protective behaviours during the pandemic.

Hence, the current study focuses on these theoretical gaps by investigating whether local residents are willing to accept international tourists and self-protective behaviour as tourist destinations reopen during the pandemic; we will apply the full PMT model. Furthermore, the study further contributes to the body of knowledge by examining the mediating role of risk perception in the relationship between PMT factors and willingness to accept international tourists and self-protective behaviour.

2.3. Self-protective behaviours of residents against risk perceptions

As a result of pandemic, residents must weigh applying self-protective practices against risks associated with tourists during the pandemic. Based on the existing literature, factors and practices generally adopted by individuals as protective measures against COVID-19 include hygiene, sanitation, and mask wearing (Choi et al., 2019; Doğan, 2020; Joo et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2021), screening procedures at service consumption places (Doğan, 2020), social distancing, private facilities, and contactless services (Doğan, 2020; Kim & Lee, 2020; Wang et al., 2021), reducing interaction with tourists (Joo et al., 2021), proper ventilation (Lu et al., 2020; Tantrakarnapa et al., 2022), and COVID-19 protection cues such as government certification, and well-known brands that boost customer trust and confidence (Doğan, 2020). Residents may generally adopt these self-protective practices as risk avoidance practices, or self-protective behaviours against COVID-19, when a destination reopens to international tourists.

2.4. Study framework and hypothesis development

PMT posits that individuals' motivation or intention to seek protection from perceived harm or risky events (i.e. COVID-19 in this study) is determined by two processes: threat appraisal and coping appraisal (Wang et al., 2021). First, threat appraisal includes individual perceptions of the severity

of the health threat and the perception of vulnerability to this health threat. Threat appraisal is shaped by integrating the expected rewards or benefits associated with the risky event together with perceptions of threat severity and personal vulnerability to the current health risk (Tsang & Wong, 2021). Individuals who perceive themselves as vulnerable to COVID-19 infection and perceive the consequence of infection as severe would consider themselves under COVID-19 threat or at risk of COVID-19 infection (Qiao, Ruan, & Pabel, 2021; Turnšek et al., 2020). Therefore, based on previous PMT research, due to the possibility of COVID-19 infection from incoming tourists, residents should see the COVID-19 pandemic as an increased perceived risk when a destination reopens to international tourism during the pandemic (Couto et al., 2020; Joo et al., 2021; Kamata, 2022; Qiu et al., 2020). The perceived risk should increase as the levels of perceived severity of the consequences of the pandemic increase, especially consequences to themselves if they become infected; their perceived vulnerability or the likelihood of becoming infected will also affect residents (Qiao et al., 2021; Turnšek et al., 2020). On the other hand, based on previous PMT research, residents who perceive benefits or rewards from accepting international tourists during the pandemic should tend to perceive fewer risks because the perceived risks are offset by an expected positive outcome (Williams et al., 2021; Woosnam et al., 2021).

Second, coping appraisal is based on individual assessments of whether residents can engage in a particular behaviour and whether the behaviour can effectively reduce a health threat (i.e. perceived efficacy), and how much the response costs, if engaging in a particular behaviour will mitigate the health threat from a pandemic (Ruan et al., 2020; Seow et al., 2021; Wang, et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021). Perceived efficacy is a key factor that relates to risk perception reduction in the travel literature covering risk (Wang et al., 2019). According to these notions, residents who have high degrees of perceived efficacy and confidence in their ability to protect themselves against COVID-19 are assumed to reduce their perceived risk associated with the pandemic when a destination re-opens. However, individuals who have high levels of perceived costs or difficulties in protection practices against COVID-19 would have less intention to apply self-protection and consequently tend to see themselves at higher risk when facing the pandemic risk upon the re-opening of a destination (Min et al., 2021).

The following hypotheses were developed based on the literature review of PMT and tourism and COVID-19 (see Figure 1).

H1: Perceived vulnerability to the pandemic by local residents has a positive relationship with risk perceptions of reopening a destination to international tourists.

H2: Perceived severity of the pandemic by local residents has a positive relationship with risk perceptions of reopening a destination to international tourists.

H3: Perceived efficacy has a negative relationship with risk perceptions of reopening a destination to international tourists.

H4: Perceived reward of accepting international tourists has a negative relationship with risk perceptions of reopening a destination to international tourists.

H5: Perceived response cost has a positive relationship with risk perceptions of reopening a destination to international tourists.

In addition, the tourism literature shows the effects of risk perception on intention and action in applying self-protection (Godovykh et al., 2021). For example, travel risk perception caused by the COVID-19 pandemic has been confirmed to cause tourists to hesitate to travel (Han et al., 2021; Polas et al., 2022) and reduce intention to travel for holiday or adopt safer travel behaviour (Neuburger & Egger, 2021). As a result of risk perception of a risky event, residents have increased their self-protective behaviours by showing a willingness to accept international tourists during the pandemic (Joo et al., 2021) and exhibit more self-protective behaviours against the perceived risk (Byrd et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2022). Hence, they tend to be more willing to comply to

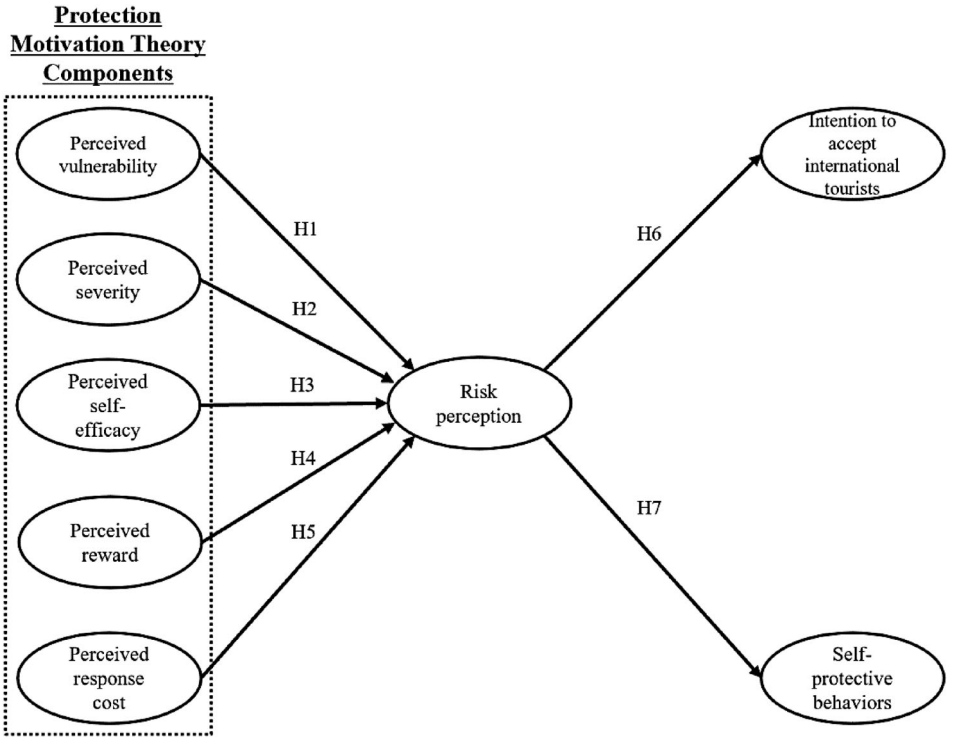

Figure 1. Research model.

COVID-19 preventive measures and increase their self-protective intention when the destination re-opens to international tourists amid the outbreak (Min et al., 2021). Therefore, two additional hypotheses were derived from the literature review:

H6: Risk perception of the pandemic has a negative relationship with local residents' intention to accepting international tourists during the pandemic.

H7: Risk perception of the pandemic has a positive relationship with self-protective behaviours by local residents.

3. Methods

3.1. Sample

Phuket, Thailand, is an ideal location for this study for a number of reasons. First, it is renowned as a world class tourist destination. According to Columbus Direct, Phuket attracted more than 9 million international tourists annually before the COVID-19 pandemic, the most tourists per square mile and among top five most popular destinations in the world (Lucchetti, 2019). The island's economy relies almost solely on international tourism. Reports suggest that tourism accounts for more than 80% of gross provincial product of Phuket. Most residents are employed either directly or indirectly in the tourism sector. The on-going COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in severe contractions in the island's gross provincial product due to the dearth of international tourists. This has a number of negative consequences for local employment.

Second, Thailand has generally managed COVID-19 outbreak effectively. The country has received compliments from many countries as well as from the United Nations (National News Bureau of Thailand, 2020). Thailand has gone through three waves of the pandemic and was getting the third wave under control at the time of this research. Phuket has had mixed experiences with the pandemic. It

was among the hardest hit in Thailand during the first wave of infection, then faced milder situations in the second wave, but was hit relatively hard in the third wave. Residents have mixed feelings about reopening Phuket to international tourism amidst the pandemic. On the one hand, without tourism, many families will have no jobs or income. Phuket must restart tourism swiftly for its economy to recover. On the other hand, international tourism may again put Phuket at risk, possibly causing even more serious damage to the economy. Deciding to reopen the destination to international tourism may risk strong resistance by residents. Re-opening at this point can indeed damage host–guest relations, damage the renowned Thai hospitality and its destination image, and put the long-term tourism industry at risk.

The third reason for choosing Phuket as the location for the study is because the island is among the first in the region reopening to vaccinated international tourists without any quarantine starting from 1st July 2021 (Bangkok Post, 2021). The project is known as the Phuket Tourism Sandbox Model. The project has received tremendous support from central and local governments, local tourism associations, and local businesses. However, the opinions of the locals and residents are underexplored. A systematic investigation into the issue must be done, so governments and destination managers can make effective decisions.

Therefore, this research serves to provide guidance on residents' perspectives to destination managers in preparing for reopening the destination to tourism. Decision makers must have insight into how residents perceive risks in re-opening to international tourists at the destination during the pandemic, their willingness to accept international tourists, and how residents are reducing those risks. This may make the difference between success and failure in re-opening Phuket during and after the pandemic.

3.2. Data collection

The population of this study consisted of residents of Phuket. According to recent data released by Phuket Provincial Statistical Office (2020), Phuket population comprises a total of 416,582 people. Based on Sekaran and Bougie (2016), a minimum of 384 questionnaires would be needed to meet the minimum requirement of sample size at 95% confidence level. To compensate for potential unusable questionnaires, this research sought to survey 500 respondents.

Face to face survey was adopted. The survey took place in August 2021. Face to face survey carries benefits like a good response rate, the ability to screen and reach suitable candidates, and the feasibility of answering questions and explaining when respondents had questions during the survey (Ali et al., 2021). Ten research assistants with previous field work experience with surveys, fully vaccinated, were recruited to administer surveys. The survey administrators had COVD-19 preventive measures and materials. As a token of appreciation, respondents were given a small gift when they completed the survey. In addition, survey administrators were instructed to collect only one questionnaire from each family and recruited only residents who at a minimum 20 years old. Quota sampling was used to match sample representation to the population. The quota was based on the number of residents in each district of Phuket, consisting approximately of 60% in Muang District, 15% in Kathu District, and 25% in Thalang District. The samples were recruited among residents in both tourist attraction areas and non-tourist attraction areas. Research assistants were placed at different locations in all three districts to collect data based on the assigned proportions.

3.3. Measures

The instrument of the study relied mainly on PMT variables. The questionnaire was developed in English and then translated to Thai. The measurements of variables (explained below) were adopted from previous studies (Couto et al., 2020; Joo et al., 2021; Kamata, 2022; Wang et al., 2019; Xiao et al., 2014, 2016), which have high levels of validity and reliability. These measurements were adopted to suit residents' cognitive processes in the destination during the pandemic.

Perceived vulnerability was measured with a single item using a five-point scale based on Wang et al. (2019), asking respondents to rate the likelihood they will be infected with COVID-19 if fully vaccinated international tourists were allowed to visit Phuket without quarantine (Phuket Sandbox). For perceived severity, four items on a five-point Likert type of scale were adapted from Xiao et al. (2014, 2016) (e.g. 'I will have serious health problems if I am infected with COVID-19'). For perceived rewards, three items on a five-point Likert scale were used as proxies for perceived rewards. The questions were adapted from Xiao et al. (2014, 2016). For example, 'Welcoming international tourists back to Phuket is economically rewarding to me'. Perceived efficiency was measured with two questions adapted from Wang et al. (2019) on a five-point Likert scale. For example, 'I am confident in my ability to protect myself from infecting with COVID-19 when having international tourists back to Phuket'. For perceived response costs, two items on a five-point Likert scale adapted from Xiao et al. (2014, 2016) were used to gauge this variable. For example, 'It is inconvenient to perform protective behaviours from COVID-19 when having international tourists in Phuket again'.

For perceived risk, 11 items adopted from Couto et al. (2020), Kamata (2022), and Joo et al. (2021) on a five-point Likert scale were used. For example, 'Pandemic situations may get worse once international tourists return to Phuket' and 'I am concerned that international tourists will not comply to the requirements to prevent COVID-19, such as wearing mask'. Self-protective behaviours were measured with nine items adapted from Kamata (2022), Couto et al. (2020), and Wang et al. (2019) on a five-point Likert scale (e.g. 'take COVID-19 vaccine' and 'avoid contacts with international tourists'). Willingness to accept international tourists was measured with a single item from Kamata (2022). Respondents were asked to rate their willingness to accept fully vaccinated international tourists to Phuket without quarantine (Phuket Sandbox).

The questionnaire was validated by three researchers with expertise in related research topics. Index of item objective congruence (IOC) was conducted by the researchers with the results close to 1.0. One question on perceived reward, 'It is very good for me to welcome international tourists to Phuket', received a low score because it repeated content of other items. Thus, it was removed from the questionnaire. A few other questions were revised based on expert comments to increase item clarity. Then, the questionnaire was pretested with 15 respondents, which resulted in a few further changes to the wording to make the questionnaire still clearer.

3.4. Data analysis

This study conducted frequency analysis, reliability analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation modelling with SPSS 28.0 and AMOS 28.0. First, frequency analysis was performed by SPSS 28.0 to identify the demographic characteristics of the participants in this study, signifying how well they covered representative samples of the target population. Second, with SPSS 28.0, reliability analysis was used to check the internal consistency of a set of indicators of each latent construct (Ryu et al., 2021). Third, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted with AMOS 28.0 to rigorously test how well each indicator represents the respective latent constructs (i.e. how well different indicators explain a conceptually grounded theory in this study), enabling us to check the overall quality of all indicators via construct validity tests (Ali et al., 2018). Fourth, we performed structural equation modelling to test this study's entire theory with one statistical technique, considering all possible constructs (i.e. a series of associations among latent constructs simultaneously, containing multiple equations) (Hair et al., 2010).

4. Results

4.1. Respondent characteristics

Table 1 shows the profiles of respondents in this study. Of 521 total valid responses, 60% are female, and more than 60% are between 20 and 40 years of age. Most respondents earn less than 1200 US

dollars per month, and more than half the respondents are either business owners or private sector employees. More than half of the respondents reside in Muang district, approximately one fourth in Thalang District, and approximately 16% in Kathu District, which reflects the true proportions of residence in Phuket. In addition, more than 90% of respondents have been fully vaccinated.

4.2. Measurement model

This study used the two-step approach of Anderson and Gerbing (1992) to signify reliabilities and validities of all indicators before testing the hypothesized relationships via structural equation modelling. As the first step (i.e. checking reliabilities), Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all indicators (except for the constructs of perceived vulnerability and intention to accept international tourists because each of those two indicators were measured with one item) were calculated by SPSS 28.0 to check reliabilities of each construct. Table 2 demonstrates that Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all variables exceeded the recommended level of 0.70 for social science contexts (i.e. perceived severity = 0.812, perceived efficacy = 0.788, perceived reward = 0.863, perceived response cost = 0.725, risk perception = 0.804, and self-protective behaviours = 0.887) (Hair et al., 2010). As the second step (i.e. checking validities), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to check the validity of all constructs according to standardized factor loadings and critical ratios of each indicator. AMOS 28.0 was used for CFA; six items for measuring risk perception and six items for measuring self-protective behaviours were removed to maintain the acceptable level of validity (i.e. critical ratios should be greater than 2.58, $p < 0.01$) and fit indices (i.e. $\chi^2 = 426.588$, degree of freedom = 183, $p < 0.001$, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = 0.051, Norm Fit Index [NFI] = 0.906,

Table 1. Profile of respondents.

Demographic variables	Frequency (N)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Female	315	60.5
Male	202	38.8
No response	4	0.8
Age		
20–30	178	34.2
31–40	173	33.2
41–50	112	21.5
51–60	42	8.1
61 and over	16	3.1
Current income		
No income	71	13.6
Less than 300 dollars	197	37.8
301 dollars – 1200 dollars	212	40.7
1201 dollars – 2100 dollars	33	6.3
2101 dollars – 3000 dollars	2	0.4
More than 3001 dollars	4	0.8
No response	2	0.4
Occupation		
Business owner	132	25.3
Private sector employee	133	25.5
Student	16	3.1
Others	222	42.6
Unemployed	16	3.1
No response	2	0.4
Vaccinated		
Yes	489	93.9
No	32	6.1
Resident area		
Muang	298	57.2
Kathu	85	16.3
Thalang	138	26.5

Table 2. Measurement model from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Constructs and variables	Standardized loading	Critical ratio
Perceived vulnerability (α = not available due to single item)		
Please rate the likelihood you think you will get infected with COVID-19 when we have vaccinated international tourists without quarantine (Phuket Sandbox) in Phuket again.	Fixed	Fixed
Perceived severity ($\alpha = 0.812$)		
I will have serious health problems if I am infected with COVID-19.	0.625	Fixed
My whole family will suffer if I am infected with COVID-19.	0.867	14.296
I will have severe psychological distress if I am infected with COVID-19.	0.771	13.664
I will have economic difficulties if I am infected with COVID-19.	0.655	12.186
Perceived efficacy ($\alpha = 0.788$)		
I am confident in my ability to protect myself from infecting with COVID-19 when having international tourists back to Phuket.	0.863	Fixed
I believe that I will not be infected with COVID-19 from having international tourists in Phuket because I have always been healthy and have a strong immune system.	0.753	12.310
Perceived reward ($\alpha = 0.863$)		
Welcoming international tourists back to Phuket is economically rewarding to me.	0.839	Fixed
Welcoming international tourists back to Phuket is important to me.	0.904	12.310
Perceived response cost ($\alpha = 0.725$)		
It is inconvenient to perform protective behaviours from COVID-19 when having international tourists in Phuket again.	0.718	Fixed
It is frustrating to follow COVID-19 protection regulations when having international tourists in Phuket again.	0.792	12.310
Risk perception ($\alpha = 0.804$)		
I am concerned that international tourists will not comply to the requirements to prevent COVID-19, such as wearing mask.	0.442	Fixed
I am worried that Thai people in other provinces will not welcome Phuket people to their provinces.	–	–
The number of locals and expats in Phuket who get vaccinated may be too few when international tourists are welcome.	–	–
I am worried about the unknown and uncertainty of the effectiveness of vaccine.	–	–
Pandemic situations may get worse once international tourists return to Phuket.	0.679	9.028
If I have contacts with international tourists, I might not be welcomed by my friends and relatives.	0.651	8.903
There might be new viruses developed in Phuket once international tourists are permitted in Phuket.	0.576	8.491
Costs of health treatment due to the pandemic might become too expensive in Phuket.	0.739	9.339
I am concerned it will be too crowded in many places when international tourists return.	–	–
I am concerned with increasing difficulties with extra screening procedures at service points (e.g. at airport, restaurants, shops) causing long queue.	0.655	8.905
I worry that no domestic tourists will visit Phuket because we start having international tourists.	0.517	7.917
I am concerned that we will not be able to welcome international tourists to Phuket in time as planned.	–	–
I am worried that even we open the boarder without quarantine, there will be no or a small number of tourists.	–	–
Intention to accept international tourists (α = not available due to single item)		
How much are you willing to accept international tourists who have vaccinated without quarantine once Phuket is allowed to welcome international tourists?	Fixed	Fixed
Self-protective behaviours ($\alpha = 0.887$)		
Take COVID-19 vaccine.	0.836	Fixed
Avoid contacts with international tourists.	0.928	24.619
Avoid contacts with anyone that has contacts with international tourists.	0.798	21.278
Avoid going out to public places where there might be international tourists.	–	–
Avoid contacts with strangers.	–	–
Avoid going to crowded area.	–	–
Wear mask at all times when going out.	–	–
Wash hands frequently.	–	–
Buy sufficient health insurance that is valid for COVID-19.	–	–

Note: $\chi^2 = 426.588$, degree of freedom = 183, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.051, NFI = 0.906, CFI = 0.943, TLI = 0.928.

Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = 0.943, and Tucker-Lewis Index [TLI] = 0.928) (Hair et al., 2010). After the data purification process (i.e. item removal procedures), validities of all indicators were confirmed by indicating that all critical ratios were statistically significant ($p < 0.01$) (see Table 2).

4.3. Testing the research hypotheses

After confirming reliabilities and validities of all indicators, we used structural equation modelling to rigorously test the proposed relationships in the research model. This study used AMOS 28.0 with maximum likelihood estimates to assess the fit indices (i.e. $\chi^2 = 502.145$, degree of freedom = 193, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.056, NFI = 0.889, CFI = 0.928, and TLI = 0.914) and hypothesized paths (see Figure 2 and Table 3). The fit indices of the research model were overall acceptable in the social science fields, so the research hypotheses were tested according to the estimated paths and significance levels (Hair et al., 2010).

H1 to H5 speculated that PMT components would affect the risk perceptions of local residents on reopening the destination for international tourists. The empirical findings supported H1, H2, H4, and H5 but not H3. The results revealed that resident perceived vulnerability to the pandemic (standardized estimate = 0.233, standardized error = 0.022, critical ratio = 4.651, $p < 0.01$), perceived severity of the pandemic (standardized estimate = 0.298, standardized error = 0.041, critical ratio = 5.180, $p < 0.01$), perceived rewards (standardized estimate = −0.275, standardized error = 0.030, critical ratio = −4.175, $p < 0.01$), and perceived response cost (standardized estimate = 0.377, standardized error = 0.031, critical ratio = 5.686, $p < 0.01$) were all statistically significant influences on their perceptions of risk for reopening the destination for international tourists. However, residents' perceived efficacy did not have a similar significant impact on their risk perceptions (standardized estimate = 0.005, standardized error = 0.030, critical ratio = 0.075, $p > 0.05$). H6 and H7 suggested that resident risk perceptions of the pandemic would influence their intention to accept international tourists and self-protective behaviours. The empirical results showed resident risk perceptions of the pandemic significantly affected their intention to accept international tourists (standardized estimate = −0.220, standardized error = 0.139, critical ratio = −4.273, $p < 0.01$) and self-protective behaviours

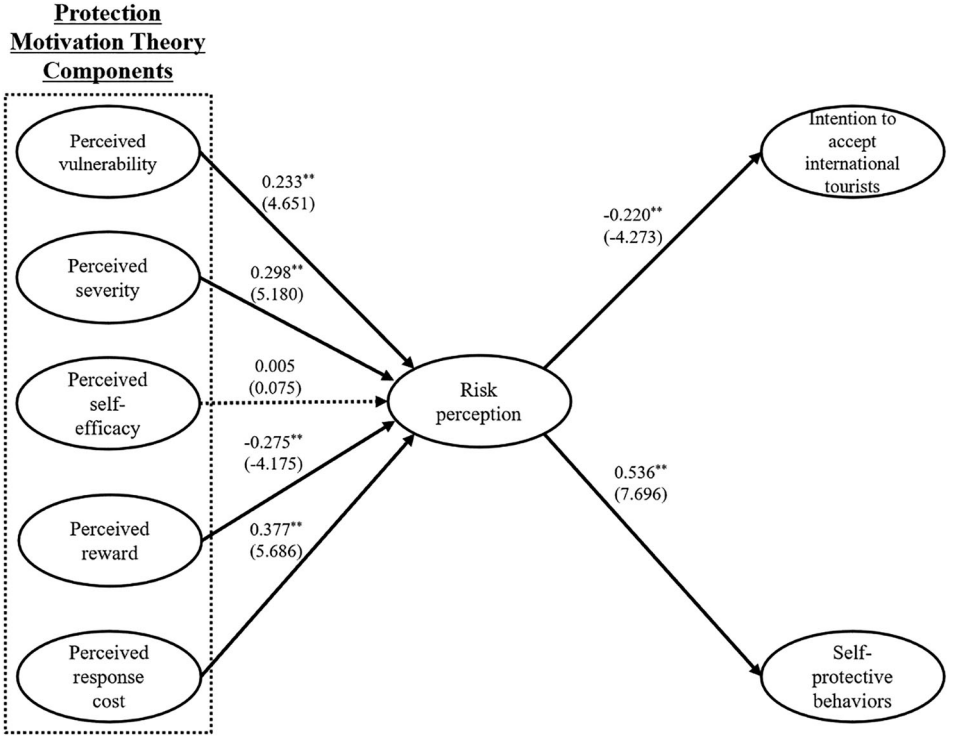

Figure 2. Estimates of structural equation modelling.

Note: $^{**}p < 0.01$, $^{*}p < 0.05$, standardized coefficient (critical ratio), solid line: significant path, dotted line: insignificant path.

Table 3. Standardized structural estimates.

Path	Standardized estimates	Standardized error	Critical ratio
H1 Perceived vulnerability → Risk perception	0.233	0.022	4.651**
H2 Perceived severity → Risk perception	0.298	0.041	5.180**
H3 Perceived efficacy → Risk perception	0.005	0.030	0.075
H4 Perceived reward → Risk perception	−0.275	0.030	−4.175**
H5 Perceived response cost → Risk perception	0.377	0.031	5.686**
H6 Risk perception → Intention to accept international tourists	−0.220	0.139	−4.273**
H7 Risk perception → Self-protective behaviours	0.536	0.135	7.696**
Indirect path	**Standardized estimates**	**95% bootstrapping confidence intervals**	***p*-value**
Perceived vulnerability → Intention to accept international tourists	−0.051	−0.086 ~ −0.022	0.004
Perceived severity → Intention to accept international tourists	−0.066	−0.104 ~ −0.037	0.001
Perceived efficacy → Intention to accept international tourists	−0.001	−0.033 ~ 0.029	0.971
Perceived reward → Intention to accept international tourists	0.060	0.027 ~ 0.106	0.002
Perceived response cost → Intention to accept international tourists	−0.083	−0.127 ~ −0.047	0.001
Perceived vulnerability → Self-protective behaviours	0.125	0.069 ~ 0.178	0.004
Perceived severity → Self-protective behaviours	0.160	0.106 ~ 0.214	0.001
Perceived efficacy → Self-protective behaviours	0.003	−0.065 ~ 0.076	0.971
Perceived reward → Self-protective behaviours	−0.147	−0.212 ~ −0.074	0.003
Perceived response cost → Self-protective behaviours	0.202	−0.121 ~ 0.273	0.001
Endogenous variables	**Squared Multiple Correlations (R^2)**		
Risk perception	0.408 (40.8%)		
Intention to accept international tourists	0.048 (04.8%)		
Self-protective behaviours	0.288 (28.8%)		

Note: $\chi^2 = 502.145$, degree of freedom = 193, $p < 0.001$, RMSEA = 0.056, NFI = 0.889, CFI = 0.928, TLI = 0.914; **$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$.

(standardized estimate = 0.536, standardized error = 0.135, critical ratio = 7.696, $p < 0.01$), supporting H6 and H7.

This study separately estimated the indirect effects of residents' perceived vulnerability, perceived severity, perceived efficacy, perceived rewards, and perceived response cost on their intention to accept international tourists and self-protective behaviours via risk perception. To do so, this study used the Bootstrap maximum likelihood and Monte Carlo approaches, estimating the indirect and total effects of independent variables on dependent variables via a mediator at 95% of confidence level (Kim et al., 2020). Table 3 indicates that residents' perceived vulnerability (intention: standardized indirect estimate = −0.051, self-protective behaviour: standardized indirect estimate =

0.125, $p < 0.01$), perceived severity (intention: standardized indirect estimate = −0.066, self-protective behaviour: standardized indirect estimate = 0.160, $p < 0.01$), perceived reward (intention: standardized indirect estimate = 0.060, self-protective behaviour: standardized indirect estimate = −0.147, $p < 0.01$), and perceived response cost (intention: standardized indirect estimate = −0.083, self-protective behaviour: standardized indirect estimate = 0.202, $p < 0.01$) would all indirectly influence their intention to accept international tourists and self-protective behaviours via risk perception.

5. Conclusion and discussion

5.1. A summary of the studies

The PMT theory has been used extensively to explain tourist issues with health, travel, and destination leisure risk (Lee et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019; Yasami 2021), but no one has applied PMT to investigate risk perceptions of residents when the destination is reopening in the pandemic environment. Therefore, this study provides academic contributions in a number of ways. First, it is among the first studies to apply the full PMT model to investigate residents' risk perception of destination reopening during the COVID-19 pandemic. Second, applying the PMT model offers meaningful explanations of how residents perceive the risk of reopening the destination during the pandemic, which leads to an intention to accept international tourists and use self-protective behaviours. Third, this study offers novelty in highlighting how risk perception of residents mediates the links between PMT factors and residents' intentions to accept international tourists as well as behave self-protectively amidst the pandemic.

Based on the statistical results of this study, three important issues can be highlighted for discussion. First, the PMT model was a powerful tool in explaining risk perceptions of residents as international tourists return during the re-opening of a destination. Three PMT components, perceived response cost, perceived vulnerability, and perceived severity, exerted strong positive influence on residents' risk perception. This indicates that residents are most concerned with response costs or the frustration and inconvenience they faced as they applied tightening self-protective practices as the destination was re-opened to international tourists. In addition, the results point out the significance of the threat appraisal component of the PMT, which includes perceived vulnerability to and perceived severity of the pandemic. These two factors raised risk perceptions among the locals.

Perceived reward, on the other hand, exerted a negative effect on risk perception. This suggests that risk perception was reduced because residents anticipated benefits from having international tourists return to the destination. In an economy relying heavily on international tourism like Phuket, this is hardly surprising. Phuket has reported tremendous economic losses and rising unemployment as a result of the dearth of international tourists during the ongoing pandemic. The results show residents fully recognize with the benefits of re-opening the destination amidst the pandemic although they also perceive the risk involved given the threat of severity and contagiousness of COVID-19, coupled with the trouble involved in self-protection practices. Residents are indeed caught between the economic rewards gained and personal fears of the pandemic. The findings are consistent with previous resident research in the COVID-19 pandemic context (see Kamata, 2022). In this case, on the other hand, perceived efficacy had no influence on risk perception. This result suggests that although residents might gain confidence from their own ability to protect themselves against the pandemic, particularly with vaccination, they still have concerns associated with the reopening of the destination.

Second, this study confirmed the influence of risk perception on both the intention and the actual behaviour of practicing self-protection. As expected, risk perception did exert a negative influence on intention to accept international tourists and a positive influence on self-protective behaviour. This means the concerns of residents associated with destination re-opening lead to a decline in

their willingness to accept international tourists while at the same time, force residents to use self-protective practices.

Third, the role of risk perception as the mediator between PMT factors, willingness to accept international tourists, and self-protective behaviours was confirmed in this study. The findings confirm the indirect effects of all PMT factors but efficiency on intention to accept international tourists and self-protective behaviours, as mediated through risk perception. Therefore, the effects of these PMT factors are more apparent under augmented risk perception while re-opening a destination in the pandemic environment.

5.2. Implications

This study has implications for destination managers, especially in mitigating the perceived risk of residents, reducing their concerns and gaining their support for re-opening the destination. Destination managers will find it vital to manage the pandemic risk and reduce risk perceptions among the locals. Managing risk perceptions can reduce excessive stress and prevent undesirable consequences of having international tourists rejected or suffering discrimination because locals develop tourism resistance (Couto et al., 2020; Joo et al., 2021; Kamata, 2022).

Several measures can help in managing risks and reducing risk perceptions. For example, the destination authority should ensure the locals receive sufficient vaccinations against the pandemic before reopening the destination. Furthermore, to ensure only tourists who are free from COVID-19 are permitted into the destination; only fully vaccinated tourists who have negative COVID-19 tests should be allowed. There should be a strict tourist screening process upon arrival. Tourist tracing systems should also be established to generate information flow if COVID-19 infection cases are identified. COVID-19 rules, regulations, and laws, such as wearing masks, should be strictly enforced among both tourists and locals to ensure everyone adheres to pandemic protocols.

In addition, COVID-19 safety guidelines and operation standards for hospitality and tourism enterprises should be established, strictly followed, and monitored. Pandemic prevention plans should be put in place, and contingency pandemic management plans should be created in case the pandemic becomes worse or a new variant develops at the destination as a result of the destination reopening. These practices will help reduce risk perception and establish trust and confidence among the locals in welcoming international tourists amidst the pandemic.

Secondly, as highlighted in the findings of the study with the significance of perceived rewards, destination managers must help the residents understand the necessity of international tourism to revive, especially in destinations that rely solely on international tourism like Phuket. Destinations should highlight the fact that accepted tourists have been fully vaccinated and have negative COVID-19 tests and are thus not risks to be avoided. They are in fact helping local businesses and economy. In addition, the authorities should also educate the locals about the severity of COVID-19 and how vulnerable residents are to the disease, but provide information about the preventive measures of the pandemic as well. Guidelines for self-protective practices should be established, and regular self-protective practices among the locals should be encouraged. Information about the flow of tourists, as well as the places and areas tourists regularly visit should also be provided to the locals, so residents who prefer to avoid tourists would have the necessary information.

5.3. Limitations and future research directions

Although this study has presented theoretical and practical implications, it has limitations that must be addressed. First, this study was conducted in only one location in Phuket, using residents of Phuket as the subjects of investigation. Therefore, the results may not generalize to other destinations that have different destination characteristics and levels of economic reliance on tourism. The study should be replicated in other types of destinations with different tourism characteristics: city destinations, destinations that have different degrees of reliance on tourism, and destinations at

different stages of the destination life cycle. Second, the study was conducted during the early stages of destination reopening with pandemic situations still evolving. Further studies at different stages of destination re-opening and the pandemic situations should help further clarify residents' reactions to re-opening destinations, especially compared with the results of this study.

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แบบสรุปการประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงาน

แบบ ส.1

☐ ข้าราชการ ☑ พนักงานมหาวิทยาลัย ☐ พนักงานเงินรายได้

ส่วนที่ 1: ข้อมูลของผู้รับการประเมิน

1. ชื่อผู้รับการประเมิน รศ.ปรารถนา กาลเนาวกุล

2. บุคลากรประเภท

☐ 2.1 วิชาการ

☐ 2.2 วิชาการที่ปฏิบัติงานให้บริการวิชาชีพสุขภาพ

☑ 2.3 วิชาการที่ทำหน้าที่บริหาร

☐ 2.4 ปฏิบัติการและวิชาชีพ ตำแหน่งวิชาชีพหรือเชี่ยวชาญเฉพาะ

☐ 2.5 ปฏิบัติการและวิชาชีพ ตำแหน่งทั่วไป

☐ 2.6 ปฏิบัติการและวิชาชีพที่ทำหน้าที่บริหาร

☐ 2.7 อื่นๆ .....

3 ตำแหน่ง/ระดับ รองศาสตราจารย์

สังกัด มหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์

4. รอบประเมินปี 2565

4.1 ข้าราชการ ☐ รอบที่ 1 : วันที่ 1 มิถุนายน 2564 ถึง 30 พฤศจิกายน 2564

☐ รอบที่ 2 : วันที่ 1 ธันวาคม 2564 ถึง 31 พฤษภาคม 2565

4.2 พนักงานมหาวิทยาลัย/พนักงานเงินรายได้ ☑ วันที่ 1 มิถุนายน 2564 ถึง 31 พฤษภาคม 2565

คำชี้แจง

แบบสรุปการประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงาน (ส. 1) มีจำนวน 3 หน้า ประกอบด้วย

ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลของผู้รับการประเมิน เพื่อระบุรายละเอียดต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับตัวผู้รับการประเมิน

ส่วนที่ 2 สรุปผลการประเมินการปฏิบัติงาน 2 องค์ประกอบ

ส่วนที่ 3 สรุปความเห็นการประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงาน

ส่วนที่ 4 การรับทราบผลการประเมิน ผู้รับการประเมินลงนามรับทราบผลการประเมิน หากผลการประเมินต่ำกว่า 60 คะแนน ต้องให้คำมั่นว่าจะพัฒนาปรับปรุงตนเองเพื่อให้ผลการปฏิบัติงานอยู่ในระดับเป็นที่พอใจ

ส่วนที่ : 2 การสรุปผลการประเมิน

สรุปผลการประเมินการปฏิบัติงานรวม (สำหรับบุคลากรทุกประเภท)

องค์ประกอบการประเมิน	คะแนนเต็ม	คะแนนประเมิน
องค์ประกอบที่ 1 ผลสัมฤทธิ์ของงาน	80	**74.96**
องค์ประกอบที่ 2 พฤติกรรมการปฏิบัติงาน	20	**18.62**
รวม	100	**93.58**
ระดับผลการประเมิน		**ดีเด่น**

(2.1) ผลงานวิชาการย้อนหลัง 3 ปี จำนวน ..... รายการ

อนึ่ง สำหรับบุคลากรประเภทวิชาการที่มีระยะเวลาปฏิบัติงานตั้งแต่ 3 ปีขึ้นไปนับจนถึงรอบประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงานอยู่ระดับดีเด่นจะต้องได้คะแนนรวมตั้งแต่ 90 คะแนนขึ้นไป และมีผลงานวิชาการย้อนหลัง 3 ปี ตามข้อ 9(3) ของประกาศ ฯ เรื่อง การกำหนดภาระงานบุคลากรประเภทวิชาการ มหาวิทยาลัยสงขลานครินทร์ พ.ศ.2564

ส่วนที่ 3 : สรุปความเห็นจากการประเมินผลการปฏิบัติงาน

ความเห็นในการปฏิบัติงานของผู้รับการประเมินในรอบประเมินที่ผ่านมา

1. จุดเด่น.....

.....

2. สิ่งที่ควรจะพัฒนาต่อไปได้อีก.....

.....

3. ความรู้ ความสามารถและศักยภาพอื่นๆ ของผู้รับการประเมินที่ควรจะนำไปใช้ประโยชน์ให้มากขึ้น.....

.....

ลงชื่อ.....ประธานกรรมการ
(นายนิวัติ แก้วประดับ)

ลงชื่อ.....กรรมการ
(นางจุฑามาส ศตสุข)

ลงชื่อ.....กรรมการ
(นายพิชิต เรืองแสงวัฒนา)

ส่วนที่ 4 : การรับทราบผลการประเมิน

ผู้รับการประเมิน

☐ ได้รับทราบผลการประเมินและแผนพัฒนาการปฏิบัติงานรายบุคคล และหรือ

☐ ให้คำมั่นว่าจะพัฒนาปรับปรุงตนเองเพื่อให้ผลการปฏิบัติงานอยู่ในระดับอันเป็นที่พอใจ

ลงชื่อ.....

ตำแหน่ง.....

วันที่ .....

.....

.....

ผู้ประเมิน

☐ ได้แจ้งผลการประเมินและผู้รับการประเมินได้ลงนามรับทราบ

☐ ได้แจ้งผลการประเมินเมื่อวันที่.....

แต่ผู้รับการประเมินไม่ลงนามรับทราบ

โดยมี .....เป็นพยาน

ลงชื่อ.....พยาน

ตำแหน่ง.....

ลงชื่อ.....

ตำแหน่ง.....

วันที่ .....