CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Background of Chiang Rai Province

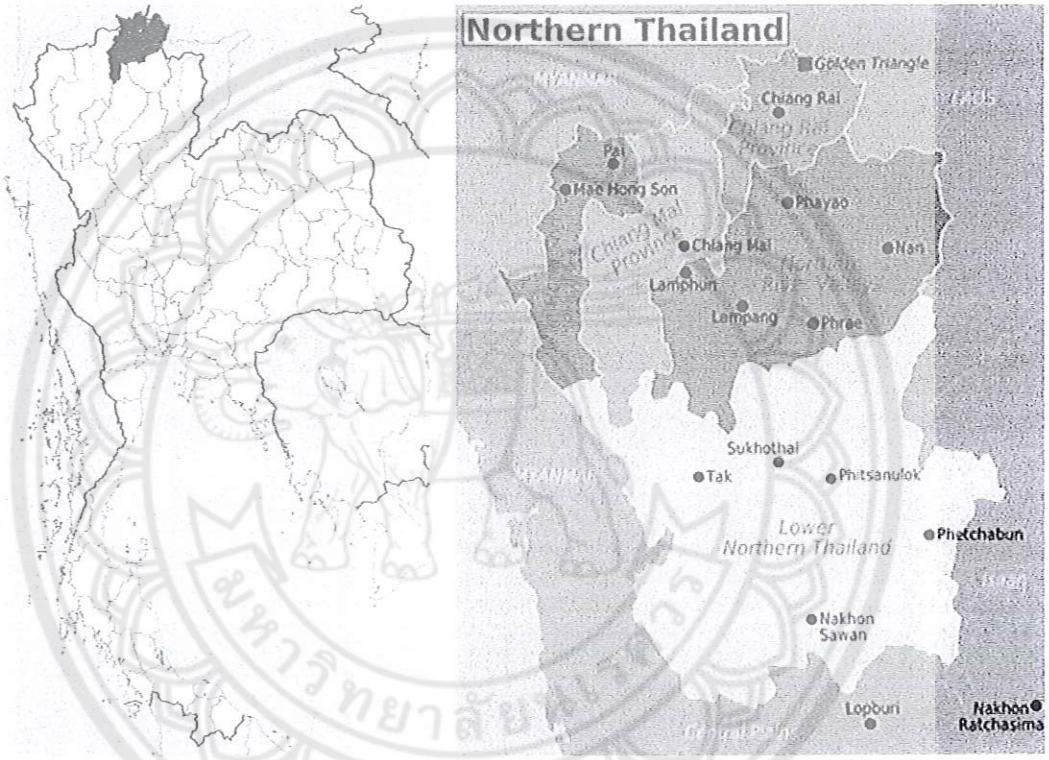

Figure 5 Maps show the location of Chiang Rai Province

Geography

Chiang Rai is the northernmost province of Thailand. It is situated between 19° North latitude to 20°30' North latitude and 99°15' East longitude to 100°45' East longitude, on the Kok River basin with an area of some 11,678 square kilometres, at approximately 410 meters of flat river plains to 2,000 meters of mountain ranges above sea leveln (ChiangRaiFocus.com, 2011). The city is about 805 kilometres north of Bangkok, the capital of Thailand. From Chiang Rai City, it is 200 kilometres northeast of Chiang Mai City; 62 kilometres south of Mae Sai and the Burmese

border; 60 kilometres southwest of the town of Chiang Saen on the Mekong River across from Laos; and 90 kilometres north of Phayao town. The geography of Chiang Rai Province is categorized as the North Continental Highland with some scattering plateaus in the areas of Amphoe Mae Suai, Amphoe Wiang Pa Pao and Amphoe Chiang Khong. The major flat river plains found along central areas, namely, Amphoe Phan, Amphoe Muang Chiang Rai, Amphoe Mae Chan, Amphoe Mae Sai, Amphoe Chiang Sean and Amphoe Chiang Khong. On the south, Chiang Rai is bordered by Phayao and Lampang and Chiang Mai; on the West, by Chiang Mai; on the north by Shan State of Myanmar and Bokeo Province of Laos; on the east by Phayao and Oudomxay Province of Laos. The border line with Myanmar and Laos is 130 kilometres long and 180 kilometres long, respectively.

Most areas have high mountains covering with mixed deciduous forest. The international Mekong River forms the boundary with Laos, the Sai and Ruak River with Myanmar. Originating from the Daen Lao Range in Shane State of Myanma, the Kok River flows through the town of Chiang Rai, with the majority of its water way passing through such districts as Muang Chiang Rai, Mae Chan, Chiang Saen, and Wiang Chai before flowing into the Mekong River in Chiang Saen district. Moreover, there are other major rivers such as Kham River in Amphoe Mae Chan, Lao River flowing through Amphoe Wiang Pa Pao, Amphoe Mae Lao, Amphoe Muang Chiang Rai and Amphoe Chiang Sean, and Ing River from neighbouring province, Phayao. Those rivers also flow into the Mekong River.

While the eastern part of the province is relatively flat with river plains inclining to the Mekhong River, the western and northwest part consists of the mountainous terrain of the Daen Lao Range and other limestone hills, especially Western Phi Pan Nam Range (so-called Khun Tan Range) and Middle Phi Pan Nam Range. However, the highest peak with some 1,600 meters high above sea level in Chiang Rai is Phu Chi Fa which is situated on the eastern mountain, Doi Pha Mon, bordering to Laos.

Climate

Chiang Rai Province has three distinctive seasons similar to the other parts of the country. While cool and dry season lasts through November to February, hot season is through the months of March to June. And rainy season starts from July and

generally ends in October. In general, Chiang Rai Province has tropical weather influenced by monsoonal climate. The weather is generally hot, with a high humidity level. Since Chiang Rai Province is situated at the northernmost of the country, the influence from the sea is less. In addition, most area of the province is covered with high mountain ranges and dense forest. Because of these, the temperature of each season very much differed from each other. Besides, according to Thai Meteorological Department (2007), the annual average rainfall is highest, when compared with other provinces in the Northern provinces.

Natural Resources

1. Forest Resource

According to Royal Forest Department, Ministry of Natural Resources and Environment of Thailand, there are 5,164.62 square kilometres of forest area, remaining 44.22% of province area. Forest area can be categorised as follows:

1.1 National parks

1.2 Forest parks

1.3 Arboretum

1.4 National Reserved Forest

1.5 Community Forest

1.6 Non-hunting Area

2. Ore Deposit

2.1 Tungsten (Wolfram)

2.2 Tin and antimony

2.3 Manganese

2.4 Pyrophyllite and Calcite

2.5 White Clay and Ball Clay

2.6 Industrial Limestone

3. Water Resources

3.1 Mekong River

3.2 Kok River

3.3 Mae Lao River

3.4 Ing River

3.5 Chan River

3.6 Kham River

3.7 Sai River

3.8 Ruak River

The geography, climate and natural resources feature the tourism characteristics of tourist attraction in Chiang Rai Province.

Administrative divisions

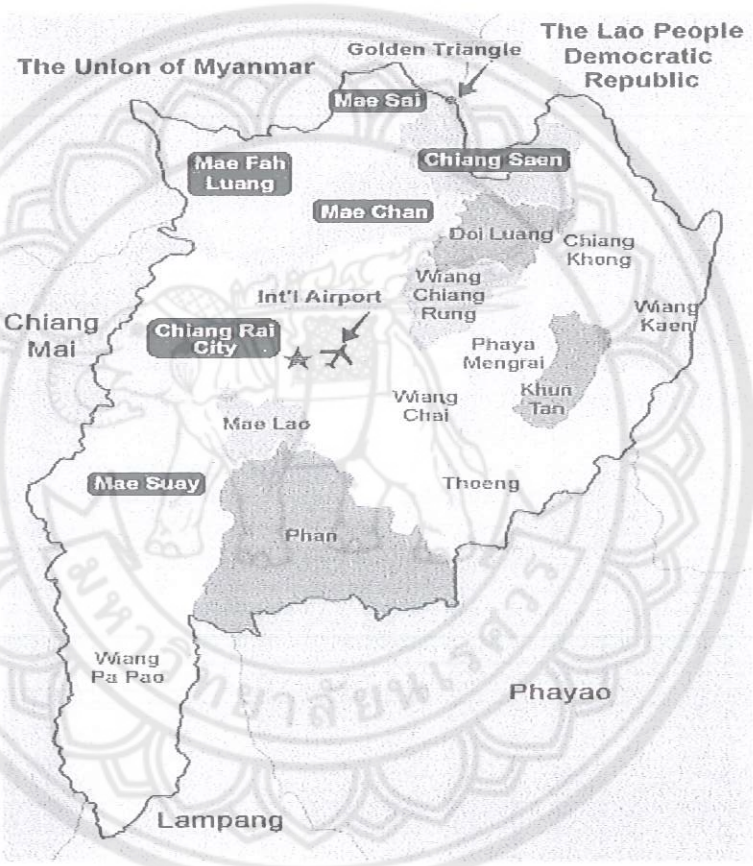

Figure 6 Map shows the administrative divisions in Chiang Rai Province

The province is subdivided into 18 districts (Amphoe) as shown below. These are further subdivided into 124 subdistricts (Tambon) and 1510 villages (Muban).

1. Mueang Chiang Rai
2. Wiang Chai
3. Chiang Khong
4. Thoeng

5. Phan
6. Pa Daet
7. Mae Chan
8. Chiang Saen
9. Mae Sai
10. Mae Suai
11. Wiang Pa Pao
12. Phaya Mengrai
13. Wiang Kaen
14. Khun Tan
15. Mae Fa Luang
16. Mae Lao
17. Wiang Chiang Rung
18. Doi Luang

The tourist attractions exist amongst those districts. Each district has different types of tourist attractions according to the tourism features in their area. The overview of those tourist attractions reflect what typology of tourist attractions in Chiang Rai would be. However the method of administrative division does not affect to the tourism characteristics or the typology of tourist attractions in a province.

Historical Background

Since Chiang Rai Province is situated on Kok River Basin which is a fertile land, there are many groups of people have been settled down continuously since antiquity. Some tourist attractions are associated with the remains of human settlement or the background story of that settlement. The brief history of Chiang Rai Province (Kinawong, 2003) can be divided into four periods as follows:

1. Pre-historical period

Kok River Basin has been an important Thai civilisation centre before 15th century. The traces of antique objects and Thai civilization in Kok River Basin are 27 ruined ancient towns that are found scattering on over both sides of Kok River's bank from Amphoe Fang of Chiang Mai Province, which is the source of the river, until Muang Chiang Sean of Chiang Rai Province. From the Singhanawat legend, King Singhanawat Kumar with his people migrated from Nakara-Thai-Desa in Yunnan,

China to the neglected and unoccupied area of Lawa-nadi (Sai River) and Mekong River which had been called Suvarna-khom-kham. So, the new town was named Singhanawat-nakara (City of Singhanawat). However, its name was changed again to Yonaka-nakara-chaiya-buri-raja-dhani-sri-chang-sen (pronounced "Yokok-nakhon-chai-buri-raj-thani-si-chang-sen") which was shortened later to "Chiang Sean". The people of this city were called Yuan. Whereas in Nguen-yang Chiang Sean legend, Pu-chao Lao-jok was the founder of Nguen-Yang Kingdom or Hiran-nakara in 638 A.D. after the fall of Yonaka-naga-banda (pronounced "Yonok-naka-phan"). With the centre in the same area as the former Yonaka-naga-banda, the kingdom called Chiang Sean. At the same time, other small towns (Wieng) emerged from many river basins. The administration was based on the Sakdina system in which different member of society had different social ranks, measured by their holding of land of rice fields or "na". People with higher land holding would have more power, worthiness, or position than those with lower land holding. A person could be called in association with the number of their rice fields such as Pan-na (thousand rice fields), Muen-na (ten thousand rice fields), Sean-na (hundred thousand rice fields) and Lan-na (million rice fields).

2. Early Establishment under Mangrai Dynasty Period

Around the 15th century, a new city was established at Kok River Basin by King Mangrai (1238 – 1317), the founder king of Mangrai dynasty, son of King Laomeng who ruled Hiran-nakara-nguen-yang and Queen Thep-kham-khai who had been a princess of Chiang Rung City, an ancient city of Sipsongpanna (Xishuangbanna) in Yunnan. After ascending the throne, he moved the capital from Hiran-nakara-nguen-yang to the new location near Kok River's bank in 1262 and named the new capital as "Chiang Rai" which meant "The city of King Mangrai". Since then, he expanded his kingdom by conquering neighbor cities of his relatives, such as Muang Lai, Chiang Kham and Chiang Khong and initiating alliances with other states.

Later, he built another new capital in other areas such as Wieng Fang in 1269. In 1274, he invaded Haripunchai at Lamphun which was located at Ping River Basin. Finally, in 1296 he founded a permanent capital named "Nopburi-si-nakhon-ping-chiangmai" of Lanna Kingdom in Ping River Basin, and sent his son, Prince Khram, to rule Chiang Rai, instead. At that time, Chiang Rai became Chiang Mai

vassal state and was ruled by viceroy. Latter, Chiang Rai became less important to Lanna Kingdom. When Lanna declined and was defeated by Burmese king Bayinnaung, Chiang Rai was under the control of Burmese ruler in 1558. Under the Burmese ruler, Chiang Sean had become the most important administrative city of all cities in the north.

3. Lanna States under Siamese Tributary Period

Around the 19th century, there were leaders of the North such as Phaya Cha Ban and Phaya Kawila who were supported by King Thonburi who fought with Burma. Finally, all Lanna cities were liberated from the Burmese rule. However, when King Kawila defeated Chiang Sean, he decided to evacuate the city and moved his people to Chiang Mai and Saraburi. Consequently, Chiang Sean including Chiang Rai became a deserted town. In 1843, under the reign of King Rama III, Chiang Rai was recovered and was positioned as the vessel town of Chiang Mai under the rule of Chao Luang Thammalanka. Chiang Rai was under the control of the House of Chao-chet-ton for 60 years until the administration reform of King Rama V.

4. Monthon System Period

In 1884, King Rama V, or King Chulalongkorn, announced his municipal and provincial Monthon system and the two provinces – the Northwestern Province and Maharashtra Province. The new administrative structure was throughout the kingdom, including the Lanna kingdom. All the Lanna kings including Chiang Mai were reduced to city mayors. The Siamese nobility was installed as the officials of Northern provinces in duality with native Lanna's old nobility. Finally, the annexation of Lanna Kingdom to Siamese Kingdom was completed when the Siamese government in Bangkok sent officials to Lanna cities and handled all administrative activities. Until the reign of King Rama VI, the Monthon system was abolished and provincial system was installed. In 1910, Chiang Rai was proclaimed one of the provinces in Siam.

Demographics

The majority of the population is generally ethnic Thai, but 12.5% of the population belong to the hill tribes, a minority in the North of Thailand. The largest minority group is of Chinese descent, mainly descendants of the Kuomintang soldiers

who settled in the region, notably Santikhiri town at Mae Salong Mountain. Other notable minorities are Tai Yai, Akha, Lahu, Karen, Hmong, Tai Lue, Lisu and Yao.

In conclusion, the geography, climate, natural resources, historical background, and demographics of Chiang Rai Province influence its tourism characteristics and attractiveness which offer both products and experiences to the tourists.

Tourist Attraction(s)

This study relates to the fields of tourist attraction and tourism typology in order to establish the typology of tourist attractions in a certain area. An attraction is simply and literally defined as anything that attracts people to visit or travel to see it (Cooper, 2012, p. 148; Sharpley, 2006, p. 64). Even though there are two terms associated with attraction, tourist attraction and visitor attraction, there is no literature that argues about their differences in details but the argument occurs with the definitions of tourists and visitors instead (Hannan and Knox, 2010; Leiper, 1979a; Larsen, Urry and Axhausen, 2007; WTO, 2000; WTO and UNSTAT, 1994) while the web page of edinburgh-inspiringcapital.com uses both term as a compound noun as "visitor and tourist attractions" (Edinburgh Brand, 2012). The difference of definition between tourists and visitors mainly applies to statistics in order to generate the income from visitors who make an overnight trip (WTO, n.d., pp. 3–4).

MacCannell (1976, p. 109) suggests three basic elements comprise an attraction: a tourist, a site of a visit, and a significant site image or marker, compounds an attraction. Lew (1987, p. 554) contends that, apart from tangible matters such as historic sites or splendid scenery, an attraction, in a broader definition, also includes services and facilities that are delivered to the tourists such as experiences of a festival that are ephemeral, transient, but real. Interestingly, the National Tourism Organizations in the UK draws the tourist attractions into very broad scope but embracing all meanings that tourist attractions should possess as:

> ...an attraction where the main purpose is sightseeing. The attraction must be a permanent established excursion destination, a primary purpose of which is to allow access for entertainment, interest or education; rather than being primarily a retail outlet or a venue for sporting, theatrical or film performances. It must be open to the public, without prior booking, for published periods each year, and should be capable of attracting day visitors or tourists as well as local residents. In addition, the attraction must be a single business, under a single management, so that it is capable of answering the economic questions on revenue, employment etc.
>
> (VisitScotland, March 17, 2013)

Similarly, Pearce (1991, p. 46) expands the meaning of attractions linking to a broader range of locations that the site is named and includes a man-made or natural feature which visitors and management concentrate on. Those definitions focus on the outcome and the management approach of the tourist attractions.

However, when attractions partly involve human actions such as the arrival number of tourists or the objective of visiting, it becomes difficult to give a clear-cut definition to the word "tourist attraction" (Swarbrooke, 1995). Walsh-Heron and Stevens (1990) give the meaning of tourist attraction as a spatial feature or a focus of activity with six criteria as shown in the Table 1, this definition does not focus on the tourist involvement and emphasises only other two elements, the place where people visit and the attractiveness of the place. While McKercher, Mei and Tse (2006) include festivals in their study as the tourist attractions, many other researchers (Benckendorff and Pearce, 2003; Garrod, Leask and Fyall, 2007) did not consider festivals as the tourist attractions because of its characteristics of the temporary and occasional nature. However, this study focuses on permanent sites with clear boundary which attract significant numbers of visitors. Consequently, to prevent any ambiguities and to limit the scope of the study, the definition of "tourist attraction" given by Walsh-Heron and Stevens (1990) with the focus of the site and the attractiveness was used in this study.

Table 1 The six criteria for the definition of tourist attraction

No.	Description
1	Aiming to attract visitors and being managed accordingly,
2	Providing a fun and pleasurable experience and an enjoyable way for customers to spend their leisure time,
3	Being developed to realise the potential of a visit,
4	Being managed as an attraction, providing satisfaction to its visitors,
5	Providing an appropriate level of facilities and services to meet and cater to the demands, needs, and interest of its visitors, and
6	May or may not charge admission fees for entry.

Source: Walsh-Heron and Stevens, 1990

Attractiveness

Many tourism policy-makers, practitioners and researchers have conducted research on the attractiveness of places for many purposes. For example, Gearing, Swart and Var (1974) conducted research to establish the principles for measurement of touristic attractiveness which finally yields seventeen criteria to indicate the score of attractiveness in the location. Later, Ferrario (1979) provided a basic set of common criteria to evaluate the potentials of tourist attractions in southern regions of Africa by balancing between the approach on demand and supply. Through telephone interviews of 400 tourists' perception of the destination attractiveness, Hu and Ritchie (1993) were able to generate 16 important relative touristic attributions to the destination attractiveness, which include scenery, price levels, cultural attractions, attitude towards tourists, uniqueness of local people's life, food, availability/quality of local transportation, historical attractions, entertainment activities, festivals and special events, communication difficulties, availability/quality of accommodations, weather and climate, shopping, accessibility, and sports/recreational opportunities. For Nyberg (1994), there are three determinants of tourism attractiveness to be identified: static, dynamic, and current decisive. These determining factors are beneficial for marketing approach by analysing the competitiveness of tourist destination on the basis of their

relationships and interactions between the true nature and associated qualities of tourist destination. In examining the tourist perception of an attractiveness of five Korean destinations, Kim's study (1998) found that one factor influencing the tourists' perception of destination attractiveness is the season in which the tourists visit.

For marketing purposes and benchmarking, the competitiveness with those the same industry located in the same area, the work of Kozak and Rimmington (1998, p. 184) gives a list of components of attractiveness contributing to tourist attractions and hospitality business, as shown in Table 2 below. Formica and Uysal (2006) propose a model using analytical factors to evaluate tourism related to supply and demand of the destination attractiveness. Their model focuses on four factors associating with the conducted location of the study: 1) tourism services and facilities, 2) cultural/historical, 3) rural lodging and 4) outdoor recreation. This model highlights which dimensions the attraction can present.

Table 2 The components of attractiveness for tourist destination

Attractiveness	Components
Attractions	Scenery/natural resources
	Climate
	Culture
	Food
	History
	Ethnicity
	Accessibility
Facilities and services	Accommodation
	Airport
	Bus/train stations
	Sport facilities
	Entertainment
	Shopping centres
	Food and beverage facilities

Table 2 (cont.)

Attractiveness	Components
Infrastructure	Water systems
	Communication networks
	Health care
	Power Sources
	Sewage/drainage areas
	Streets/highways
	Security systems
Hospitality	Friendliness
	Helpfulness
	Responsiveness to complaints
Cost	Value for money
	Accommodation prices
	Food and beverage prices
	Transportation prices
	Shopping prices

Source: Kozak and Rimmington, 1998

In their tourism system, many scholars such as Gunn (1988a; see Figure 7), Leiper (1990; see Figure 8), and Mill and Morrison (1985) attest that attractiveness is the core element of an attraction system that stays inside the attraction. This element also links with the power of a destination to draw tourists to make a visit. One destination may have many important attributes in attracting people to visit it, thus further enhancing the destination attractiveness. Furthermore, Gunn (1988a), Leiper (1990), and Mill and Morrison (1985) agree that three elements, natural, cultural/ historical, and special events and activities, as core attractions attributing to the destination attractiveness, and Lee, Ou and Huang (2009, p. 23; see Figure 9) has adopted this idea in their model of attractiveness of the hot springs tourism sector.

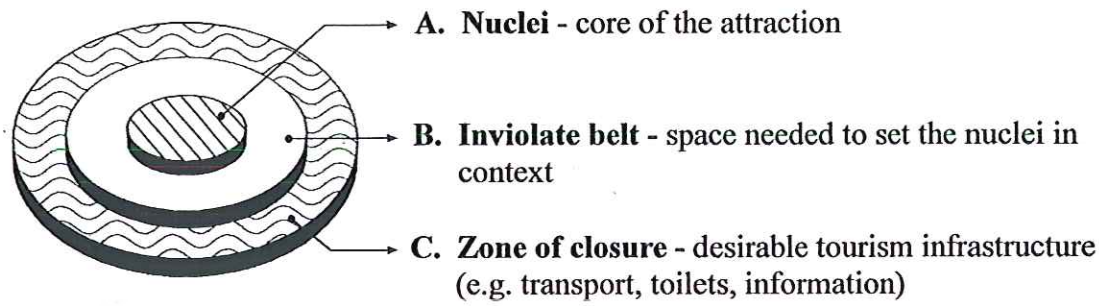

Figure 7 Concentric rings model of a tourist attraction

Source: Gunn, 1988; Pearce, 1991

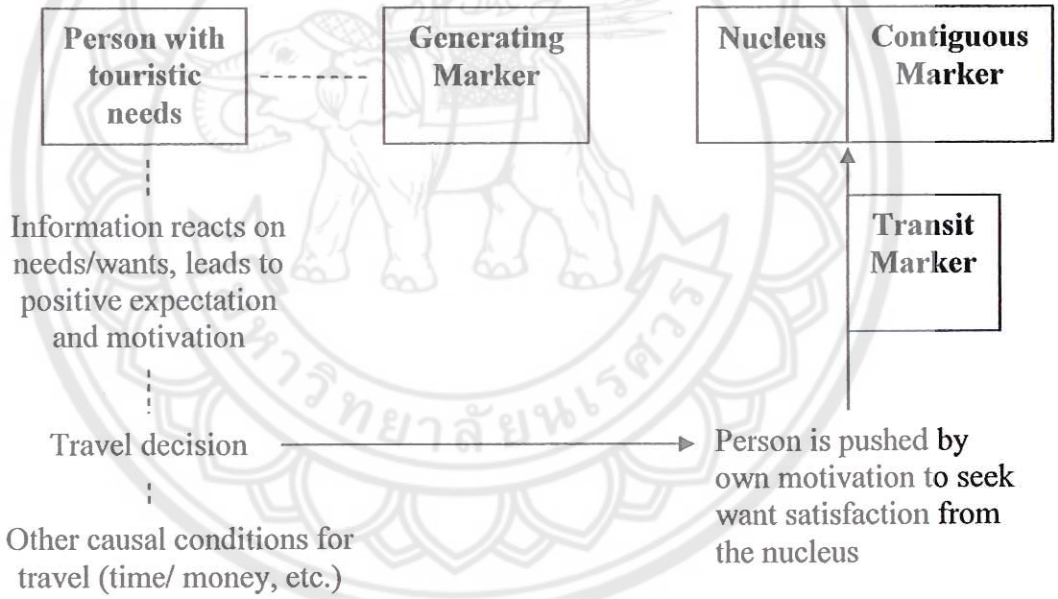

Figure 8 A model of tourist attraction

Source: Leiper, 1990

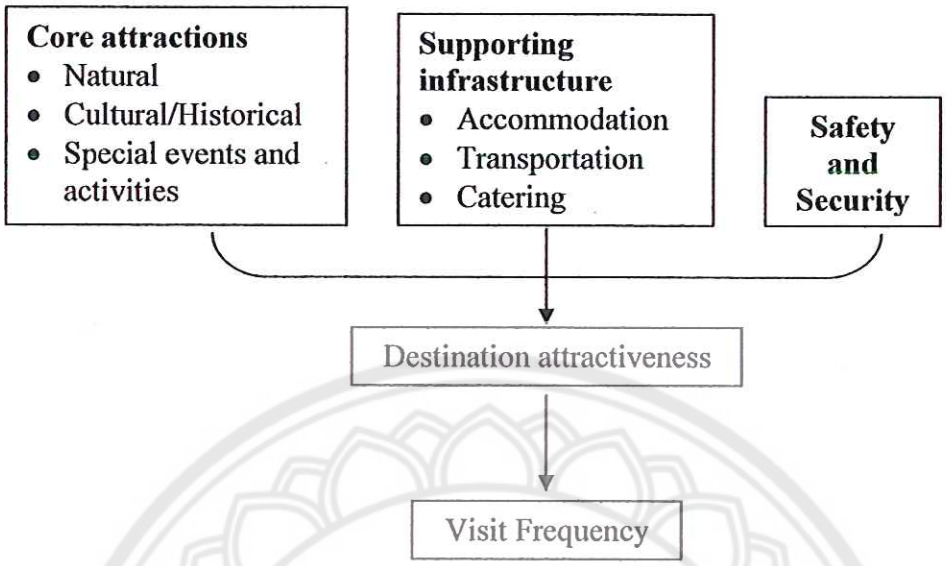

Figure 9 A model of the attractiveness of hot springs tourism sector

Source: Lee, Ou and Huang, 2009

Typology of Tourist Attractions

With respect to the typology of tourist attractions, various classifications of tourist attractions are proposed (Gunn, 1988b; Kotler, 1998; Leiper, 1990; MacCannell, 1976; Pearce, 1991; Robinson, 1994; Stevens, 1991). MacCannell (1976) provides the initial evaluation on the three elements - a tourist, a sight and a marker - of tourist attraction that are used for defining a tourist attraction. Apart from the element "a tourist", other elements such as a sight and a marker show the typology of certain tourist attractions. Later, Gunn (1988b) suggested that travel activities are useful for categorisation of tourist attractions. Based on the length of time on traveling, Gunn has firstly divided travel activities into two major groups - touring circuit activities category and longer-stay activities category. Then, he generates the classification of activities from the two major groups into the classifications of attractions based on the kinds of attraction places. He also confirms that through attraction objectives the two key groups of tourism markets can be differentiated. Moreover, he presents the concentric rings model to describe the physical factors that constitute a tourist attraction. This model is made up of the nuclei which are the core of attraction, the

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inviolate belt which is to set the context of attraction, and the zone of closure which is external or adding supports to attraction. Leiper (1990) clarifies that when defining the attraction, the sight component is considered only the most conventional model. Consequently, he develops a model of a tourist attraction (Figure 8) which is grounded on the models of Gunn (1988b) and of MacCannell (1976).

However, there are obviously three common elements existing in their three models: the human, the centre element, and the marker. Even though when Kotler's framework (1998, p. 348) for marketing approach with both tangible and intangible attributes is later proposed, the core element still remains in the model. In accordance with Gunn (1988b), two of the six elements of successful tourist attractions provided by Pearce (1991, 1998), and the resource elements and visitor activities indicate the distinctive attributes to categorise the tourist attractions. Later, those notions are merged in the work of Leask (2008) that systematically incorporates many models into one chart. It shows the significance of the tourist attractions as the core product that includes resource, event and activities as well as the model adopted in the study of Lee, Ou and Huang (2009, p. 23) as stated above.

According to Kozak and Rimmington (1998, p. 184), seven components of tourist attractiveness are attributed to tourist attractions. They are scenery/natural resources, climate, culture, food, history, ethnicity and accessibility in order to benchmark with other destinations. However, Formica (2000) claims that there are two ways to examine the attractiveness – the attractiveness perceptions of tourists and visitors and a study on attractions. The analysis of spatial perception on destination between Japanese guidebooks and American guidebooks reveals the difference that affects ways of sorting sites and the number of occurrences of information (Suzuki and Wakabayashi, 2005). Hence, the linguistic contents of tourism information are less influenced by the environmental factors.

The Tourism Book by the Japan Travel Bureau (JTB). Research Department (2004) suggests classifying the attractions according to the characteristics of the resources as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Types of Attraction Resources

Types		Explanation	Examples
Natural resources		Unable to be created by human	Mountain, moorland, plateau, wetland, waterway, canyon, cape, waterfall, animal, seashore, plant, cave
Man-made resources	I	Existed for a long time, possesses its own value, and never reduces its attractiveness	Historic site, shrine, ruin, castle, park and garden, historical landscape, annual event
	II	Shows its attractiveness at the present time and is attractive to many tourists, but cannot guarantee its attractiveness being in the future	Bridge, modern park, building, theme park, amusement park
Mixed resources		Combinations of natural and man-made resources	Historical landscape, rural landscape, local landscape, urban landscape

Source: Japan Travel Bureau, Research Department (Ed.), 2004

Later, Suzuki and Wakabayashi (2008, p. 524) developed a more comprehensive model of the types of tourist attraction with an interesting classification that is considered conducive to the Japanese culture and nature context as shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Types of Tourist Attraction

Major Classes	Middle Classes	Minor Classes
Accommodation	Accommodation	Hotel Japanese-style hotel Others
Food and Beverages	Bar	Live House Western-style bar Tavern
Food and Beverages (cont.)	Restaurant	Japanese food Western food Ethnic food Chinese food Coffee shop
	Others	Western confectionery and food Japanese confectionery and food Soda fountain Food wholesaler
Sightseeing element	Admiration type	Historic site Temple and shrine Structure Public office Japanese theatre Western theatre Gallery Museum
	Amusement type	Amusement park Aquarium Cinema Library Zoo and botanical garden

Table 4 (Cont.)

Major Classes	Middle Classes	Minor Classes
	Commercial element	Mix element Business complex Grocery Garment Bookshop Electricity shop
	Wellness element	Bath Green tract of land Public park Mountain, waterfall and limestone cave
Sightseeing element (cont.)	Others	Racecourse Sports centre School Transportation Beauty salon and barber

Source: Suzuki and Wakabayashi, 2008, p. 524

Regarding the actual classification of tourist attractions, different organizations have divided tourism attractions differently and with different purposes. The classification by the Research Department (2004) of the JTB shows the dimension of typology of tourist attractions which may be influenced by the national culture and geographical features, whereas in the West the classification of tourist attractions is founded based on different dimension. Below is an example of a classification system developed by the VisitScotland (2010) which divided tourist attractions into 15 groups as:

1. Castle/Fort
2. Country/Forest Park
3. Distillery/Vineyard/Brewery
4. Garden
5. Heritage/Visitor Centre
6. Historic House/Palace
7. Historic Monument/Archaeological Site
8. Industrial/Craft Workplace
9. Museum/Art Gallery
10. Nature Reserve/Wetlands/Wildlife Trips
11. Other Historic Property
12. Place of Worship
13. Safari Park/Zoo/Aquarium/Aviary/Farm
14. Steam/Heritage Railway
15. Other

Originally, the organisation's questionnaire contained 19 types of tourist attraction in their actual survey (VisitScotland, 2010, p. 109). Later, "Farm, Rare Breeds, Farm Animals" is merged with the "Safari Park/Zoo/Aquarium/Aviary/Farm"; "Other Historic/Scenic transport operator" with "Other Historic Property"; "Theme Park" with "Other"; and "Science/Technology Centre" with "Museum/Art Gallery". A year later, the classification system was reduced to 14 categories as follows (Moffat Centre, 2010, p. 3):

1. Activity Attractions
2. Castles/Forts
3. Distilleries/Breweries/Wineries
4. Gardens
5. Heritage Centres
6. Historic Houses/Palaces
7. Industrial/Workplaces
8. Museums/Art Galleries
9. Other Historic Properties

10. Outdoors/Nature Attractions
11. Places of Worship/Spiritual Attractions
12. Scottish Crafts/Retail Attractions
13. Transport-Related Attractions
14. Wildlife/Animal Attractions

The changes of classification of tourist attractions in Scotland by the Moffat Centre reveal the systematic development of classification of tourist attractions.

To conclude, the typology of tourist attractions is constructed by the classification system of tourist attractions in certain boundary area. The different classification of tourist attractions in each stage depends on the tourism resources that attract tourists to visit. In addition, the method in collecting information of tourist attraction classification reflects the category of tourist attraction. The classification of tourist attractions in Japan is, therefore, different from in Scotland and the categories can be changed following the changing purpose and foundation of classification system. Since the structure of the typology of tourist attractions constructed by the Research Department of Japan Travel Bureau and the classification model of tourist attractions done by Suzuki and Wakabayashi (2008) are considered to be adaptable for Asian context, they are applied in this study.

Content Analysis

In analysing qualitative data, various ways can be utilised. Cavanagh (1997, p. 5) holds that the content analysis is one of the research methods that can be applied to understand text data. Content analysis is widely used in many fields of study such as in psychology, sociology, journalism, communication and business (Harwood and Garry, 2003). Elo and Kyngäs (2008, p.114) confirm that this method can deal with large volumes of textual data and different textual sources, especially in affirming evidence. Hsieh and Shannon (2005) propose three types of content analysis, namely conventional, directed and summative content analyses. These approaches differ in how initial codes are developed. However, the final findings of the three approaches are more or less similar. The summative content analysis is a method for exploring the keywords in the textual material; it is both quantitative and qualitative. It is quantitative because it focuses on the frequency of specific words or content

(Kondracki and Wellman, 2002), and it is qualitative in that it focuses on the discovery of underlying meanings of the words or the content (Babbie, 1992; Catanzaro, 1988; Morse and Field, 1995). In conducting this study, the researcher would employ the summative content analysis approach which is the most relevant to the study.

From the discussion above, it can be seen that definitions and models of attractions vary depending on the approaches employed by different researchers. However, in spite of their differences, they all share one thing in common - that is the inclusion of the core element or attributes in those models and/or definitions.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the study examined the tourist attractions in Chiang Rai Province which is a tourism destination in Thailand that possesses various existing tourism resources such as geographical characteristics, natural resources, and historical remains. The definitions of attractions vary depending on the approaches employed by different. In spite of a plethora of models of attraction system, one thing that these models share in common is the core element, or an attribute of the site applied for use in this study. To examine the attribute of the attractiveness of a tourist attraction, the summative content analysis technique would be employed. The typology of tourist attractions is designed by the classification system of tourist attractions. It consists of a collection of similar or linkable attributes as the smallest unit of the system. Then, a collection of attributes is used for forming the types of attraction. So, the model illustrated by the Research Department of Japan Travel Bureau (2004) and the classification system of tourist attractions purposed by Suzuki and Wakabayashi (2008) were adapted to construct the new model of typology of tourist attractions in Chiang Rai Province.