EVALUATING HISTORICAL DISTRICTS: EXPLORING THE USE OF PHOTOGRAPHS AND SLIDE EXPERIMENTS

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This study explores approaches and methods to investigate visitors' evaluation of historical districts. Personal interviews with use of repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis and slide experiments with photographs were conducted with a sample of students to reveal relationships between various evaluative components. The results of the two sets of methods are examined in a comparative manner to obtain abundant insights into evaluations of historical districts and the efficacy of these methods. The results provide insights into issues raised by past studies. Particularly, they shed light on the complex nature of visitors' evaluation of historical districts, as represented by the mixed effects of the presence of other people, commercialization, and modernity. Personal interviews and slide experiments are found to be mutually complementary in that, while the former illuminate the complex relationships between components of subjects' evaluations, the latter depict these relationships in a more holistic and simple form by uncovering the commonality between the elicited components. The findings of the slide experiments also suggest room for further attempts to elicit evaluative components. Further studies of this kind with different groups of subjects and in different field settings would provide further insights into this complex area.

Key words: Historical district; Repertory grid analysis; Laddering analysis; Slide experiment; Photograph

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Introduction

A historical district is a comprehensive type of historical attraction and covers a variety of features that could affect visitors' evaluations. For instance, such a district often includes tourism sites as well as places not primarily intended for tourism. Even within the tourist sites themselves historical assets are often not simple reflections of

the past (Caffyn & Lutz, 1999; Johnson, 1999; Palmer, 1999) and necessarily they often incorporate contrived elements. These multifaceted elements of a historical district suggest that visitors' evaluation will be complex.

This study aims to propose approaches to investigate visitors' evaluation of historical districts and methods to structure their evaluation of such districts. In so doing, it focuses mainly on method-

ological issues. The literature review is devoted largely to establishment of the proposed methods in light of their theoretical backgrounds, the structure of visitors' evaluation of a destination, and the nature of a historical district as a tourism destination. The methods are then applied in explorative manners to assess their efficacy.

This is part of a long-term study and is a further development of previous work (Naoi, Airey, Iijima, & Niininen 2006). The details of earlier work directly related to the findings of this article, which have already been published (Naoi, Airey, Iijima, & Niininen, 2007), are summarized here to provide the necessary background to understand the nature and outcomes of the slide experiments. The uniqueness of this study lies particularly in the results of the slide experiments and the implications obtained through comparison with the results of personal interviews and slide experiments.

Literature Review

In this section, the complex nature of a historical district as a tourism destination is first discussed as a background to understand the need for thorough exploratory approaches. The structure of visitors' evaluation of a destination is then considered leading to the identification of possible methods to investigate visitors' evaluation of a historical district.

Historical Districts and Their Evaluation

Historical districts as tourism destinations are challenging to understand. Obviously they contain historical assets but these take a wide variety of forms. They may be clustered or dispersed and may differ in geographical scale, the types of historical assets they contain or the location of those assets. Whatever their form, historical districts as tourism destinations will most likely be set within more modern structures and they themselves will have been transformed to some extent. Hence, what a visitor to such a district actually sees and experiences is a mixture of historical and contemporary assets.

These complex and sometimes contradictory aspects of a historical district as a tourism destination could lead visitors to have various responses to the district. For instance, the effects of commer-

cialization have been argued among some authors who have criticized it for transforming historical settings into superficial objects for the sake of tourism (Herbert, 1995; Hewison, 1987; Mathieson & Wall, 1982) and others who have questioned these negative views, for instance by asserting visitors' demands for contemporary facilities such as modern hotels or transportation (Ashworth, 1988; Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000). Findings by Naoi et al. (2006) further imply that certain types of commercial stores may be perceived as contributory to visitors' desire for local authenticity, something outside daily life or things to appeal to others.

Discussions about visitors' complex feelings on the presence of other people at destinations are also observed in studies of crowding, which is defined as a psychological stress that sometimes accompanies high population density (Stokols, 1972). While some claim crowding as a constraint upon desired tourist experience (Schreyer & Roggenbuck, 1978; West, 1982; Womble & Studebaker, 1981), others suggest its positive influences causing a sense of exhilaration or arousing (Argyle, Furnham, & Graham, 1981; Hull, 1990; Naoi & Iijima, 2004; Naoi et al., 2006) or contributing to social affiliation (Ditton, Fedler, & Graefe, 1983, cited in Manning, 1985; Graham & Burge, 1984). This issue can also be considered in light of whether to regard a historical district, which could have been in the past, or may still be, a residential or commercial area, as the object of "romantic gaze" (Urry, 2002), in terms of which solitude, privacy, and a personal, semispiritual relationship with the artifact is important, or as the one of a "collective gaze" (Urry, 2002), in terms of which the presence of other people is necessary to give atmosphere. Naoi et al.'s (2006) study further suggests that places where people are perceived to gather could be considered to satisfy visitors' desire to be aware that they are seeing something famous.

In summary, historical districts present a complex range of evaluative dimensions for visitors that could relate to the state of the district, such as the degree of commercialization or the degree of crowding, and/or to what visitors demand. This notion suggests the importance of exploring visitors' perceptions of a range of aspects that a district holds and of suitable approaches for investi-

gations for this purpose. Although no specific hypotheses about such evaluations are proposed, the above-mentioned arguments imply positive and negative views about contrived elements, such as commercialization or the presence of others. Explorative attempts to shed light on visitors' evaluation of a historical district could offer insights into how historical districts as transformed into tourism objects could be perceived by visitors.

The Structure of Visitors' Evaluations of a Tourism Destination

This section discusses and proposes a framework that lays the foundation for developing methods for the empirical investigations. The literature suggests that tourism destination image involves two components: "cognitive" and "affective" (Baloglu, 1999, 2000, 2001; Baloglu & Love, 2005; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a, 1999b; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Gartner, 1993; Pike & Ryan, 2004). Cognitive components relate to the physical features (Hanyu, 1993) and can be regarded as derived from fact (Boulding, 1956) whereas affective components are concerned with the emotional quality of the destination (Hanyu, 1993). As for relationships between these two components, many authors have claimed that affective components are derived from cognitive components (Anand, Holbrook, & Stephens, 1988; Baloglu, 1999, 2000; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999a; Woodside & Lysons, 1989).

The *means-end chain theory*, which proposes that the roles of attributes of an object are a means to achieve certain objectives, which are then the means for more ultimate objectives to be achieved (Gutman, 1982), illustrates relationships between attributes of an object and mental states. Mental states can further vary in their degree of concreteness. For instance, "want" is usually regarded as a manifestation of "need" while "value" is defined as "a belief about a desirable end-state that transcends specific situations and guides selection of behaviour" (Solomon, Bamossy, & Askegaard, 1999, p. 104). The relationships between attributes and mental states are also illustrated in consumer behavior studies such as that by Reynolds and Gutman (1988). Some tourism studies, which are

reviewed in a later section, have also employed the means-end chain model as the frameworks.

For the present study, which dwells upon the relationships between various features/aspects of historical districts and visitors' feelings and demands, the framework of cognitive and affective components, and relationships between attributes and mental states provides a suitable framework for further empirical investigations.

Methodological Discussion

In order to elicit relationships between cognitive/affective components and mental states, *repertory grid analysis* and *laddering analysis* have often been utilized. Repertory grid analysis is based on Kelly's (1955) *personal construct theory*. A *construct* here refers to the actual discrimination that the subject makes between phenomena in the environment, and constructs are extracted through the pattern of choices and discrimination that people make among elements in their environment (Downs, 1976). Repertory grid analysis attempts to reveal subjects' constructs by providing them with a set of elements to be compared. Many studies have employed repertory grid analysis for the investigation of evaluations of destinations (Botterill, 1989; Botterill & Crompton, 1987, 1996; Coshall, 2000; Embacher & Buttle, 1989; Gyte, 1988; Pearce, 1982; Pike, 2003; Selby, 2004; Walmsley & Jenkins, 1993; Young, 1995).

Laddering analysis is based on the previously mentioned "means-end chain model" (Gutman, 1982). Laddering analysis is a method to identify hierarchical relationships between attributes, objectives, and higher levels of abstract mental states by asking subjects "Why is that important to you?" questions. Attributes elicited through repertory grid analysis are often employed as the starting point of laddering. In tourism studies, some authors have employed laddering analysis for investigation of the evaluation of short-break destinations (Klenosky, 2002), the evaluation of ski resorts (Klenosky, Gengler, & Mulvey, 1993), and motivation of museum visitors (Jansen-Verbeke & van Rekom, 1996).

While most past studies using repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis have used the names of places as stimuli, photographs can also

be employed. Photographs depict environmental situations more accurately than mere verbal description and they allow the presentation of the same visual stimuli to each subject as suggested by Brown, Richards, Daniel, and King (1989, as cited in Son & Pearce, 2005) and Munson (1993, as cited in Son & Pearce, 2005). In qualitative investigations of the evaluation of tourism destinations, Botterill (1989) and Botterill and Crompton (1987, 1996) focused on personal travel experience of one or two persons using repertory grid analysis with use of photographs, and Fairweather and Swaffield (2001, 2002) used Q method with photographs to elicit visitors' experiences.

The combination of repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis is expected to extract a complex human psychological structure by providing subjects with frames to show responses. Thus, this combination with use of photographs, which affords comprehensive depiction of environments as argued above, could offer very detailed insight into the mixed nature of evaluation of a destination. While this is certainly an advantage at an exploratory stage of investigation, there is a possibility that too many elicited components and relationships will complicate the results. Furthermore, as the classification of the components is likely to involve subjective decisions by researchers on the basis of the words used by subjects, it could not be objectively examined whether or not the subjects perceived those classified components as truly separate.

The drawbacks of the qualitative approach are here covered by more quantitative methods, which recategorize the components on the basis of statistical investigation so as to detect significant relationships between them in a statistically meaningful model. A slide experiment is a tool that forms the basis of such a quantitative method with the use of photographs as stimuli, which enables analysis in a more holistic and simple form. The use of slide photographs also provides subjects with substantial time to assess clearly presented stimuli. Slide experiments have been used in the evaluation of destinations in some tourism studies (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997, 2000; Naoi & Iijima, 2004). They have also been used in the evaluation of Japanese historical districts (Okajima et al., 1988; Okajima et al., 1987). An outline

of these studies is presented in Table 1. It is observed that MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997) required subjects to rate the prominence of cognitive components while all the studies in Table 1 used semantic differential scales. This table also shows that, although the sample size varies, apart from MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997), only a small sample of subjects, ranging from 8 to 51, was involved. Also MacKay and Fesenmaier (2000), Okajima et al. (1987), and Okajima et al. (1988) used relatively few images. It is also observed that most of the studies employed university undergraduates as subjects.

These two approaches together are expected to facilitate subjects' evaluation of a number of visually presented settings in detail. In this way, their evaluations can be fuller than ones based on images, defined as "simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information" (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993, pp. 141).

Implementation, Analyses, and Results

This study employed two steps in its investigations: first, personal interviews with use of repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis with photographs as stimuli, and secondly, slide experiments. As noted, while the former is largely qualitative in nature and attempts an explorative elicitation of components, the aim of the latter is to explore the results quantitatively. As neither of the steps was conducted in field settings as explained later, convenience sampling with no population frames was employed for both the steps. This is due to the length of research time and, in particular for the slide experiments, the difficulty of asking a certain number of subjects to participate in a long-term research at the same time at the same place on a random basis. The drawbacks that the sampling of this study entails are discussed in a later section.

Personal Interviews Using Repertory Grid Analysis and Laddering Analysis

As explained earlier, this part of the work has already been presented in Naoi et al. (2007), and is summarized here to aid understanding of the subsequent slide experiments and allow comparison of the findings of these two sets of investiga-

Table 1

Research Methods Employed in Past Studies on Evaluation of Tourism Settings Using Still-Image Visual Stimuli

Researcher(s)	Number of Stimuli	Number of Subjects	Scales
MacKay & Fesenmaier (1997)	119 slide photographs of national parks shown for 25 seconds each	65 university undergraduates	Five 7-point scales per slide (with three anchors: "not at all prominent," "somewhat prominent," and "very prominent" to assess the level of natural scenery, people, recreational activity, landmarks, and wildlife)
	20 photographs of natural parks	240 people at various sites throughout a Canadian national park	Thirty-six 7-point semantic differential (bipolar) scales per photograph
MacKay & Fesenmaier (2000)	9 photographs of natural tourist attractions	10 university undergraduates	Method of paired comparison using 36 pairs of photographs on a 9-point scale to measure similarity, and seven 7-point semantic differential scales (bipolar adjectives) per photograph
Naoi & Iijima (2004)	26 slide photographs of a historical district	51 university undergraduates	Twenty-six 7-point semantic differential scales
Okajima et al. (1987)	4 photographs of scenes from a historical district	23 university undergraduates	Twenty 7-point semantic differential scales per photograph
	2 CRT images of scenes from a historical district	8 university undergraduates	Twenty 7-point semantic differential scales per image
Okajima et al. (1988)	9 CRT images of scenes from a historical district	38 university undergraduates	Twenty 7-point semantic differential scales per image

tions. An outline of the interviews is provided in Table 2. For the sake of brevity, the details of the personal interviews are not fully explained here. For further details, such as the selection of the sites and the data processing, the readers are referred to Naoi et al. (2007).

Fifty-eight photographs of 23 settings within and around Sanmachi, in the middle of Takayamashi, Gifu-Prefecture, Japan, were photographed varying mainly in the degree of conservation and the prominence of stores. For each setting, several slides were prepared varying in the way people (no people, a few people, many people, and so on) and vehicles appear.

Based on personal interviews the authors classified the extracted components into cognitive components, affective components, wants, and needs. Abstract components such as those concerning subjects' creeds or norms, which were to be categorized as values, were not actually extracted here. The authors then categorized the extracted components at each level into groups that

shared similar meanings. Thereafter, a tree figure was created for the whole group of subjects based on the relationships between the components. As in the studies by Klenosky (2002), Klenosky et al. (1993), Naoi et al. (2006), and Reynolds and Gutman (1988), both positive and negative relationships were counted. Indirect relationships were not counted in view of the large number of components that subjects commonly stated, which would have resulted in a very complicated tree figure for each subject.

These analyses generated Figure 1, which involves the components shown in Table 3. The direct relationships between a pair of components appear in the figure only when frequencies are five or more.

Slide Experiments

The reliability of the extracted relationships between cognitive components, affective components, and components related to subjects' mental

Table 2

Outlines of the Interviews: Repertory Grid Analysis and Laddering Analysis

Period	March 9, 2004 to June 16, 2004
Subjects	30 undergraduates of Department of International Tourism, Okayama Shoka University, Japan. Males = 15, females = 15; nobody but one female student had ever been to Takayama-shi. All the students who agreed to participate completed the whole session.
Duration	40 minutes to 1 hour and 30 minutes
Stimuli	58 photographs that were selected as the stimuli
Procedure	Each subject was presented the 58 photographs and requested to classify them into five levels according to their own preference as places to visit for sightseeing. The photographs were then placed in five lines in front of the subject so that their preference gradually decreased from the top line to the bottom line. Thereafter, they were asked the following questions. (The procedure until "2" was also employed in Maki, 1994.) 1. "What causes differences in your preference between the photographs in line 1 and line2?" Then, the same questions were asked as for the differences between line 2 and 3, between line 3 and 4, and between line 4 and 5. 2. "Please state anything that causes differences in your preference between any lines." 3. "Please select the most preferable photograph for you. What makes the photograph the most preferable?" 4. "Please select the least preferable photograph for you. What makes the photograph the least preferable?" 5. "Please state anything that causes differences in your preference among photographs in any single line." Once a subject stated one component, "ladder-up" or "ladder-down" types of questions were then asked to extract relationships between components.

states through repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis was then tested with the use of more structured quantitative methods.

In the present study 44 Japanese undergraduates of Okayama Shoka University viewed 30 slide photographs selected from the 58 photographs used for the personal interviews. As mentioned before, most of the past studies listed in Table 1 involved only a small sample of university undergraduates. Both the small sample size and the employment of university undergraduates may be explained by the fact that the task involves assessing slides in a "laboratory setting" at a particular location at a particular time. Such constraints also applied in this study.

The experiment was planned to be conducted with students during six separate lecture periods. A pilot experiment was conducted with two undergraduates (one male and one female). They could afford the time and agreed to participate in the experiment, which took longer than 2 hours. The results suggested that 30 slide photographs would be possible to complete the experiment within the lecture period of 90 minutes. The selection of photographs was based on discussion between the researcher and the subjects of the pilot experiment. In general, photographs were selected that showed the same settings but with a clear contrast between

those with people and those without people as well as those that were perceived by the subjects to vary in terms of the presence of cognitive components as shown in the questionnaire.

The sample of the main slide experiments comprised 28 males and 16 females, and the ages of the subjects ranged from 18 to 23. Four subjects (two males and two females) had been to Takayama-shi before the experiment. Each slide was shown to the subjects for 20 seconds.

To conduct the slide experiments the subjects were asked to assess each slide using an instrument containing 7 items related to cognitive components, 14 bipolar word pairs related to affective components, and 9 items related to mental states/objectives (see Table 4). These were selected basically because of the high frequencies of appearance during the personal interviews and because they were involved in the relationships ranging from the cognitive to affective components and from affective components to mental states in Figure 1. The authors determined the items and word pairs also by modifying some words that were found to be difficult to understand and deleting some words for the sake of brevity based on the results of the pilot slide experiment.

Subjects were asked to evaluate to what extent they thought each of seven cognitive components

2004. No subjects participated in more than one session. Each session took 50 to 80 minutes. No students either refused to participate or failed to complete the session.

Principal component analysis was performed separately on the ratings of “the 7 cognitive items,” “the 14 affective items,” and “the 9 items related to mental states.” As orthogonal relationships between factors were not hypothesized, direct oblimin (oblique) rotation, which allows factors to correlate (Field, 2000), was used. The total number of data of ratings was 1,320 (= 44 subjects multiplied by 30 settings). The analyses generated three cognitive components, two affective components, and two mental states as shown in Tables 5, 6, and 7. The components were labeled with reference to items that loaded distinctively on each component. The first, second, and third

Figure 1. Relationships between cognitive/affective components and mental states.

Table 3
Extracted Components

Elements	Frequency
Cognitive components	
C1: Rickshaw	27
NC1: Vehicles other than rickshaws	30
NC2: People (mainly visitors)	29
NC3: Shops	30
C20: Guides	15
C25: Modern signs	7
C38: Telephone masts/modern tall buildings	11
C39: Vending machines	8
C41: Ordinary private houses	24
NC4: Plants	19
NC5: Old houses	25
Affective components	
NA1: Old	28
NA2: Touristic/famous	30
A15: For local people	11
NA3: Unique/not normal-daily-life-like	29
NA5: A sense of activity	25
NA4: Calm/restful/quiet	16
A27: Dangerous (traffic)	14
A31: Convenient	10
A32: Easy to understand	12
Wants	
W1: Riding on a rickshaw	18
W4: Queuing	6
W5: Walking	20
W6: Seeing scenery/townscape/houses	19
NW1: Shopping	23
Needs	
NN1: Doing things freely	15
N3: Seeing/visiting something famous	11
N10: Experiencing/obtaining something to show/tell others	11
N11: Relaxing/resting/slowning down	21
NN2: Seeking something outside my daily life	16
N14: Convincing myself that I have visited the right place	13
Context (social environments)	
Con2: My daily life is tiring	9
Combination	
Com1: A shop with people	10
Com2: A shop with no people	9

The symbols (such as C1) used for the components are the same as the ones used for the components in Table 4 of Naoi et al. (2007).

cognitive components were labeled *modern objects* (C1, loading distinctively on Modern Shops and Modern Private Houses), *touristic objects* (C2, loading mainly on Rickshaws and Visitors), and *old objects* (C3, loading typically on Old Shops and Old Buildings), respectively. As to the affective components, the first component was named *modern/nontouristic/ordinary-traditional/touristic/*

unique (A1) while the second component was labeled *restless/active-composed/dull* (A2). For the mental states, “relaxing” is the only item that loaded on the second component distinctively, and, therefore, this component (M2) may be termed *relaxing*. All the other items that loaded heavily on the first component were, unlike relaxing, relevant to seeing, experiencing or obtaining touristic things. In this regard, the first component (M1) may be understood to represent what might be termed *sightseeing*.

Next, path analysis with use of AMOS 5.0 was employed to investigate significant relationships between components C1, C2, C3, A1, A2, M1, and M2 within a framework (model). The first model hypothesized all the relationships from cognitive components to affective components, from

Table 4

The Final List of Cognitive and Affective Components and Mental State-Related Components

Seven cognitive components
Old shops
Modern private houses
Rickshaws
Modern shops
Visitors
Old houses
Cars
Fourteen affective components
Totally active/Totally dull
Totally touristic/Not at all touristic
Totally restless/Totally composed
Place for visitors/Place for locals
No incongruent features/Many incongruent features
Totally gloomy/Totally cheerful
Minor attractions/Major attractions
Totally ancient/Totally modern
Totally like daily life/Not at all like daily life
Not at all traditional/Totally traditional
Totally quiet/Totally noisy
Totally unique (compared to your daily life)/Totally ordinary (compared to your daily life)
Totally dangerous/Totally safe
Totally must-see/Not at all must-see
Nine mental state-related components
Seeing something famous
Appreciating something outside your daily life
Doing things as you like
Seeing townscape
Doing shopping
Walking around
Relaxing
Seeing, experiencing, or obtaining something worth telling others
Being convinced that you have visited the right place

Table 5

Results of Principal Component Analysis of Ratings on the Seven Cognitive Items (Direct Oblimin Rotation: KMO 0.638)

Item	Component 1 (C1)	Component 2 (C2)	Component 3 (C3)
Modern shops	0.899	0.013	0.229
Modern private houses	0.766	-0.007	-0.206
Rickshaws	-0.119	0.814	-0.097
Visitors	0.065	0.557	0.271
Cars	0.242	0.500	-0.487
Old shops	0.132	0.034	0.873
Old buildings	-0.428	0.125	0.567
Variance explained (%)	31.024	18.131	14.873
Accumulative variance explained (%)	31.024	49.155	64.028

affective components to mental states, and from cognitive components to mental states. All the path coefficients from errors (unobserved variables) to observed variables were fixed as 1. "Chi-square p (the probability that a chi-square statistic equals or exceeds a chi-square value calculated by chi-square test against the null hypothesis that the model fits the data) of over 0.10" (Yamashita, 1998, p. 153), "AGFI (Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index) of over 0.90" (Moreland & Beach, 1992 as cited in Yamashita, 1998, p. 152), "RMSEA (Root Mean Square of Approximation) of under 0.10" (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999, p. 403), were employed as the fit indices.

The first model (Fig. 2) shows chi-square $p = 0.000$, AGFI = 0.792, and RMSEA = 0.166. Therefore, it is suggested that the fit level of the model is not acceptable. According to modification indices calculated by AMOS 5.0, paths "from A2 to M1," "from C1 to M2," and "from C3 to M2" from the model were not significant ($p = 0.658$, 0.380, and 0.844, respectively). Therefore, exclusion of these paths may contribute to better fit indices. Moreover, modification indices calculated by AMOS 5.0 suggest that inclusion of covariances between "C1 and C2," "C1 and C3," and "Error 3 and Error 4" (that is, partial correlation between M1 and M2) in the model may contribute

Table 6

Results of Principal Component Analysis of Ratings on the 14 Affective Items (Direct Oblimin Rotation: KMO 0.865)

Scale	Component 1 (A1)	Component 2 (A2)
Not at all traditional/Totally traditional	-0.782	-0.124
Totally touristic/Not at all touristic	0.728	-0.382
Totally unique/Totally ordinary	0.706	0.117
Place for visitors/Place for locals	0.670	-0.417
Totally must-see/Not at all must-see	0.657	-0.045
No incongruent features/Many incongruent features	0.588	0.225
Totally ancient/Totally modern	0.570	0.418
Totally like a daily life/Not at all like a daily life	-0.558	0.055
Minor attractions/Major attractions	-0.550	0.527
Totally quiet/Totally noisy	0.125	0.802
Totally restless/Totally composed	-0.150	-0.784
Totally active/Totally dull	0.328	-0.698
Totally gloomy/Totally cheerful	-0.313	0.625
Totally dangerous/Totally safe	-0.194	-0.538
Variance explained (%)	32.220	20.820
Accumulative variance explained (%)	32.220	53.040

Table 7
Results of Principal Component Analysis of Ratings on the Nine Items Related to Mental States (Direct Oblimin Rotation: KMO 0.898)

Item	Component 1 (M1)	Component 2 (M2)
Seeing something famous	0.839	-0.101
Being convinced that you have visited the right place	0.796	0.136
Seeing, experiencing, or obtaining something worth telling others	0.792	0.086
Doing shopping	0.782	-0.347
Appreciating something outside your daily life	0.766	-0.028
Seeing townscape	0.733	0.223
Walking around	0.663	0.265
Doing things as you like	0.567	0.259
Relaxing	0.201	0.833
Variance explained (%)	55.465	9.083
Accumulative variance explained (%)	55.465	64.548

Figure 2. The first model for relationships between components.

to better fit indices (modification index = 21.100, 59.251 and 96.170, respectively, and Par Chance = 0.126, -0.212, and 0.161, respectively). The model was modified by first including the suggested three paths and then excluding the suggested three paths from the path whose absolute value of C.R. (= Estimate/S.E.) is the least, next the one whose absolute value of C.R. is the second least, and lastly the one whose absolute value of C.R. is the third least. After each step was taken, chi-square p , GFI, AGFI, and RMSEA were calculated (see Table 8). The same paths, except ones deleted at the previous steps, appeared as insignificant until the final model was obtained. All the other paths remained significant through these steps.

The final model shows GFI = 0.999, AGFI = 0.997, and RMSEA = 0.000. Furthermore, chi-square p = 0.726, which is over 0.10. Therefore, it is assumed that the final model significantly suits the data. This model also shows AIC of 48.829, which is the smallest among the five attempted models. AIC is an index that can be used to compare more than one model, and a smaller score means that the model is better (Yamamoto & Onodera, 2002). The final model is illustrated in Figure 3. This figure includes all the paths shown in Figure 2, except the three paths that were found to be insignificant as explained earlier. In addition, three covariances, the inclusion of which in the model was suggested to contribute to better fit indices as argued before, are also included in Figure 3.

Results and Discussion

As already noted, the research included both personal interviews and slide experiments. The results of the former have been presented elsewhere (Naoi et al., 2007). However, they are also considered here together with the results of the slide experiments to allow comparison.

Discussion of the Elicited Relationships Between Components

Although the scope for generalization about each of the relationships between components is limited by the sample size, their interpretation is potentially useful both in examining how the employed methods bring to light the nature of evaluation of historical districts as tourism destinations and how the results relate to past arguments.

Some of the results illustrate both the positive and negative effects of the presence of other people as previously argued in light of crowding theories and the concept of collective/romantic gaze (Urry, 2002). In the results of the personal interviews, relationships are observed between the presence of people (NC2) and stronger touristic/famous (NA2) and active atmosphere (NA5) and the lesser degree of quietness (NA4) and oldness (NA1). The results of the slide experiments also show that *touristic objects* (C2), which include visitors, seem favorable for sightseeing (M1) directly or through a traditional/touristic/unique atmosphere (A1). They may also have a positive direct effect on desire for relaxation (M2), but this effect may be negative when touristic objects are perceived to be restless/active (A2). These results suggest the negative effects of crowding (Schreyer & Roggenbuck, 1978; West, 1982; Womble & Studebaker, 1981) and its positive effects with relation to sense of activity (Argyle, Furnham, & Graham, 1981; Ditton et al., 1983, cited in Manning, 1985; Graham & Burge, 1984; Hull, 1990; Naoi et al., 2006; Naoi & Iijima, 2004). These results also shed light on historical districts as objects of both romantic and collective gaze (Urry, 2002).

Some results also shed light on the perception of commercialization, which has been argued to be positive or negative. The relationships between

Table 8
p-Value of Chi Square test, GFI, AGFI, and RMSEA

Path	Chi Square	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	GFI	AGFI	AIC	RMSEA
After step 1	1.896	2	0.388	1.000	0.994	53.896	0.000
After step 2	1.933	3	0.586	1.000	0.996	51.933	0.000
After step 3	2.132	4	0.712	1.000	0.997	50.132	0.000
After step 4	2.829	5	0.726	0.999	0.997	48.829	0.000

Figure 3. The final model for relationships between components.

shops (NC3) and stronger touristic/famous (NA2), unique (NA3), old (NA1), and active atmosphere (NA5) were found in the results of the personal interviews. In the results of the slide experiments also, *old objects* (C3), which include old shops, were found to relate quite strongly to traditional/touristic/unique atmosphere (A1). Old objects (C3) also have a direct positive effect on perceived opportunity for sightseeing (M1), and their indirect effect on this objective through traditional/touristic/unique atmosphere (A1) is very strong. These findings imply a certain contribution of commercialization to the uniqueness and authenticity of a district as suggested by Naoi et al. (2006) although such positive effects may be applicable only for commercialization in old forms.

The negative impacts of modern objects are also surfaced in the results. The personal interviews elicited the relationships between vehicles (NC1) and newness (NA1), ordinary atmosphere (NA3), danger (A27) and the perception that the district is minor as a tourism destination (NA2), and between rickshaws (C1) and touristic (NA2),

unique (NA3), and old atmosphere (NA1). In the slide experiments also, *modern objects* (C1) may be perceived negatively by some people who desire sightseeing (M1) and others who wish to relax (M2) when associated with a sense of modern/nontouristic/ordinary atmosphere (A1) or restless/active atmosphere (A2) although they may have a direct positive effect on the demand for sightseeing (M1). In consideration of these results, together with the previously explained positive effects of old objects, this study emphasizes the role of a historical district where opportunities for visitors to appreciate the past is claimed to be the main attraction (Lynch, 1972; Millar, 1989; Moscardo, 2000).

As a whole, the results highlight the mixed nature of evaluations of historical districts as tourism destinations in light of the effects of others, commercialization, and modernity.

The Efficacy of the Methods

In the review section, it is argued that qualitative methods such as personal interviews and

quantitative methods such as slide experiments could be in a mutually complementary relationship. The results of slide experiments here indicate such usefulness. Among the results of the repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis, some relationships between affective components and mental states were also prominent. Either directly or indirectly, many affective components (such as between old atmosphere: NA1, touristic/famous atmosphere: NA2, uniqueness: NA3, and active atmosphere: NA5) are related to mental states (such as doing shopping: NW1, seeing something famous: N3, experiencing/obtaining something to show/tell others: N10, being convinced that the district is the right place to visit: N14, seeing something outside daily life: NN2). It is observed that a sense of touristic/famous atmosphere, uniqueness, active atmosphere, and old atmosphere commonly relate to many mental states.

This raises the assumption that these four affective components could be categorized under a smaller number of headings. This was actually observed in the results of the principal component analysis of affective components in the slide experiments, which generated two basic affective components: modern/nontouristic/ordinary-traditional/touristic/unique dimension (A1) and restless/active-composed/dull dimension (A2). The existence of the latter dimension is interesting in light of the concept of activity because it implies that visitors may be convinced that senses of both activity and dullness perceived in a historical district have both negative and positive meanings. These two components were implied to have different effects on mental states in a sense that only the former of these two components (A1) was found to have significant effects on demands for sightseeing (M1). However, instead of concluding that these two are the basic affective components for the evaluation of a historical district, further examination of possible other affective components is needed. Particularly, the "restless/active-composed/dull" dimension (A2) needs further investigation in light of the low R^2 for the relationships between this dimension and the three cognitive components (C1, C2, and C3).

Differences between mental states were less clear-cut. Indeed, apart from between experiencing/obtaining something to show/tell others (N10)

and doing shopping (NW1) and between doing things freely (NN1) and walking (W5), no hierarchical relationships were observed in the results of the repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis. In addition, it was assumed that subjects might not have really perceived each mental state differently. This assumption was grounded by the results of the principal component analysis of mental states-related components in the slide experiments, which implies that most of the mental states were grouped as sightseeing (M1), leaving only relaxation (M2) as the other component. However, it is too early to assume that visitors' desire for a historical district as a tourism destination can be summarized as these two components. The further classification of demands for sightseeing may be possible if further elicitation of mental states using different groups of subjects and different historical districts is attempted. Such an attempt may also be fruitful in consideration of the low R^2 for the relationships between "relaxing" (M2) and the two affective components (A1 and 2) and *touristic objects* (C2).

To sum up, it is suggested that the slide experiments show the picture of evaluations of historical districts in a more holistic and simple manner by detecting the commonality between the elicited components and arranging them into more comprehensive components. Moreover, the results also indicate the necessity of further exploration of components, which may play roles in the evaluations.

Conclusions

The Nature of Evaluations of Historical Districts

The approaches proposed in this study are useful for investigations into how the physical features of a historical district are perceived by visitors in relation to their mental states. Interesting findings include the relationships between cognitive components and affective components and between affective components and mental states. These results shed light on many issues, such as ones concerning concepts of crowding (Stokols, 1972), romantic and collective gaze (Urry, 2002), and mixed perceptions of commercialization (Ashworth, 1988; Ashworth & Tunbridge, 2000; Herbert, 1995; Hewison, 1987; Mathieson & Wall,

1982). Whereas some of these relationships accord with previous arguments about positive perceptions of old objects and negative impacts of modern objects, others related to commercialization and the presence of others comprehend both positive and negative views about these components. In these senses, visitors' evaluations are empirically illustrated as many sided. The results not only suggest the significance of some evaluative dimensions, such as activity and a touristic atmosphere, and mental states, such as sightseeing and relaxation, but also suggest the existence of other potential components.

The Efficacy of the Methods

As expected at the stage of selection of the methods, the combination of repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis, and slide experiments were found to be complementary. Repertory grid analysis and laddering analysis offered very detailed insights into the mixed nature of evaluation of a historical district as a tourism destination. The slide experiments then recategorized the components on the basis of statistical investigation of ratings and detected the significant relationships between the components in a statistically meaningful model. The slide experiments also enabled analysis in a more holistic and simple form. However, the holistic picture by itself is insufficient in that it may fail to comprehend different relationships attributed to subtle differences in the meanings of components. Therefore, comparison of the results of these two approaches can capture the commonly observed results as well as the issues overlooked by either one of them.

Limitations

This study inevitably has a number of constraints, many of which are related to the nature of the methods. The methods employed here offer advantages mainly in thoroughly investigating the complex nature of evaluations of a historical district and eliciting a number of components and relationships between them by providing subjects with substantial time to assess clearly presented stimuli. However, the drawbacks cannot be overlooked. Prominent among these is the relatively small number of interviewees, which obviously re-

stricts the scope for generalization. Also possibilities for investigating influences caused by diversity among subjects as to their sociodemographic variables and psychological characteristics are restricted. This drawback springs largely from the nature of the methods, whose implementation requires considerable time for each interview and experiment. For the purpose of this research, students at the university of one of the researchers provided a willing and convenient sample. For broader conclusions these methods should be followed by the accumulation of further studies of this kind to different groups of subjects and by research applied to a broader range of subjects in field settings.

Although the use of photographs in this study has an advantage in showing subjects the features of a historical district as visual stimuli and actually elicited many responses to these features of a historical district, the fact that subjects did not actually visit the place may exclude the possibility of investigating the effects of components such as multisensory evaluations, actual operation of services, temporal phenomena (such as climate or lightness/darkness), and accessibility or locations. Selection of districts to photograph is another limitation. As Ashworth and Tunbridge (2000) claim, a spatial pattern of a historical district could vary depending on a range of aspects, such as topographical features. Needless to say, no pairs of historical districts in the world share exactly the same features. This imposes further difficulty in generalizing results from this study. As the coverage of types of historical districts as research objects is likely to be limited because of time and budget constraints, the accumulation of further studies of a range of cases is required to obtain a more comprehensive picture of evaluations of historical districts as tourism destinations.

Despite the efficacy of the methods in this study, the results also imply the necessity of further efforts to elicit more affective components and mental states as argued earlier. The fact that components that can be categorized as values were not elicited also emphasizes the need for further efforts to extract mental states. Indeed, in past tourism studies, which used laddering analysis (Klenosky, 2002; Klenosky et al., 1993; Jansen-Verbeke & van Rekom, 1996), components, which

were categorized as values such as “self esteem” (Klenosky, 2002, p. 393), “achievement” (Klenosky et al. 1993, p. 372), and “enrich your life” (Jansen-Verbeke & van Rekom, 1996, p. 368), were extracted. While the use of photographs have merited the extraction of many components, research with subjects in field settings may make them more conscious of their mental states, including values.

Overviews

Despite the limitations, this study offers a number of insights into the investigation of visitors' evaluations of historical districts. Relationships between various components of a historical district and mental states that are often theoretically discussed have been empirically extracted. While further explorative studies are found necessary, the mixed relationships, such as between the presence of others or commercial objects, activity and demands for sightseeing and relaxation, could be utilized as frameworks for future broader studies to extend the knowledge of the roles of contrived elements in historical districts in visitors' evaluations.

To sum up, this study proposed and tested a new way of trying to understand and investigate this issue. The implications including limitations provided by this study are expected to serve as guides for further investigations of this kind with employment of different types of subjects or districts or possibly a broader survey in field settings. This study is still on its way for the establishment of theoretical frameworks to understand visitors' evaluations of historical districts, especially in light of further potential components which are suggested above. The accumulation of studies is expected to contribute to such a goal.

The approaches proposed here could also contribute to managerial perspectives. As the physical environments of tourism destinations are often very difficult to tailor-make, these studies are expected to help tourism managers who seek to match the features of such districts with visitors' demands, particularly in consideration of the results showing mixed feelings on contrived elements in historical districts. These findings could also offer insights into the way existing features

may appeal to visitors' particular demands avoiding excessive physical manipulations.

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